Towards a Shared Curriculum in Translator and Interpreter Education

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Introduction

Fifteen years ago Donald C. Kiraly published his seminal book, entitled *A Social Constructivist Approach to Translator Education. Empowerment from Theory to Practice* (2000). It encouraged translator educators to reconsider the basic notions and practices in translator training of the time. The social constructivist background of D. Kiraly's (2000) work made him highlight the fact that effective translator education[1] is primarily a matter of the translation classroom participants and their educational interaction. Content, tasks and procedures come second. This way of perceiving the translation educational reality is a condition to empower the students and the teachers of translation. The notion of empowerment used by D. Kiraly (2000) shows best how he wants the reader to change the way of thinking about the students, the teacher and the whole (holistic) context of translation education.

D. Kiraly (2000) changed a lot in contemporary reflection on translator and interpreter education. Yet, in our view, and in the light of the observations we constantly make in our working environment, this book has not yet changed the translation educational practice to a satisfactory degree. In our view, even though contemporary translator/interpreter academic educators are ready to admit that it is learning rather than teaching that truly matters in their classrooms, this realization does not prevent them from sticking to teaching-centred thinking, classroom organization and practices.

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1   In this monograph, we follow the distinction from S. Bernardini (2004) between T&I training and education. This is because of the thematic scope of our work. At the same time, we do not want to see these two concepts as contradictory, but as complementary. This is why we also use the concept of T&I training in some contexts.

Let us explain here that the majority of observations made in this book relate to our personal experience of working as an academic teacher in a particular academic environment. We have had the opportunity of working in two Lublin-based universities. We worked at the Institute of English at John Paul II Catholic University of Lublin (henceforth as KUL) in the years 1995–2005. Then, we joined a very ambitious translation/interpreting programme created in the Division of Applied Linguistics at Maria Curie-Skłodowska University (henceforth as UMCS) and worked there for seven years. In 2012, we moved back to KUL, where translation and interpreting programmes were gradually winning greater recognition. At these two institutions, we have co-created translation/interpreting educational programmes of various types. Some of these are subject to our discussion in this monograph. Our observations in this text also cover experiences with a handful of other academic institutions we have had the privilege of cooperating with, *e.g.* State Vocational College in Chełm (PWSZ w Chełmie) or Foreign Language Teacher Training College in Chełm (NKJO w Chełmie).

The reason for presenting this bibliographical detail above is that we want to avoid any overgeneralization as for the validity of the observations we make in this text. Our conversations and contacts with other teachers in Poland and abroad as well as the data that we discuss in Chapter 6 can be an indication that at least some of the problems we point out are challenges of contemporary T&I education or of academic education in general.[2] One clear indication that these problems are not only local issues is available in the publications by D. Kiraly after (2000). Even though they employ a variety of concepts and ideas (postmodernism, enactive cognitive science, complexity theory, transformational educational theory – as listed in Kiraly 2012: 82), they repeat the same appeal: to change the main focus of translator/interpreter education from the teaching procedures (content, coverage, list of competences) to facilitating the learning process in its individual and social contexts.

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2   We can also see a direct correspondence between our observations, data research reported in this monograph and the findings in K. Hejwowski (2004), L. Zieliński (2005) and J. Żmudzki (2008). These authors point out that translation training in Poland is – or maybe was at the time when these texts were written – hardly organized in a systemic way. Serious problems and challenges of the Polish and European system of translator and interpreter training are also diagnosed by J. Kearns (*e.g.* 2008) or A. Pym (2009a, 2009b).

Thus, drawing upon our realization that the ideas like the ones promoted by D. Kiraly still fail to effectively shape the translation/interpreting educational reality we experience, we decided to use D. Kiraly's (2000) seminal work as a departure point for our investigations in this monograph, with the main aim to repeat and augment his appeal for a transformation of the way educators and students think about and act as participants of the translation/interpreting education process.

Our investigations proceed in two major directions. Firstly, inspired by the epistemological reflection in D. Kiraly (2000), we decided to expand his argumentation with the help of the ideas developed by an outstanding Polish linguist, Professor Franciszek Grucza. Of utmost import to us is his *Anthropocentric Theory of Human Languages* and particularly its epistemological corollaries (Grucza 1997, 2009). Secondly, attracted by D. Kiraly's (2000) numerous references to the world of educational theories, we decided to expand our knowledge of how various educationists formulated their views on education. We wanted to determine to what extent their conceptions – sometimes almost a century old – can inform our reflection and practice in translator/interpreter training. This step opened before us the whole realm of research achievements in the field of adult education, non-formal and lifelong learning as well as workplace learning. The legacy of researchers like J. Bruner, M. Knowles, C. Rogers or J. Mezirow needs to be more widely recognized in the debate on translation/interpreter education, and even more so in the daily educational practices in the translation/interpreting classroom. Voices and arguments of scholars like G. Grow, S. Hase, C. Kenyon, M. Eraut and S. Billett are worthy of consideration, too, if translator/interpreter education is to be profession-oriented but holistic at the same time.

Our findings in these two domains lead us to the decision that our own work on the translation/interpreting classroom needs to cater for two main dimensions of translator/interpreter education: (a) real students, real teachers and real educational tasks in the translation/interpreting classroom; (b) the relational nature of the translation/interpreting education, which – in our view – is often taken for granted or ignored in the educational reflection and practice. Focusing on these two aspects made us highlight the role of classroom interpersonal communication. In the approach we propose here, interpersonal communication skills are a key resource for the task-based translation/interpreting classroom.

One aspect of the classroom organization that we try to discuss in terms of communication activity is assessment. This is because in our approach, assessment is not part of *performance magistrale*, but of collaborative, relational learning of students with teachers. It does not *follow* teaching, but is an *integral part* of learning together. If the constructivist idea of learning is that of a negotiated construction of senses, it must also cover assessment and self-assessment.

Although some of our observations can be inspiring to the readers, while others hard to accept, from our point of view, they can be all accommodated within a relatively coherent set of ideas, which we decided to call an approach to translator/interpreter education. An umbrella term that we employ for our approach is that of *sharing the translation/interpreting classroom and curriculum*. The notion of sharing as we use it corresponds directly to that by A. Bednar *et al.* (1992: 28), where it is defined as developing, comparing and understanding multiple perspectives represented by various participants of communicative interaction. We also expand their definition by adding to it the component of negotiating of the senses – a pivotal idea of the constructivist education programme. Sharing the classroom and curricular space is not always about finding agreement. It is not always about obedient following the existing narratives of power. In fact, learning, as we see it in this monograph, manifests itself through one's ability to negotiate one's perspective of the world, through readiness to defend it or transform it. Negotiating one's views offers a chance for a negotiator to realize that these views are significant to him/her as part of his/her life experience and as a basis for further learning.

The metaphor of sharing the translation/interpreting classroom and curriculum rests on the assumption that these two phenomena can be conceived of as spaces where people meet and negotiate[3] (values, interests, needs, senses, solutions, *etc.*) in order to attain their objectives. We employ the notion of the negotiating of the educational space for two reasons. Firstly, it corresponds directly with our appeal that the translation/interpreting classroom and curriculum be open to other voices in the educational narrative than the ones of the Academia and the students. If translator/interpreter education authentically aspires to build bridges between learning and work, its classrooms and curricula must be shared

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3   Also see the notion of negotiated curriculum as used in T. Jeffs, M. Smith (eds.) (1990).

with the stakeholders representing the real world of the translation/ interpreting industry (or, in fact, with many others). Let us add here that the idea of multiple voices in the translation/interpreting classroom was first presented by M. González Davies (2004) and it constitutes a strong inspiration for a large part of our argumentation in this monograph. Secondly, our use of the notion of negotiating spaces is also anchored in S. Billett's (2001: 7) notion of workplace as a *contested terrain*, which is a scene of never-ending negotiations of axiologies, norms and behaviours of all the stakeholders involved (Billett 2001: 56).

Sharing can also be looked at from the perspective suggested in the quotation below:

> No educational institution teaches just through its courses, workshops, and institutes; no corporation teaches just through its inservice education programs; and no voluntary organization teaches just through its meetings and study groups. They all teach by everything they do, and often they teach opposite lessons in their organizational operation from what they teach in their educational program. This line of reasoning has led modern adult-education theorists to place increasing emphasis on the importance of building an educative environment in all institutions and organizations that undertake to help people learn. What are the characteristics of an educative environment? […] They can probably be boiled down to four basic characteristics: 1) respect for personality, 2) participation in decision making, 3) freedom of expression and availability of information, and 4) mutuality of responsibility in defining goals, planning and conducting activities, and evaluating. (Knowles *et al.* [1973] 2005: 108)

Thus, in our shared classroom, real people meet to negotiate and determine their real learning tasks, accept them and enter into various kinds of relations in order to attain these tasks. They also use the tasks and all the narratives that task realization involves to construct their knowledge through negotiating. We will try to use the rest of this monograph to explain these ideas to the reader by presenting them from different angles and by showing how we have tried to put them into educational practice. At the same time, it is clear to us that the idea of sharing can be constructed in different ways by different readers – which comes as no surprise if one takes into account that the general epistemological approach adopted in our work is relativistic. This text is not intended as a *handbook* full of recommended *methods*, which are *justified* in empirical research. In the light

of the fact that no exhaustive research on knowledge construction exists to this day, talking about *methods* in education can only be a more or less useful metaphor. *Handbooks* can be useful educational tools, as long as they help scaffold the classroom interaction. However, our experience shows that much too often they become *canonical texts* with *educational content* intended for *transfer* (whatever that process actually is about) to the learners. Thus, from the epistemological position that we adopt in this monograph, no idealized, generalized, scientifically objective and hence exclusive methods for facilitating learning are available. In this way, we subscribe to the view expressed in the introductory part of M. González Davies (2004: 6), where she claims that her "aim is not to present an exclusive pedagogical approach. This seems irrelevant in our afore-mentioned Post-Method Condition days when no one and only method can be regarded for teaching or learning."[4]

To sum up, our text is intended to be a creative synthesis of a number of sources that helps us work out a number of observations, formulate a number of claims and suggest a number of educational proposals in the field of translator/interpreter training. Irrespective of the fact that to a large degree our argumentation rests on the extensive work of others, the full responsibility for all the interpretations and claims made hereby rests on us. The same holds true for any potential misinterpretations and mistakes we may have committed when writing this monograph.

Notwithstanding our full responsibility for this text, we are happy to recognize the extent to which our work relies on the help and support of other people. We extend our words of gratitude to Professor Franciszek Grucza for his support for our investigations into the realm of anthropocentric profiling of learning and knowledge construction. We need to remark here that our own transformation of the educational perspective started with F. Grucza (1997). His anthropocentric epistemology[5] made us realize that we needed to rethink what we had been doing as a teacher, translator, interpreter and researcher. Even though initially we were

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4   Also see S. Grucza (2005: 381) for a similar stance.

5   The concept of epistemology as we employ it relates to knowledge in its most general sense (*cf. e.g.* Shaffer 2007, Kirschner 2009), not being confined to scientific knowledge only (*cf. e.g.* Grucza 2009 or Wąsik 2014). At the same time, our use of the concept of epistemology is conditioned by the educational context of its use. In other words, in our text the concept of knowledge construction is often understood as learning.

largely dissatisfied or even unhappy about the crisis this text evoked in us, we were always allured by the huge potential that the anthropocentric perspective on learning, knowledge and education could bring about.

We would also like to express our gratitude to Professor Jerzy Żmudzki, who is a co-creator and was Head of the Division of Applied Linguistics at UMCS since 2001 until 2013. We are grateful to Professor Jerzy Żmudzki for his relentless efforts to build an empowered, learning-centred environment in the extremely complex situation of a Polish academic institution. We are also pleased to acknowledge that Professor Jerzy Żmudzki inspired us to explore the leading trends in the German-speaking literature in the fields of translation, interpreting, communication and text linguistics. In a special way, we wish to thank Professor Jerzy Żmudzki for the degree of autonomy that he provided us with when implementing a programme for interpreter training discussed in Chapter 7.

We wish to express our gratitude to Donald Kiraly. First and foremost, for his voice and insistence on highlighting the potential of education focused on people and learning together. The degree to which Donald Kiraly's work is inspirational to us is visible in the fact that apart from F. Grucza (1997), D. Kiraly (2000) is among the most frequently evoked texts in this monograph. We are especially thankful to Donald Kiraly for his guidance at the course for the Certificate in Collaborative Translation Teaching and Training in Barcelona in July 2008. I am also thankful for all the conversations we have had from that time onwards.

The CCTT course in Barcelona in 2008 was hosted by Maria González Davies, to whom we feel indebted for the enormous degree of inspiration. We rely extensively on the notions of *classroom dynamics* and *multiple voices in the translation classroom* (González Davies 2004) in our own narrative about translator/interpreter education. We find these notions one of the most significant ideas in contemporary debate and practice in the field of translator/interpreter training.

Translation competence, translator expertise and translation as a profession as key concepts in T&I education

This chapter introduces a selection of concepts in translator/interpreter education (henceforth mostly as T&I education) that constitute a point of departure for our discussion in this monograph. We are intentionally selective in our choice, and we resign from providing the reader with an exhaustive panorama of concepts and ideas in the realm of translator education research and practice. This is owing to the fact that there are numerous publications that adopt such a panoramic approach to the issues at hand, *e.g.* C. Dollerup (1996), M. González Davies, D. Kiraly (2006), D. Kelly (2005), K. Klaudy ([2003] 2007), P. Płusa (2000), A. Pym (2009a) or J. Kearns (2006, 2012). Worth mentioning in this context is M. Tryuk (2007) for her exhaustive presentation of the historical outline of how translation has become a profession. However, the most extensive study of the kind is M. Piotrowska (2007). We find her survey an extremely insightful resource. Any attempt to draw a T&I educational big picture like the one she offers in her work would – deliberately or not – repeat a lot of her material and observations. This seems pointless to us, as most ideas and problems included in her text have kept their relevance after the seven years since the publication.

The choice of the three concepts signalled in the chapter's title is not incidental. Even though the notion of translation competence was a prevalent topic of the debate in translator/interpreter education at the turn of the new millennium, it remains a crucial notion – even if questioned by some researchers – in translator and interpreter educational narratives 15 years later. Whether advocated or criticised, translation competence remains a concept that is at least a point of reference in contemporary studies in T&I education. The majority of T&I education researchers

and practitioners find the notion instrumental in describing the desired effects of their planning and teaching efforts. Some even hope that when an empirically-based operationalization of translation competence is developed, the empirical facts defining TC will be translated onto instruction programmes for translation competence acquisition by students. From a more down-to-earth perspective, translation competence – particularly when understood as a system of subcompetences – is regularly used as a basis for curriculum design. The list of subcompetences can help curriculum designers decide on what must and what can be part of their planned translation/interpreting curriculum (henceforth mostly as T&I curriculum).

The concept of translation (and interpreting) expertise is often defined as identical with the notion of translation competence. However, sometimes a distinction between the two is retained in the literature. If this is the case, translation competence is regarded as the first step to translation/interpreting expertise or proficiency. Our reference to the notion of expertise is mostly owing to the fact that it is a notion used to describe the expected outcomes of T&I educational activities adopted by representatives of an approach to translation – though predominantly interpreting – focused on the cognitive regularities behind the translation act, which is generally known as the *process research* approach.

The last concept introduced in the title – translation/interpreting as a profession – pertains to the crucial link between educating translators and interpreters and their future functioning as service providers. This functioning has been allowed for in all the major definitions of translation competence developed in the literature, which means that the majority of approaches to translation competence and the related curricula acknowledge the fact that translator/interpreter education is inseparably professional education.

The two previously discussed notions represent the way of conceptualizing the ideas and problems in T&I education that were topical at the turn of the millennium. We contend that the notion of translation/interpreting as a profession is different in this respect. Even though it has been an integral part of the T&I educational debate since the mid-1990s (see *e.g.* sources quoted above), it seems to be coming to the foreground relatively recently, as borne out by D. Gouadec (2007) – most probably the first that comprehensive handling of the multidimensional translation

industry as a professional space. The growing interest in the professional aspect of T&I education has also been conditioned by a number of factors, such as economic or cultural globalization or the changing status of contemporary universities. While the impact of the former can be illustrated by the volume of translated/localized multimedia and web content, the latter can perhaps be best exemplified by the Bologna Process and its impact on the educational conceptions in the European academic environment.

Taking all the above into account, we intend to show in this chapter, but also in this monograph as a whole, that the optics one adopts – deliberately or not – in defining the concept of competence and/or expertise affects directly the conception of the professional dimension of T&I curriculum. In our view, some widely accepted assumptions concerning translation competence can raise problems rather than facilitate the attainment of the profession-related aspirations of T&I education.

1. Translation competence as a key concept in translation education

This section discusses a selection of research on the concept of translation competence emerging in the literature of the subject from 2000 onwards. Despite the fact the notion had been winning researchers' interest before 2000, as testified by such works as C. Dollerup, A. Lindegaard (eds.) (1994), C. Dollerup, V. Appel (eds.) (1996), D. Kiraly (1995), K. Klaudy (1996), C. Nord (1996), E. Tabakowska (1992)[6] or J. Vienne (1994),[7] it seems that the notion of translation competence became the key concept in the debate on what to teach in the translation classroom around that time. In part, this must have been owing to the publication of the seminal volume by C. Schäffner, B. Adab (eds.) (2000),

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6 E. Tabakowska (1992) is one of the voices in the debate on translation training that paved the way to the rise of T&I training and education in the mid-1990s.

7 A. Pym (2003) presents a neat historical outline of how the concept of translation competence has come into being. Worth mentioning in the context is the series of publications authored, edited or co-edited by F. Grucza, *e.g.* (1981, 1985, 1992, 1997), as well as the publication series entitled *Training Translators and Interpreters* (*e.g.* Dąmbska-Prokop, Płusa (eds.) 1997, 2001, Dąmbska-Prokop (ed.) 1998, 1999, 2000), where the problem of translator skills and competences was discussed extensively.

entitled *Developing Translation Competence*. In their volume, C. Schäffner, B. Adab attempted to consolidate the whole variety of research perspectives on translation competence:

> As we move into the twenty-first century, there is clearly a consensus amongst experts in Translation Studies that their object of study, *i.e.* translation, is a complex activity, involving expertise in a number of areas and skills. In order to fulfil their task, translators need to have knowledge of what is required, they need to have the skills: in a word they need to be competent to perform the task. (Schäffner, Adab (eds.) 2000: viii)

The above quotation reveals that the editors regard the notion of translation competence as the pivot of translator training. They also adopt an approach where translation competence covers a variety of skills and actions, rather than being one skill of a particular kind. Apart from consolidating the research on translation competence, C. Schäffner, B. Adab (eds.) (2000) was seminal in inspiring further research on the notion. It focused on further understanding what translation competence is, building a model of education based on the notion, along with ways of assessing the acquisition of the competence.

Following A. Pym's (2003, 2009a) observations on the notion under analysis, as well as the relatively recent educational assumptions developed for the European Master's in Translation programme,[8] one can conclude that the most prominent approach to the notion of translation competence is what A. Pym (2003: 6) names *multicomponential*.[9] Under this conception, translation competence is defined – or, in fact, described – in terms of skills that a person needs to translate (competently, as an expert, professionally). However, a lot of researchers trying to understand the competence as a list or system of components relied more on their own translating, theoretical or teaching experience, and omitted trying to determine if any of these postulated skills can be empirically proved.

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8   The outline, objectives and the educational premises for this programme are presented in the document we refer to as EMT (2009). See references for detail. Also see A. Pym (2009b) for comments on the programme.

9   For a detailed list of proposals concerning the particular sub-competence components, see A. Pym (2003: 485–487). Worth mentioning in this context are the multicomponential definitions provided by A. Hurtado Albir (2007) and M. González Davies (2004: 131), where apart from multicomponentiality, a detailed systemic organization of components is to be noted as well.

This seems particularly true about the discussions on the topic held in the late 1970s until the mid- or late-1980s.[10]

The situation changed with H. Krings' (1986) work, which is often pointed out as the pioneering work in, as G. Hansen (2003: 25) puts it "research into translation process." The process researchers have been trying to determine how translator performance can be empirically researched as a manifestation of psycholinguistic processes of the human mind. By observing the processes behind the functioning of experienced translators/interpreters, and by juxtaposing this data against the behaviour of students or novices, is to give the empirical grounds to the conception of translation/interpreting expertise, and can be used in building effective T&I curricula[11] (*cf.* Lörscher 2005: 598, also discussed in detail in section 3 below).

Some representatives of the process-oriented approach to translation competence rely on the concept of multicomponential translation competence. They do not confine their research to a postulation of theoretical models, trying to find psycholinguistic evidence for what translation competence is, how it works and how it can be acquired by students of translation. The list of researchers in this branch of translation studies is extensive.[12] For our purposes, however, we will mostly concentrate on one of the most prominent representatives of this research trend: the PACTE research group. PACTE have developed their own model of translation competence with the aim of anchoring it in psycholinguistic, experientially researchable facts. In one of their recent research reports (PACTE 2011), the researchers state that the reports they published until 2009 belong to Phase 1 of their research:

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10 See *e.g.* W. Lörscher (1992: 145) for more details on the issue.

11 In the introduction to an edited volume devoted to process oriented research in translation, F. Alves (2003: vii) employs the metaphor of *triangulating translation*, which underlines the contributors' efforts to build the link between cognitive theory, empirical research and translation didactics.

12 A comprehensive list of contributions to this research domain is given in *e.g.* G. Hansen (2003: 27). Apart from the works listed there, and apart from the research conducted by the PACTE group, noteworthy in the present context are also relatively recent studies by S. Göpferich (2008, 2009) and S. Göpferich *et al.* (eds.) (2010), dealing – among other topics – with longitudinal testing of differences displayed between novice and advanced students of translation and translation experts.

the investigation of translation competence in expert translators with the aim of developing a holistic model of translation competence which may subsequently be validated in a hypothetic-deductive study of professional translators. (PACTE 2011: 32)

Whereas in Phase 2, they plan to investigate:

the process of acquisition of translation competence in trainee translators with the aim of developing a holistic model of the acquisition of translation competence - based on the PACTE model of translation competence (PACTE 2003) - which may then be validated by a hypothetic-deductive study of trainee translators. (PACTE 2011: 32)

The model, as presented in PACTE (2003: 47–48) relies on four main principles, listed in Table 1 below. In the left column, we present the formulation of the principles in PACTE (2003), whereas in the right, the reader will find their formulation in PACTE (2008).

Table 1. Comparison of the four premises of the PACTE model of translation competence in their formulations in PACTE (2003) and PACTE (2008)

PACTE (2003: 47–48)	PACTE (2008: 106)
1. Translation competence is qualitatively different from bilingual competence.	1. TC is expert knowledge that is not possessed by all bilinguals.
2. Translation competence is the underlying system of knowledge needed to translate.	–
3. Translation competence is an expert knowledge and, like all expert knowledge, comprises declarative and procedural knowledge; the latter is predominant.	2. TC is mainly procedural rather than declarative knowledge
4. Translation competence is made up of a system of sub-competencies that are inter-related, hierarchical and that these relationships are subject to variations.	3. TC is made up of several interrelated subcompetences.
–	4. The strategic component of TC is of particular importance, as in all types of procedural knowledge.

The columns presented in Table 1 above are positioned in such a way that the similarities and differences between the subsequent formulations of the PACTE's premises are visible. The changes that

the PACTE researchers introduced in the formulation of the premises made the system more concise and precise. These changes mirror the way in which the PACTE group has been moving along with their understanding of the concept of knowledge, expertise and translation competence. Premise 2 in PACTE (2003) disappeared from PACTE (2008), as did the notion of the hierarchical organization of subcompetences. The strategic subcompetence is particularly emphasized in PACTE (2008), which in a sense equals a statement about its centrality in the system. We do not intend to discuss these alterations in any further detail, since these aspects of the PACTE model are not central to the main argument of this dissertation. Of more interest to us is the very list of subcompetences and the relationships obtaining between them, as postulated by PACTE (2003) and PACTE (2008).

As for the set of competences, PACTE (2008) also presents a slightly altered version of PACTE (2003). Table 2 below presents the set of subcompetences postulated by PACTE, and is mostly based on the (2008) articulation of the model.

Table 2. Translation competence and its subcompetences (based on PACTE 2003: 60 and PACTE 2008: 106)

Subcompetence	Description
bilingual	predominantly procedural knowledge required to communicate in two languages. It comprises pragmatic, sociolinguistic, textual, grammatical and lexical knowledge
extra-linguistic	predominantly declarative knowledge, both implicit and explicit, about the world in general, and field specific. It comprises bicultural, encyclopaedic, and subject knowledge
knowledge about translation	predominantly declarative knowledge, both implicit and explicit about translation and aspects of the profession. It comprises knowledge about how translation functions (translator's "workshop" or translation process management) and knowledge of professional translation practice (market-related regulations and conditions of the translator business, translation (business) process management, legal status, ethical codes, affiliation at translation-related organizations, *etc.*)
instrumental	predominantly procedural knowledge related to the use of documentation resources, information and communications technologies applied to translation (all kind of sources and resources used by translators to seek translation solutions)

strategic	procedural knowledge to guarantee the efficiency of the translation process. It is an essential subcompetence that affects all the others since it controls all the other subcompetences. Its functions are to plan the process and carry out the translation project and to evaluate its effects

In both PACTE (2003) and PACTE (2008), one can find the same graphical representation of the competence model:
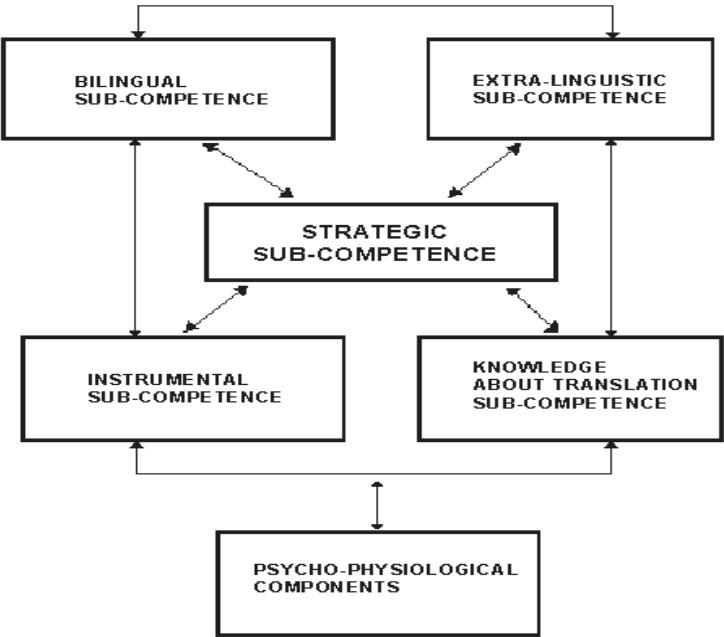
Figure 1. The PACTE model of translation competence (PACTE 2003: 60)

We believe that the model presented above requires no further explanation, yet there are questions we would like to raise about it. The first relates to what PACTE (2003) name the psycho-psychological components, the second to how the model caters for translation as a profession, while the third touches upon the epistemological stance on which PACTE research rests.

Figure 1 above reveals the presence of one more element of the model, which is called *psycho-physiological*, and which is defined in the following way in PACTE (1998) and quoted in PACTE (2003).

> Finally, the psycho-physiological sub-competence would appear to warrant a status somewhat different from that of other sub-competencies since it forms an integral part of all expert knowledge. Rather than 'subcompetence' it would perhaps be more appropriate to speak of psycho-physiological 'components'. (PACTE 2003: 57)

PACTE (2008) brings a slightly changed definition of the component(s) in question. Although it is more detailed, it seems to be based on the same underlying assumptions.

> As well as these subcompetences TC comprises psycho-physiological components that may be defined as different types of cognitive and attitudinal components and psycho-motor mechanisms. They include cognitive components such as memory, perception, attention and emotion; attitudinal aspects such as intellectual curiosity, perseverance, rigour, critical spirit, knowledge and confidence in one's own abilities, the ability to measure one's own abilities, motivation, etc.; and abilities such as creativity, logical reasoning, analysis and synthesis, etc. (PACTE 2008: 107)

The two definitions quoted above show that the PACTE researchers want to see the psycho-physiological components as qualitatively distinct from the other sub-competences. The reason behind the distinction is that the components are manifesting themselves across the other competences, so that the bilingual competence, instrumental competence or strategic competence cannot be effectuated without appropriate personal resources in the psycho-physiological components. We agree that this way of approaching personal resources makes the PACTE model holistic. Under this reading the psycho-physiological components function as a kind of general environment providing for the growth of the particular translation/interpreting related skills.

However, despite their effort to define the "psycho-physiological" components, one can have an impression that the PACTE researchers tend to marginalize or ignore rather than research the role of personal resources in becoming a translator. When looking at the graphic presentation in Figure 1 above, we ask ourselves if the reason for putting the psycho-physiological components somewhere outside the main scope of the translation competence system is not to communicate they are marginal for PACTE's interests. One could even risk a more radical claim that this graphic structure can be read in terms of the well-known divide introduced by N. Chomsky (1965), between *competence*

and *performance*. Under this reading, the PACTE's model is no longer holistic. This potential reduction of the scope of their research domain moves us to the problem of the epistemological stance that we infer from the research by PACTE. This problem, however, is addressed in detail in the next section, and further in Chapter 2 of this monograph.

The second question we would like to raise here concerns PACTE's views on the professional knowledge of the translator. Table 2 above shows that for the PACTE researchers this is a predominantly declarative knowledge: knowledge of the industry, the market, and the workshop. This comes as a surprise to us, especially in view of the numerous appeals in the literature of the field to *situate* translator education, which means developing skills of professional performance. In our view, PACTE's stance on that matter cannot be accepted as detrimental to effective translator education, aiming to prepare students for the challenges of a translation career.

Summing up, the PACTE research on translation competence is undeniably one of the most praiseworthy and promising direction in today's translation education. The representatives of the PACTE group have undertaken an unprecedented team effort to define one of the key concepts in theory and practice of translator education. The greatest advantage that of the PACTE research is its empirical orientation used to test theoretical constructs, thanks to which our knowledge about translator/interpreter behaviour can be considerably richer.

2. The controversy of the multicomponential model of translation competence

Although the multicomponential conception of translation competence seems prevalent in the literature of the subject, its epistemological and methodological status is not uncontroversial. Referring to C. Waddington (2000), A. Pym (2003: 487) points out three methodological weaknesses of the multicomponential approach(es). Firstly, there is no clear methodological principle that could prevent endless adding new competences to the list or deleting them. In this way, it becomes virtually impossible to understand the nature of translation competence as such. Secondly, the multicomponential conception of translation competence is that of idealized competence – a concept that seems more than similar

to N. Chomsky's concept of an *ideal speaker-listener*. The idealized status of the competence is intended to legitimize the concept as scientific, even though it is more of an a priori research objective than attested observable reality. This legitimization gives the curriculum designers and teachers the title to act as unquestionable authorities who dispense knowledge and judge its acquisition. This is why, as C. Waddington and A. Pym observe, the idealized competence models tend to rely on teachers' and curriculum designers' *a priori* beliefs about what is needed for students to become translators, rather than on how educational programmes are to be anchored in research. In fact, the lack of empirical evidence to prove any of the multicomponential models in question is the third critical argument posed by C. Waddington (2000), as quoted in A. Pym (2003: 487).

A. Pym (2003) agrees with the first two of C. Waddington's (2000) critical arguments, while disproving the claim about the lack of empirical research behind the model. Finally, he adds another critical point of his own:

> Innocently descriptive as they seem, the multicomponent models of competence are heavy with assumptions not just about what translation is and how it should be taught, but more especially about the level at which specific teaching is needed, and for how many years. They inevitably feed into complex professional profiles ("a good translator needs A, B and C…"); they thus underscore not just a transcendental ideal translator who has no place in the fragmented market, but also the long-duration interdisciplinary training programs that purport to produce such things (mostly university degree programs lasting four or five years). In most cases, the complex models of competence coincide more or less with the things taught in the institutions where the theorists work. What a surprise! (Pym 2003: 487)

A. Pym's (2003) criticism suggests that what is meant to be a scientifically descriptive term tends to rely on covert prescriptive assumptions. This point made by A. Pym can be understood as his disbelief in the direct positive relationship between scientific investigations of the nature of translation competence and a straightforward extrapolation of such research results onto translation curricula. Consequently, one can claim that despite its unquestionable merits, the multicomponential conception of translation competence exposes the fact that decision-making in a translation curriculum tends to be monopolized by researchers,

curriculum designers and teachers. No voice can be heard here of the representatives of the "fragmented market" (see quotation above), who are not asked about their real needs or expectations, nor of the students, whose engagement in competence acquisition is considered so obvious that it is completely ignored as an educational issue. Teachers are expected to play the role of instructional procedure executors, deliverers of *episteme*. No voices are necessary under the supremacy of an idealized competence model – an ultimate, undisputable statement of science about what it means to be competent as a translator/interpreter.

A potential solution to the problem pinpointed by A. Pym is to open the curriculum to *multiple voices* (*cf.* González Davies 2004).[13] Even though such an opening does not solve the problem of how to define translation competence in scientific terms (*cf.* Waddington 2000 and Pym 2003 as discussed above), it can help manage curricular choices for the benefit of all the stakeholders of the educational process: students, teachers, curriculum designers, translators' employers and clients, *etc.* The parameter for the inclusion or exclusion of educational components does not have to be worked out as idealized, or decided upon once and for all. Such choices can be based on the negotiation of the real axiologies and needs of all the stakeholders, not only researchers, curriculum designers, or teachers.

Coming back to the second critical observation made by C. Waddington (2000: 153), and supported by A. Pym (2003: 487), concerning the *idealized* nature of translation competence assumed in the multicomponential model, we subscribe to the critical stance taken by the two critics. Yet, we are not convinced that this idealistic epistemological and methodological approach to translation competence is a direct corollary of the multicomponential formulation of the concept. We rather tend to interpret the *idealized-competence* approach to translation education as a problem of its own, not necessarily related with multicomponentiality. In our view, the idealizing approach is a manifestation of ideologies and narratives that dominate in educational institutions. These narratives tend to perceive knowledge as a set of facts *stored* in educational

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13 Throughout this monograph we are making repetitive use of this concept by M. González Davies (2004). At some points of the text, however, we abstain from repeating the bibliographic reference, which is exclusively for the sake of brevity. In each case where the concept is evoked, it refers to her work, which is signalled by our use of italics.

institutions and their resources. In these narratives, students are seen as *containers* to be filled up with knowledge by teachers. Consequently, learning *true* and *important* content can only take place in educational institutions, while education is a set of procedures to make students accept the *objective* facts about the world.

This critical view of education seems to find support from researchers of workplace education, like M. Eraut and S. Billett. They highlight the gap between the academic concepts of professional education and the real needs of employers and young professionals. Their work is discussed in detail in Chapter 4 of this monograph. A similar gap is also empirically diagnosed in a report on youth unemployment and their transition from education to work, composed by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014), which we discuss in Chapter 5.

There is hardly anything in the multicomponential model of translation competence *per se* that could prevent curriculum designers and teachers from having *real students* in mind rather than *ideal speakers-listeners* or translators/interpreters who are *ideally competent*. Defining and negotiating the values and needs of the actual stakeholders of a particular T&I curriculum is perhaps the simplest – at least conceptually – way to avoid T&I education where "the competencies have been defined and calculated in a pre-established blueprint, as if humanistic teaching could operate like a Stalinist five-year plan" (Pym 2009a: 8).[14]

3. Revising the notion of translation competence in translator education

This section concerns A. Pym's (2003) solution to the problem of the methodologically – and in our view also epistemologically – the shaky status of the notion of translation competence. To manage the deficiencies diagnosed by C. Waddington (2000) and the one he pinpointed himself, A. Pym comes up with a new formulation of the concept of translation competence. He names his definition minimalist:

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14 A good example of how translation competence can be formulated in non-objectivist terms can be found in F. Grucza's publications on the issue. See *e.g.* F. Grucza (1985: 34) for his conceptualization of the "translatorial traits of a person performing as a translator" (original formulation: "właściwości translatoryczne osób pełniących funkcję tłumaczy"). Various aspects of F. Grucza's conception of translation competence are also discussed in *e.g.* F. Grucza (1989, 1992, 1993 or 2009).

> As an interpersonal activity working on texts (of whatever length or fragmentary status), the training of translators involves the creation of the following two-fold functional competence (*cf.* Pym 1991):
> - The ability to generate a series of more than one viable target text (TTI, TT2 … TTn) for a pertinent source text (ST);
> - The ability to select only one viable TT from this series, quickly and with justified confidence.
>
> We propose that, together, these two skills form a specifically translational competence; their union concerns translation and nothing but translation. There can be no doubt that translators need to know a fair amount of grammar, rhetoric, terminology, computer skills, Internet savvy, world knowledge, teamwork cooperation, strategies for getting paid correctly, and the rest, but the specifically translational part of their practice is strictly neither linguistic nor solely commercial. It is a process of generation and selection, a problem-solving process that often occurs with apparent automatism. (Pym 2003: 489)

The definition above is minimalist in that it covers "translation and nothing but translation," (see quotation above), and we admit that it is attractively succinct. It also meets the requirements of a classical scientific definition, since it retains a clear-cut division between the *definiens* and the *definiendum*. Hence, A. Pym's (2003) efforts successfully provide T&I education research with a definition of its key concept.

Two more advantages of the definition quoted above come into mind. Firstly, the concept of translation and T&I education is conceived of by A. Pym (2003) as text-based and task-based, which is not necessarily so obvious in the other definitions found in the literature of the subject. Secondly, A. Pym (2003) addresses translation and T&I education as "interpersonal activity working on texts" (see quotation above). Thus, even though indirectly, it is inferable from A. Pym's (2003) definition of translation competence that its educational formation needs to rest on teacher–learner interaction in the context of the text-based translation task they pursue together. This dynamic, task-based and relational outlook on T&I education lies in the core of our interest in this monograph.

Although the definition of translation competence provided by A. Pym (2003) solves the problem he himself posed in his paper, it cannot prevent the multicomponential narrative about translation competence in T&I education. When reading A. Pym's (2003) minimalist formulation – under which being competent in translating/interpreting means having the ability to generate a series of viable texts, and then to

negotiate a decision concerning the final textual choice – we are, as if instantaneously, redirected to the question: what does it mean to have this two-prone ability? It is more than obvious that translation competence as formulated by A. Pym means knowing and being able to do more than one thing. As a matter of fact, the quotation from A. Pym (2003) presented above reveals his acknowledgement of the fact that his definition does not truly do away with multicomponentiality, when the notion of translation competence is approached from the perspective of its educational application. Hence, it seems that multicomponentiality used as a method of organizing translator education is inescapable. *Minimizing the definition of translation competence does not eradicate the need to select T&I curricular components.*[15]

Thus, despite A. Pym's (2003) best efforts, the notion of translation competence – its definition, function, acquisition and assessment – still awaits further debate and empirical research. So far, it is rather impossible to conclude that T&I educational research has worked out an exhaustive definition of translation competence applicable in theory and practice.

A question that seems valid in the light of the above conclusion is if the notion of translation competence is definable at all, or if it is as central to T&I educational research and practice as it was assumed at the turn of the millennium. For example, W. Wilss (1976: 119) finds it virtually impossible to define "translatorial competence as a uniform qualification for translational work" – a stance which A. Pym (2003: 484) describes with the use of the phrase: "no such thing as translation competence." W. Wilss does not question translation competence as a kind of human

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15   A. Marchwiński's (1992) formulation of translation competence is in a way similar to A. Pym's (2003) conceptualization, which was originally formulated in A. Pym (1991). A. Marchwiński's definition also rests on two propositions: (1) that translation competence has its technical, workshop-related aspect as a skill of organizing the translator's work – also in the cognitive sense, (2) and that a competent translator is able to "assign a target text to the content of the source text" (Marchwiński 1992: 247, translation mine – K. K.). We find it tenable to consider A. Marchwiński's formulation minimalist in a way parallel to A. Pym's (2003) proposal. Since the discussion in this chapter mostly focuses on the developments in the field of T&I education after 2000, we confine ourselves to this marginal mention of A. Marchwiński's (1992) interesting conceptualization. For a discussion of A. Marchwiński's (1992) proposals, see K. Klimkowski (2008b). A. Pym's (2003) definition of translation competence also corresponds well with M. Piotrowska's notion of strategic translation and its didactic implications (*cf. e.g.* Piotrowska 2002, 2007).

knowledge and skills, yet he refutes a possibility to handle it by means of a self-consistent, exhaustive conceptual formulation.

Another option that presents itself here is trying to conceptualize the T&I educational reality without the reference to the notion of translation competence. This kind of approach seems implemented by the researchers of the psycholinguistic nature of the T&I process – already referred to at the beginning of this chapter. They sometimes speak of competences (*e.g.* Lörscher 1992), while on other occasions – especially in later texts – they seem to do without that concept whatsoever (*e.g.* Lörscher 2005).[16] In this latter text, W. Lörscher adopts a stance on translation/interpreting that emphasizes the centrality of *translation performance, strategies and process*.

> The considerations which will be made in this paper can be located within this area of research (= process research – K. K.). They are based on a research project in which psycholinguistic aspects of the translation *process* are investigated by analyzing translation *performance*. This is done in order to reconstruct translation *strategies*. These underlie translation *performance*, operate in the translation *process* and thus are not accessible to direct inspection. (Lörscher 2005: 598)

As may be inferred from the quotation above, the main objective of T&I education is to help students cognitively organize their *translation process* – help them develop problem-solving *strategies* in order to effectively *perform* as translators/interpreters.

At first sight, this programme may also be criticised for its reliance on a notion of the idealized model of the translation process and translation strategies that can be taught as universal generalizations by mapping the behaviours of expert translators by novices. However, it is interesting to note that, according to W. Lörscher (2005), neither the strategies, nor the process is "accessible to direct inspection" (see the definition above). This statement can be read as a departure of the representatives of the process research from the idealizing approach to T&I education. As S. Tirkkonen-Condit (2005: 405) puts it "[t]he days are gone when we believed that there are certain behavioural patterns that are necessary to achieve success in translation." As a way of explanation, S. Tirkkonen-Condit observes:

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16 See also W. Lörscher (1991: 2) for his argumentation in favour of translation strategies and against translation competence.

> Research on human translation processes to date reveals that there are many routes to successful performance and that consciousness raising helps to identify undesirable tendencies and routines. Research on translation processes also shows that expertise calls for monitoring skills and self-awareness. (Tirkkonen-Condit 2005: 405)

Without renouncing the need for empirical research of the translation process, researchers like S. Tirkkonen-Condit admit that the objective of T&I education is not to work out a list of instructional procedures to be implemented in the classroom to evoke the desired, idealized, behavioural mechanisms in the trainees.

Also for B. Moser-Mercer (2008) interpreting skills acquisition is far more complex than what early process researchers have been able to admit:

> Performance is central to interpreting, both at the professional level and in the classroom. [...] Past research on the cognitive dimensions of interpreting has led to modelling the interpreting process of the hypothetical expert interpreter with solid professional experience. However, skill acquisition in interpreting and the various stages learners pass through towards more expert performance cannot readily be explained with the models developed for expert interpreters. (Moser-Mercer 2008: 1)

The effective performance of a student and, in consequence, a translator/interpreter is paramount for T&I education, whatever the educational approach. Nevertheless, B. Moser-Mercer (2008) departs from the methodology of building education on "mapping" the performance of an ideal/hypothetical expert interpreter. Instead, she offers a holistic educational perspective built on the premises of performance psychology, in which "the cognition of the individual" (Moser-Mercer 2008: 2) – rather than the generalized behavioural pattern applied through instruction – becomes a principle that underlies educational activities. Hence, instead of measuring the degree to which students' competence corresponds to the ideal one, B. Moser-Mercer (2008) seems more interested in the relationship between abilities and aptitudes and the way in which learning can be structured for best individual results.

We find B. Moser-Mercer's (2008) proposal fundamental for two reasons. Firstly, it solves the problem of how to select educational components, by focusing on developing skills by individuals, not on finding *objectively* valid, relevant educational content to be delivered. Even more importantly, B. Moser-Mercer's (2008) approach heralds

a shift in the conception of educational *locus of control* (Rotter 1966): skills or competences are *intrinsic* attributes of the learner – even though the learner depends much on *extrinsic* stimulation for effective learning. Skills or competences are no longer defined in terms of *extrinsic*, generalized sets of features of an *ideal* translator/interpreter.

The last viewpoint on the notion of competence which we would like to present here is the one developed by M. Eraut, a researcher of workplace education. M. Eraut does not address the nature of translation competence *per se*, focusing on a more general notion of competence or competences as used in the theory of learning and work psychology. Yet, in a fashion parallel to B. Moser-Mercer (2008), who used some basic concepts of performance psychology in her educational model, we are ready to assume that M. Eraut's views can be applied to translation competence, subcompetences or skills.

M. Eraut has explored a number of professions seeking to determine the regularities, conditions and challenges of how people learn when they perform as professionals. He has also been trying to translate these findings onto how they can enhance professional education programmes.

> My research into early career professional learning in the business, engineering and healthcare sectors forced us to consider precisely what was being learned; and this led us to describe a wide range of types of knowledge with a language that covered all three of these diverse occupational sectors. Others might have labelled the entries in our typology […] as competences; but we felt this was wrong, because competences are typically defined in binary terms and often become dated. Moreover, most of us were primarily concerned both with continuing progression and with having to adapt or replace practices as improvements became available. So we chose to call each type of knowledge a *learning trajectory* and to adopt a *lifelong learning perspective*. Not only does the concept of learning trajectories fit our data much more closely than a set of competences, but it also takes into account discontinuities of learning so that at any one time:
> * *Explicit progress* is being made on several of the trajectories that constitute lifelong learning
> * *Implicit progress* can be inferred and later acknowledged on some other trajectories
> * Progress on other trajectories is *stalling* or even *regressing* through lack of use. (Eraut 2009: 4)

M. Eraut's (2009) reasons for revising the concept of competence are worth discussing in detail. Firstly, in his view, the way in which the notion of competence is used in research and practice betrays a dichotomic way of thinking about it: one either has a competence of a kind, or not. However, such an approach to how people learn does not match M. Eraut's research observations. This is why he proposes the notion of *learning trajectory*[17] so as to build a more dynamic, multidimensional narrative about learning to perform. It is dynamic, because learning trajectory covers change in time, which the most definitions of competence fail to embrace. This change in time does not have to be linear. Complex skills, like the cognitive or metacognitive skills of translation/interpreting (*cf. e.g.* Moser-Mercer 2008) infrequently develop in sequences of only progressive changes (see bullet 3 in the quotation above). The concept of learning trajectory is also multidimensional in that it assumes at least two dimensions of knowledge and skills within each trajectory. These dimensions are *explicit* and *implicit knowledge* and *skills*, which influence *explicit* and *implicit progress*. The difference between explicit and implicit knowledge is – in a nutshell – that between knowledge understood by M. Eraut as educational content made available through educational programmes and the situational knowledge (understanding) of how to use the explicit knowledge in the context of a particular task (see Eraut 2000: 113–114).

M. Eraut's learning trajectory is not idealized or generalized. Learning trajectory is irrevocably *someone's* trajectory. Developing explicit knowledge and skills needs the presence of a teacher or learning guide and rests on the educational interaction between the protagonists of the learning process (see Eraut 2009: 18–19).

M. Eraut sees learning trajectories as organized into a typology. His typology is built around eight main categories: task performance, awareness and understanding, personal development, teamwork, role performance, academic knowledge and skills, decision making and problem solving, judgement (Eraut 2009: 5).

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17 This notion seems to correspond to the view of the emergent nature of translation competence expressed in D. Kiraly (2013b).

Table 3. Typology of learning trajectories by M. Eraut (2009: 5)

Task Performance	Role Performance
Speed and fluency	Prioritisation
Complexity of tasks and problems	Range of responsibility
Range of skills required	Supporting other people's learning
Communication with a wide range of people	Leadership
Collaborative work	Accountability
	Supervisory role
	Delegation
Awareness and Understanding	Handling ethical issues
Other people: colleagues, customers, managers, etc.	Coping with unexpected problems
Contexts and situations	Crisis management
One's own organization	Keeping up-to-date
Problems and risks	
Priorities and strategic issues	**Academic Knowledge and Skills**
Value issues	Use of evidence and argument
	Accessing formal knowledge
	Research-based practice
Personal Development	Theoretical thinking
Self-evaluation	Knowing what you might need to know
Self-management	Using knowledge resources (human, paper-based, electronic)
Handling emotions	
Building and sustaining relationships	Learning how to use relevant theory
Disposition to attend to other perspectives	(in a range of practical situations)
Disposition to consult and work with others	
Disposition to learn and improve one's practice	**Decision Making and Problem Solving**
Accessing relevant knowledge and expertise	When to seek expert help
Ability to learn from experience	Dealing with complexity
	Group decision making
	Problem analysis
Teamwork	Formulating and evaluating options
Collaborative work	Managing the process within an appropriate timescale
Facilitating social relations	Decision making under pressure
Joint planning and problem solving	
Ability to engage in and promote mutual learning	**Judgement**
	Quality of performance, output and outcomes
	Priorities
	Value issues
	Levels of risk

We believe the skills and types of knowledge listed in M. Eraut's (2009) typology are easily understood, and so do not discuss them in further detail. Our aim in this section is only to provide a general outline of M. Eraut's proposal as an alternative approach to the notion of competence(s) in professional education, including T&I education. Although M. Eraut's (2009) definition of learning trajectory can be named *minimalist* – in A. Pym's (2003) terms – his views of how people follow these trajectories definitely rely on the notion of *multicomponentiality*, evidenced by M. Eraut's (2009) typology.[18]

To sum up our discussion focused around the notion of translation competence, let us observe that our objective here was neither to support, nor to denounce the notion definitively. First of all, we hope that the on-going research can bring new advances in our understanding of the concept. Secondly, our intention was rather to argue that despite its wide – almost unconditional – acceptance as the cornerstone of T&I education, the notion of translation competence has its limitations. One of the most serious is that the notion turns out to be difficult to define exhaustively. A. Pym (2003) tries to solve this problem by providing his minimalist definition of the concept. Yet, in our view, his solution is only partly successful. His formulation is a definition rather than a description, but any attempt at adopting this definition in T&I educational practice brings back the need for a list of skills and educational components to be incorporated in T&I curricula.

The paramount issue that we wanted to signal in this part of Chapter 1 is the difference in the epistemological stance behind the various formulations of translation competence or skills. We juxtaposed objectivist, positivistic[19] conceptions of idealized competence (under our interpretation, *e.g.* the PACTE model qualifies here) against a more relativist, person-centred stance, where competences or learning trajectories are personal attributes of each learner (*e.g.* Moser-Mercer 2008, Eraut 2009). This juxtaposition and its consequences underlie our discussion in Chapter 2 of this monograph, devoted to our own search for epistemological principles that can help create the most advantageous environment for T&I education theory and practice.

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18 Other aspects of M. Eraut's research are discussed in Chapter 5 below.

19 Direct criticism of objectivistic, positivistic tendencies in contemporary education are to be found *e.g.* in D. Schön ([1983] 2002) and K. Howe (2009). Also see the discussion with K. Howe's arguments by E. Bredo (2009).

4. A professional outlook in T&I education

It is interesting to observe that even the earliest formulations of the concept of translation competence took into account the fact that translating/interpreting must be defined in terms of professional performance. This stance is easily inferable from W. Wilss' (1976: 119, also see the quotation above) statement about "uniform qualification for translational work." W. Koller's (1979) and F. Grucza's (1985) formulations also make a clear reference to professional functioning as a translator (*e.g.* Grucza 1985: 34). The professional aspect of T&I education has become even more visible in the publications after 2000. The PACTE (*e.g.* 2003 or 2008) model makes a clear reference to the professional environment of the translator's work – even though they only define it in terms of predominantly declarative knowledge (see section 1 above for details). The EMT (2009) model seems the most advanced in explaining the profession-related skills of a translator. The authors of the model postulate a *translation service provision competence*, and assign it a central role in their model. This centrality is well visible in the graphic representation of translation competence in EMT (2009):
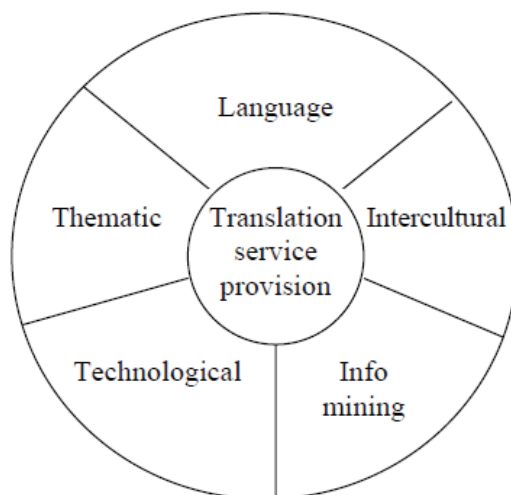
Figure 2. The graphic representation of translation competence in EMT (2009: 4)

Translation service provision is as central for the EMT model as the strategic sub-competence is in the PACTE model. In our view, the difference is that the EMT model addresses the issues of professional performance in a situated (sensitive to real context), non-idealized way. This is perhaps why the authors provide a long list of concrete skills – defined in terms of tasks – which a translation service provider needs to be able to perform effectively.

Table 4. The specification of translation service provision competence in EMT (2009: 4–5)

TRANSLATION SERVICE PROVISION COMPETENCE
INTERPERSONAL dimension • Being aware of the social role of the translator • Knowing how to follow market requirements and job profiles (knowing how to remain aware of developments in demand) • Knowing how to organise approaches to clients/potential clients (marketing) • Knowing how to negotiate with the client (to define deadlines, tariffs/invoicing, working conditions, access to information, contract, rights, responsibilities, translation specifications, tender specifications, etc.) • Knowing how to clarify the requirements, objectives and purposes of the client, recipients of the translation and other stakeholders • Knowing how to plan and manage one's time, stress, work, budget and ongoing training (upgrading various competences) • Knowing how to specify and calculate the services offered and their added value • Knowing how to comply with instructions, deadlines, commitments, interpersonal competences, team organisation • Knowing the standards applicable to the provision of a translation service • Knowing how to comply with professional ethics • Knowing how to work under pressure and with other experts, with a project head (capabilities for making contacts, for cooperation and collaboration), including in a multilingual situation • Knowing how to work in a team, including a virtual team • Knowing how to self-evaluate (questioning one's habits; being open to innovations; being concerned with quality; being ready to adapt to new situations/conditions) and take responsibility PRODUCTION dimension • Knowing how to create and offer a translation appropriate to the client's request, i.e. to the aim/skopos and to the translation situation • Knowing how to define stages and strategies for the translation of a document • Knowing how to define and evaluate translation problems and find appropriate solutions

- Mastering the appropriate metalanguage (to talk about one's work, strategies and decisions)
- Knowing how to proofread and revise a translation (mastering techniques and strategies for proofreading and revision)
- Knowing how to establish and monitor quality standards

Two aspects of the EMT proposal are worthy of a comment. Firstly, that the list of skills and tasks is comprehensive and exhaustive. Although the EMT model is primarily employed for the purposes of the EMT project as such, it is perhaps the most instrumental point of reference for all T&I curriculum designers. Secondly, in the context of the discussion in this chapter and in this monograph in general, we would like to highlight the division introduced by the authors into the *interpersonal* and *production* dimensions within the competence under analysis. This testifies to the fact that the authors of the model are aware of the dynamic, relational nature of effective T&I performance, and of the consequences that this nature has on T&I curriculum design.

The idea of a translator as a contemporary professional is elaborated in a relatively recent work by an outstanding French researcher of translator education,[20] D. Gouadec. In his book *Translation as a Profession* (Gouadec 2007: xiii), he shares with the reader his experience as an educator of "qualified professional translators." The book is a comprehensive presentation of the market-related knowledge and skills that make up a critical resource of each successful professional translator. This includes, first of all, the ability to understand translation as a cognitive and communicative process, but also as a service. The latter perspective requires that the translator understands the translation service as covering the compliance with (or negotiating) his/her client's needs and requirements – not necessarily directly related to the text as a linguistic phenomenon. In other words, D. Gouadec manages to show that translation quality in the professional context is not limited to, though largely dependent on, "translation and nothing but translation" (Pym 2003: 489). A lot of other aspects: from managing contacts with

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20 D. Gouadec (2007) only focuses on translation and translators, not interpreting. This is why when referring to his book, we use the concept of translator education rather than T&I education used otherwise. Yet, it is perhaps evident that the majority of the ideas expressed in his work could find a parallel application in interpreting and interpreter education.

contractors, revisers and other business partners, the role of professional standards, the degree of the translation market industrialization, translator's adaptability to change, up to the ethical and cultural considerations are discussed in detail.

The observations that D. Gouadec (2007) makes on the complexity of the translation profession made him devote a separate chapter of the book to translator education. D. Gouadec speaks in defence of translator education against a view under which training translators does not make sense:

> To many people, the very idea of training translators is nonsensical. All you need to do, they say, is to wait for translators to emerge naturally, like so many mushrooms, from among the linguists, by vocation or by accident.
> But this argument is no longer sustainable: obviously there are just not enough spontaneously generated translators around to meet market demands […]. (Gouadec 2007: 327 – original text formatting retained)

D. Gouadec (2007) criticises a view that effective, professional translation performance depends primarily on a gift. Without rejecting the idea of talent as a factor worth considering when choosing a career (*cf.* Gouadec 2007: xii, "what is needed too, is a gift for writing…"), he rejects its being a decisive factor. Instead, his claim means that translation is something that can be learned and mastered:

> Everyone agrees that there is indeed a need to train translators to meet the existing demand and also to face the rising volumes in the future, but there should also be agreement on the need to train *good* translators and to train them *well*. This is a bigger challenge than many would think since the situation today is too many translation graduates not finding employment and too many employers or companies not finding the right translators (meaning 'suitable' for the jobs or contracts). (Gouadec 2007: 327)

The quotation above shows D. Gouadec's (2007) appeal for translator education that is not held only for the sake of engaging in an intellectual exercise, but one that helps the students master the skills required for effective translation service provision on the market. The complexity of the task, according to D. Gouadec (2007), is partly caused by the very nature of the market: companies ineffectively look for "right" translation providers, which may be owing to the weak structure of a local translation

market; they are unable to seek and find good providers or to keep good translators, *etc.*). Partly, the problems are caused by ineffective training. From the educational perspective, D. Gouadec seems to designate employability of the graduates as a benchmark of an effective translator education curriculum.[21] On the one hand, one can expect a view like this expressed in a work so strongly devoted to translation service provision. On the other, the very idea of employability as an ultimate educational objective is controversial. This controversy is subject to our discussion in Chapter 5. It is true, however, that D. Gouadec is aware of the fact that employability is a complex parameter, and that the network of interdependencies between education, employment and the conditions on the local and the global market is extremely intricate. He suggests that these interdependencies inform the actions undertaken by translator trainers and curriculum designers.[22]

5. Academic education for professional T&I performance: main problem areas

Translation seen as a professional activity has also been discussed in a variety of works on T&I educational methodology, curriculum design or translation classroom organization. We would like to focus on three problem areas that recur frequently in the literature of the subject:

    a) The need to situate/contextualize learning (simulation rather than transmission);

    b) The problem of the discrepancies between the Academia and the market;

    c) The need of overcoming the student/professional behaviour dichotomy.

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21 Also see EMT (2012), where employability is defined as a strategically vital area in development of the EMT programme.

22 Apart from the EMT (2009) project and the comprehensive study by D. Gouadec (2007), there are contributions in the field of T&I education that address – more or less directly – the problems of professional functioning of a translator/interpreter. These are, among others R. Bell (1991), D. Robinson (1997), G. Samuelsson-Brown (1993, 2006) or M. Sofer (2004). R. Mackenzie (2004) is an interesting study of the profession-related competences of a contemporary translator, while potential shifts in this competence profile due to the changes of the translation industry are signalled in A. Pym (2013) and H. Risku (2004, 2007).

5.1. Practice-oriented, situated learning in the T&I classroom

The idea that T&I education cannot rely exclusively on curricula composed by academics occurred in the literature in the field in the 1990s. Researchers were convinced that academic T&I methodology must be anchored in the real-life practices of the profession to create an environment where declarative knowledge can get the most effective procedural profiling. One of the first voices in favour of situating of T&I education can be found in D. Gouadec (1990):

> Nobody can translate with any reasonable chance of success if they do not really know for whom (for which audience) and for what (which purpose the text is to fulfil) they have to realize the mediation. (Gouadec 1990: 334, quoted in Vienne 2000: 95)

J. Vienne (2000) relies on D. Gouadec's idea in support of her own claim that developing translation competence must take into account a broad network of circumstances influencing the effective realization of a particular translation task:

> This kind of approach[23] allows us to take both the ST and the TT out of the void (Vienne 1994: 52) that these texts often appear to inhabit (in the translation class as well as in the reality of translation), and to attempt to contextualise them in situations linked to real-life assignments. It also emphasises the importance, through the notion of translation situation, of the roles of the different 'actors' involved [...]. Finally, it forces us to situate the trainee translators in a wider socio-cultural context, where they will need other skills than text analytic and productive skills [...]. (Vienne 2000: 91)

Situating a translation task means that the translator gives his/her answers to the questions posed by D. Gouadec (1990), as listed above. However, doing so is a complex job:

> It is a fact well known even by professional translators that in real-life assignments, translators of pragmatic texts rarely get any information about the ST situation, not to mention the TT situation [...]. Thus, a professional translator would often have to 'dig up' the information about the situations by asking his requester and will typically have to justify his inquiries. (Vienne 2000: 91)

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23 The phrase "this kind of approach" refers directly to C. Nord's (1991) model of translation.

This is why for J. Vienne (2000), situating skills are a crucial part of translation competence.

> The first basic element of translation competence is [...]: The ability to analyse a variety of translation situations [...], that is to say, to draw conclusions from answers given by the requester and, on that basis, to:
>   a. *define* the appropriate translation product
>   b. *establish* in broad outline a translational strategy appropriate to the translation situation. (Vienne 2000: 92)

T&I education based on the idea of professional simulation offers substantial educational advantages. Firstly, it gives primacy to learning and student performance, rather than to the procedures for the transmission of ready-made, objectively justified knowledge from the teacher to the learner. Secondly, it is independent of the notion of *ideal*, universally valid translation competence. Thirdly, this approach to T&I education presupposes opening to *multiple voices* in the translation classroom (*cf.* González Davies 2004). Most advocates of the situated approach to T&I education recommend students' engagement into real or life-like translation projects as part of their regular curricular activities. Such recommendations can be found *e.g.* in D. Gouadec (2007), D. Kelly (2005), D. Kiraly (2000), K. Klaudy (1996), C. Nord (1996), H. Risku (2002) or J. Vienne (1994, 2000). As early as 1996, K. Klaudy observed:

> We therefore have to admit that, independent of the academic level, it is not justifiable to speak about professional translation when the translation chain begins and ends with the teacher. What we teach may be at a very high level, but because of the presence of the teacher it is still necessarily a pedagogical exercise rather than an activity resembling real-life situations. (Klaudy 1996: 197–198)

K. Klaudy's (1996) observations are fundamental. She points out the responsibility of academic teachers and curriculum designers to look outside the academic framework to effectively define the reality which they want to simulate as part of training. Consequently, situating T&I education calls for the presence and participation of stakeholders from outside the Academia.

An interesting project illustrating what this presence and participation can look like can be found in M. Kenny (2006, 2008). The idea behind the educational project reported by M. Kenny was to use virtual

environments to simulate the working conditions of contemporary translators and other specialists engaged in translation projects. Among others, the projects in question relied on the participation of real specialists in domains like banking or economy, who acted as consultants in project implementation. The methodology described by M. Kenny is one of the most inspiring cases of opening to multiple voices in T&I education. This is also because it gave the voice to the students, who were provided with multiple tasks to perform. They were not only expected to deliver translated texts, but to engage into other activities that authentically made their skill development contextualized and situated. In this way, they could also develop their meta-cognitive skills, like self-monitoring and the understanding of what translation service provision is as a professional activity.

5.2. The Academia–market gap

As illustrated by the examples in the previous section, situated learning in T&I education has been advocated and promoted by specialists since the early 1990s. Yet, the problems of how to effectively prepare students for T&I careers in academic institutions have not been solved. Over a decade after D. Gouadec, K. Klaudy or C. Nord diagnosed a need for situating learning, studies like D. Kelly (2005), D. Gouadec (2007) or J. Kearns (2008) reveal that the discrepancy between what is taught and what is needed for effective T&I professional performance still looms over the I/T education. D. Kelly (2005) points out that academic institutions still often fail to define their educational objectives in relation to professional education.

> It is, however, the case that many training courses, especially those run in certain university systems and academic traditions, do not have explicit definitions of their intentions which can be referred to by both staff and students as a basic reference point. (Kelly 2005: 21–22)

This is a very strong critical point against the academic system of T&I education, or against academic professional education in general. If a university fails to define its educational objectives, it can hardly take into account the needs of the market (however understood), the student, or society. In fact, D. Kelly (2005) observes that the European Commission shared this critical view of academic education in Europe.

This critique led to the projects named European Higher Education Area and the Bologna Process. The main objective of these projects is to make European universities formulate their educational objectives, and to situate the educational process within the framework of the social, cultural and economic values and needs of all the stakeholders of that process (Kelly 2005: 24).

To make matter worse, a recent report by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014), shows that the Academia–market gap prevails. The report in question pertains to the problem of youth unemployment in Europe. Among other factors, it researches the extent to which unemployment is brought about by ineffective professional education, including higher education. The details of the report are discussed in Chapter 5 of this monograph. Let us only observe here that the report exposes a huge disproportion in how professional education programmes were evaluated by educational institutions that offer them, in contrast to students and employers. The research revealed that "74 percent of education providers were confident that their graduates were prepared for work, yet only 38 percent of youth and 35 percent of employers agreed" (Mourshed *et al.* 2014: 9). It is not clear from the report to what extent this overvaluation on behalf of the educational institutions pertains to universities. Neither is it clear to what extent this overvaluation can concern T&I programmes in Europe. The data we analyse in Chapter 5 can be used as evidence that the Academia–market gap is a problem experienced by contemporary T&I education in Poland.

One could infer from our discussion in this section that the Academia–market gap is mostly caused by the inefficiency of academic institutions to provide programmes that could satisfy the needs of employers, or that would equip graduates with adequate instruments of career making. Yet, there are also voices in the debate on the issue that argue this is asimplistic way of approaching the problem at hand.

There are researchers who claim that too much emphasis on the vocational or professional side of T&I education is not a beneficial solution for students, universities, the market or society. Instead, we need to consider a more systemic, holistic view of academic T&I education, where the market is seen as only one element of such a system, and its supremacy over the other elements is untenable. J. Kearns (2008), for example, points out that the list of questions that T&I curriculum designers

need to ask and answer cannot only concentrate around the problem of graduates becoming effective players on the market. The educators need to take a broader look and add other questions to their lists:

> How should we define the needs of the learner? How should these needs be addressed in a programme of education? How can this programme relate simultaneously to the local needs of the learner and to those of other stakeholders, such as the professional translation industry, the Translation Studies community and the broader community of translator trainers? Moreover (and with particular reference to these last two groups of stakeholders) our analysis of the *situation* of translator training must consider these needs in the context of how they can comfortably be reconciled with – and complemented by – the educational centres (in this case, universities) where such training takes place. (Kearns 2008: 185)

According to J. Kearns (2008), T&I education needs to look beyond the linear conception of *university-to-job* transition as its supreme objective. A holistic T&I curriculum must cater for the overall, life-long human growth and functioning – as individuals, members of groups, teams, communities and societies. The curricular focus cannot be reduced exclusively to the realm of professional activities or skills. In J. Kearns' (2008) perspective, teachers and students as well as all the other stakeholders of the educational process must be seen as human beings in interaction, rather than abstract components of algorithmically executed educational procedures. The quote below is perhaps the best illustration of J. Kearns' holistic views of T&I education and curriculum:

> What is required is a holistic approach to curriculum renewal which does not presume the needs at the outset, but which defines them as contextually ('situationally') dependent on manifold variables. At the basis of such a mode of analysis is the necessity for larger philosophical and ideological reflection on the nature of the curriculum. Are we training translators to enter preordained positions? […] Or are we training them *as* members of society? (Kearns 2008: 209–210)

It is perhaps clear to the reader that J. Kearns (2008) does not criticise the professional education of translators or interpreters as such. He is critical of depriving the theory and practice of T&I education of holistic, systemic optics. J. Kearns (2008: 210) appeals for an educational

approach that will seek synergy between all the aspects (axiologies and needs) of academic, professional T&I education.[24]

J. Kearns' (2008) contribution also addresses a need for dynamic negotiation and constant reshaping of T&I curricula, depending on the context in which it is implemented. Changing contexts can take place when voices from outside the Academia are asked to participate in the T&I classroom and in T&I curriculum design. Apart from businesses or companies, such voices can come from other organizations: cultural institutions, NGOs, local authorities, *etc.* This is how all these stakeholders can empower T&I curriculum designers to construct an effective, holistic programme of T&I education.

5.3. Student behaviour vs. professional behaviour

Advocates of situated T&I education argue that this educational strategy helps student build their professional skills. Yet, some researchers have observed that students of translation/interpreting often fail to approach their classroom translation tasks in a way that a professional translator/interpreter is likely to. J. Fraser (1996: 246) points out that the professional translators she interviewed "engaged in translation primarily as a *communication* exercise, the principles they followed were pragmatic task- and reader-oriented...," whereas student-translators tend to "see the texts we [teachers] set as purely academic exercises, each containing a series of discrete linguistic difficulties to be overcome, rather than as integral pieces of authentic language with real-life functions and target audiences" (Fraser 1996: 245). J. Fraser (1996: 247) also points out that students tend to be "paralysed when faced with an unfamiliar word or phrase," which can be interpreted as students' problems in dealing with ambiguity and managing stress. J. Fraser argues that the way in which the students and the professionals define the problem to be solved is completely different. The students tend to think about the translation problems in terms of the classroom context: the beginning and the end of the translation assignment is there in the classroom. The worst that may happen if a student fails to perform well is a bad mark or a lack of signature. Professionals, on the other hand, situate the task in a far broader context, not only in terms of language or communication, but also in

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24 Kearns' (2008) ideas match precisely the programme for curriculum renewal outlined by the workplace education theorist N. Jackson (2010).

terms of relations with their clients and the impact of each translation task on their functioning on the market.[25] In other words, the divergent behaviours are owing to the fact that the students and the professionals situate their performance in distinct ways.[26]

An interesting question worth asking here is to what extent students' inefficiency in making responsible decisions and solve problems is caused by their being novice translators (*cf.* Kaiser-Cooke 1994: 136), or by their being students: young people who choose to play a classroom game of 'getting by,' and who fail to see what they learn as significant to their lives (*cf.* Rogers 1951). In this monograph, we argue that solving the problem of student vs. professional behaviour can be facilitated if T&I education redefines the ways in which students are expected to develop their professional knowledge and performance. Among others, we advocate a view of T&I education that relies on the notion of *significant learning*, developed by C. Rogers (1951) and on *learning as transformation* (*e.g.* Mezirow 1991). Under this view, the aim of education is not to help people accumulate knowledge, but to inspire them to change the way in which they perceive the world around them and to empower them to participate in this world. More details on these conceptions are presented in Chapter 4.

Summing up, whether it is competence-based or process-oriented, and however market-sensitive it chooses to be, effective T&I education needs to adopt a perspective where all the stakeholders of the educational process – their axiologies, needs and objectives – are kept in view. This claim perhaps goes further than the critical appraisals of T&I education issued *e.g.* by D. Gile (1994), K. Klaudy (1996), C. Nord (1996) or A. Pagano (1994), who refuted a "classical," academic model of T&I education. It was, among other things, marred with the central position of the teacher, who was the source and distributor of knowledge, and, in fact, was the source of the unquestionable truth about 'good' or 'bad' translation. In our view, one of the first holistic understandings of the T&I classroom and curriculum came with D. Kiraly's (2000)

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25 Also see S. Tirkkonen-Condit (2005: 406), who makes similar claims.

26 The list of publications on the topic of student–professional performance barrier is extensive. Apart from works by J. Fraser, M. Kaiser-Cooke or S. Tirkkonen-Condit, mentioned above, one can also pintpoint similar studies by G. Hansen (2002), A. Jensen, A. Jakobsen (2000), A. Jakobsen (2002) or K. Jonasson (1998).

seminal work, aiming to advocate a conception of T&I education, where learning is based predominantly on human interaction for collaborative knowledge construction. D. Kiraly (2000) was perhaps the first to offer a fundamentally distinct view from the one where educational content and procedures – administered by the teacher – were believed to be effective educational instruments. For this reason, D. Kiraly (2000) is fundamental to our argument in this monograph. Also his later works, especially D. Kiraly (2008, 2009, 2012, 2013a, 2013b), where he addresses the question of how to understand T&I education in a broader context of preparing graduates for individual and social functioning – not only for work – influenced our way of thinking.

D. Kiraly's (2000) seminal work is crucial for our monograph for at least one more reason: it is one of the books that helped change *translator training* into *translator pedagogy* (*cf.* Colina 2003). This is partly by virtue of refocusing the interest of translator trainers from procedures and content to the student–teacher interaction. At the same time, D. Kiraly was one of the first researchers to build his approach to T&I education on references to epistemological and pedagogical theories, such as *social constructivism* or *transformative learning*. His work is a point of departure for our efforts to find further inspiration for T&I education in the domain of theories of education and adult learning.

Another book worthy of a mention as a pioneering study in translation pedagogy is M. González Davies (2004). We find the book seminal in its efforts to provide teachers and students with incentives to change the T&I classroom from the close-ended, procedure-driven space filled with academic drill-like exercises into a meeting point where people can construct knowledge and skills together. This is why instead of concepts of classroom structure or organization, M. González Davies (2004) tends to speak of *classroom dynamics*. Another concept which we personally owe to M. González Davies' (2004) work is the notion of *multiple voices*. The references we have made so far in this monograph, and even more frequent cases in the latter part of this text testify to the huge influence this idea wields on our own way of thinking about the T&I classroom and curriculum.

We agree with J. Kearns (2008) that T&I education needs a debate on its philosophical and ideological contexts. In our view, it also needs a debate on the epistemological grounds on which various methodological

proposals are made in T&I education, and which often remain implicit and undiscussed in these proposals. We have addressed this problem above, when referring to objectivist epistemologies that underlie some approaches to T&I education. This is why we feel obliged to devote the next chapter of this monograph to investigations that can provide us with epistemological grounds for further debate in this monograph.

In search of epistemological foundations for T&I education

Chapter 1 was intended to introduce a concise selection of the notions and problems which are fundamental for a considerable part of the debate in contemporary T&I education. Equally important is the influence of these notions on T&I education curricula and classroom practice. Our brief presentation above exposed a necessity to discuss the epistemological grounds on which various approaches to T&I education rest, even though these grounds often lay unexplained by the authors of various educational programmes or initiatives. We are strongly convinced that without an attempt to define epistemological grounds on which particular methodological solutions are built, T&I education is doomed to ineffectiveness in both its theoretical and practical dimensions. We realize that the issues discussed in this chapter are only a part of a larger picture, and that our discussion here does not provide all the possible answers to the questions posed. Yet, we hope the content of this chapter can inspire a broader debate on the issues like the one signalled here.

Our discussion in this chapter focuses on defending a relativist stance on learning and T&I education (*cf.* Risku 2002) as a background for understanding how individuals learn in a sociocultural context. The relativist stance we adopt is in explicit opposition to objectivist (mostly positivistic) pretences that are inferable from some conceptions of translation competence, as discussed above. In a way, a belief that the translation market is a fixed and stable reality that is governed by *objective* rules (like *the customer is always right*, *etc.*) can also be seen as representative of this objectivist worldview. We *do* subscribe to the conception that preparing students for their career making

is a fundamental educational objective. Also, we regret to say that the academic institutions we are familiar with still fail to recognize and realize this objective effectively, failing not only students or employers but society as a whole. On the other hand, we do not subscribe to the view that the *market* – whatever is actually meant by this concept – is the only or even the prevalent, true and objective criterion that must shape T&I curriculum design.

A proposal for a person-centred, holistic view of T&I education that strives to understand T&I curriculum as a meeting space for people to negotiate the most educational effective scenarios seems to correspond best to social constructivist epistemology, like the one outlined in D. Kiraly (2000) or M. González Davies (2004). Yet, in this chapter, we want to clarify on what conditions the notion of social construction of knowledge is an acceptable epistemological stance for us. In other words, we are going to ponder upon the question to what sense learning is individual and at the same time it is socially-conditioned.

Reference to the constructivist narrative in education theory and T&I education is not a novelty (*cf.* Kiraly 2000). In fact, most T&I researchers are likely to agree that constructivism – in any of its forms – constitutes a viable option in thinking about T&I curricula and programmes (*e.g.* González Davies 2004, Kelly 2005, Varney 2009, *etc.*). Yet, we are in doubt if the main premises of constructivism, like the one expounded in D. Kiraly (2000), have truly made their way to plans and actions of T&I educators – at least as far as we can experience it. We are in doubt if these premises have been given a just share of reflexion, either.

What is more, in our view, the majority of studies in T&I education addressed only the basic premises of the constructivist thought. The best example is D. Kiraly (2000), who can undeniably be credited for introducing the constructivist ideas – in their L. Vygotskyan social constructivist profile – into the field of T&I education. D. Kiraly's (2000) approach is pivotal for our investigations, but we would like to present his choices against a broader epistemological background. This is why apart from D. Kiraly (2000), we also refer to three other outstanding researchers representing relativist views of knowledge and learning. These are F. Grucza, E. von Glasersfeld and K. Gergen.

1. F. Grucza's *Anthropocentric Theory of Human Languages* and anthropocentric epistemology

Professor Franciszek Grucza, an outstanding contemporary Polish researcher in applied linguistics, formulated a theory, which was initially named "the relativistic approach to human languages" (*e.g.* Grucza 1983).[27] The theory highlights and criticizes the objectivistic pretences of the mainstream linguistic theories of the time: Structuralism and Generativism. Despite F. Grucza's acknowledgement of the indisputable progress that these paradigms brought into linguistic research, he expresses his criticism about the way in which they defined their own research domain (Grucza 1997: 7–8). Both Structuralism and Generativism claim to offer a systemic study of language. However, what Structuralists and Generativists mean by *language* is far from obvious. First of all, F. Grucza observes that Structuralists excluded the mental aspect of linguistic knowledge from the scope of linguistic research and thus reduced their research to "'mechanistic' analysis of linguistic data corpora" (1997: 8).[28] In this way, Structuralists put the equation mark between language and the data corpus. The main objective of Structuralist linguistic research was, hence, to define the analytical procedures of extracting objective models of linguistic structures out of the corpus.

F. Grucza acknowledges N. Chomsky's departure from a purely corpus-based definition of language that he relied on in his early works towards a more mentalist position (*cf. e.g.* Chomsky 1957 or 1965). This is how N. Chomsky defines the scope of his interest in one of his works:

> The generative grammar of a particular language [...] is a theory that is concerned with the form and meaning of expressions of this language [...]. Its standpoint is that of individual psychology. It is concerned with those aspects of form and meaning that are determined by the "language faculty," which is understood to be a particular component of the human mind. (Chomsky 1986: 3)

However, F. Grucza remarks disapprovingly that N. Chomsky failed to "give language back to the mind of the real speaker" (1997: 9), and adopted an abstract notion of *ideal speaker-listener* instead. Thus, on

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27 An historical outline of the development of the theory in question is presented *e.g.* in S. Grucza (2009).

28 All direct quotations from F. Grucza (1997) are my own translations of the Polish text.

the one hand, N. Chomsky placed language back in the human mind. On the other, this was not the mind of an individual speaker, but a mentalist concept of the *idealized* mind and *idealized* grammar: universal, abstract, generalized and algorithmic. Generative grammar could not allow for the individuality of language, since the theory rested on a positivistic modelling of *objective language reality*. Through his well-known divide between *competence* and *performance*, N. Chomsky made it clear that his study of *language* is a study of *competence* only. Thus, while Structuralism put an equation mark between *language* and *data corpus*, Generativism reduced the scope of its linguistic research to *grammar*.

The problem with Generativism does not boil down to the decision to narrow down the scope of research. One could claim that it is a rational decision to make if we want to make the domain of our research as precise as possible. The problem occurs when Generativists start making claims about language, even though what they investigate is grammar. In this way, they suggest that answering the questions concerning the nature of language is attainable by answering the questions concerning grammar.[29]

F. Grucza (1997: 9–10) points out that one of the first researchers to review the Chomskian divide was D. Hymes. D. Hymes (1971) critically acclaimed N. Chomsky's excessive concentration on grammar at the cost of communicative aspects of language, which were put beyond the scope of linguistics. This is why D. Hymes (1971) proposed a notion of *communicative competence*[30] with the view to overcoming the *competence–performance* divide. Communicative competence brought back to the fore the problem of language use, with its communicative teleology and cultural (sociological, axiological, *etc.*) contextualization. Commenting on D. Hymes' (1971) proposals, F. Grucza states that:

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29 N. Chomsky (1986) is a case that can be used to illustrate the point about a *conflation* of the concept of language and grammar in Generative grammar/linguistics. On the one hand, N. Chomsky (1986) defends his research as grammar-oriented. On the other, the title of the book makes a clear reference to origins of language, not grammar.

30 Apart from D. Hymes (1971), discussed by F. Grucza (1997), worth mentioning here is D. Hymes (1974) presenting his review of N. Chomsky's contribution to linguistic studies as well as a later formulation of the notion of communicative competence in D. Hymes (1987). A recent study that discusses extensively D. Hymes' contribution to the study of language, communication and culture is P. Chruszczewski (2011).

> When both Structuralist and classical Generative linguistics a priori
> constrained their analyses to linguistic expressions *sensu stricto*, and
> to the ones that are "ideal models", now it is taken into account that in
> reality it is not only expressions, but also languages of the authors of
> these expressions that are extremely varied/diversified; and that both
> the expressions and the languages always manifest themselves as vari-
> ants. Also, it was noted that in reality, linguistic expressions never hap-
> pen to occur in isolation. They are always accompanied by para- and/or
> extralinguistic elements. (Grucza 1997: 10)

In view of the above, D. Hymes' (1971) concept of communicative com-
petence makes linguistics interested in language again. D. Hymes' (1971)
critical appraisal of the Generative conception of language inspired
a number of other linguists to undertake research in the psychological,
sociological and cultural aspects of language, including such outstanding
figures as Gumperz, Kroeber or Labov. It also hugely influenced the rise
of Cognitive linguistics.

At first sight, the Cognitive theory of language seems to solve
definitely the problem of the Chomskian divide, yet F. Grucza (1997)
is sceptical about the solutions offered by this paradigm. In his view,
Cognitivism only partly reunites language with the mind/brain of
a speaker. F. Grucza (1997) rejects these Cognitivist ideas which treat
language as extant universally, not necessarily as an attribute of a par-
ticular language user.

> What Cognitivists often say reflects the echo of conceptions that treat
> language as something existing primarily in some form that is indepen-
> dent of the human being. This echo is frequently heard in those Cogni-
> tivist works that make mention of "mental representations" of human
> languages, or of their various components.
> However, it is hard to question a fact that human languages do not ex-
> ist beyond individual human beings. So it is inevitably false to assume
> that human languages exist primarily beyond human beings, and that
> they are "represented" in human beings in a secondary order. (Grucza
> 1997: 11 – text formatting of the Polish original retained)

This principally critical stance against some epistemological premises of
the main linguistic schools of the time led F. Grucza to formulate a rela-
tivist, anthropocentric view of language:

> Human languages are simply certain constitutive attributes of particular
> people – their brains, in the first order, and their minds, in the second.
> These particular (idiolectal) variants of human languages are primary.
> Human languages exist factually in the brains of the particular people
> (and only there). (Grucza 1997: 11)

The argumentation presented above laid foundation for F. Grucza's *Anthropocentric Theory of Human Languages*. However fundamental in understanding F. Grucza's views, his anthropocentric approach to language is of relatively lesser interest to us, if juxtaposed against his conception of knowledge. The latter has a direct bearing on his understanding of learning as knowledge construction. F. Grucza's attempt to extrapolate his anthropocentric view of language(s) towards an epistemological theory is also discussed in F. Grucza (1997) and in his later contributions, like F. Grucza (2009). If linguistic knowledge is seen in the anthropocentric perspective, other kinds of knowledge can also be regarded as anthropocentric in nature. F. Grucza's views in this respect are perhaps most explicitly presented in the fragment quoted below:

> Knowledge and languages share their nature: no one can directly transfer
> one's knowledge to anyone else, nor can anyone assimilate anyone else's
> knowledge. Everyone has to create or recreate (reconstruct) his or her
> knowledge on their own. (Grucza 1997: 15)

Following F. Grucza's (1997) line of argument, one can conclude that learning – as knowledge construction – is also governed by the principle of epistemological anthropocentricity: learning does not consist in *assimilation of knowledge from environment*. It is rather that each of us constructs their own systems of knowledge.

In view of the above, F. Grucza's (1997, 2009) epistemological stance can be interpreted as a form of constructivism:

> As for the nature of knowledge, constructivist metatheory assumes that
> knowledge is a human construction, not the neutral discovery of an objective truth. Thus, it departs from the traditional objectivist conception
> of knowledge as an internalized representation of an external and objective reality. (Castelló, Botella 2007: 263)

At first sight, one could state that F. Grucza's (1997) anthropocentric epistemology and the above definition of constructivism by M. Castelló, L. Botella (2007) match precisely. However, the picture is far more

complex, since constructivism is not a coherent epistemological para-
digm or school – a concept unacceptable for a relativist viewpoint on
principle. The intricate interrelations between the varieties of construc-
tivist thought and F. Grucza's anthropocentric epistemology are subject
to our investigations in section 3 of this chapter.

2. The human brain as a key concept in F. Grucza's anthropocentric theory of knowledge

The final remark to be made as part of our presentation of F. Grucza's
anthropocentric epistemological stance concerns his reliance on
the human brain as the fundamental concept underlying his thought.
As quoted above, F. Grucza defines language(s) as "constitutive at-
tributes of particular people – their brains, in the first order, and
their minds, in the second" (1997: 11). In this way he anchors his
anthropocentric conception of language and knowledge in the func-
tioning of the brain, while the rational part of language use and
knowledge construction is seen as a secondary point of reference.
F. Grucza (1997: 18–19) defines the brain as the central information
processing organ, and he suggests that the notion of the mind be used
with reference to cognitive and communicative faculty of the brain,
covering all kinds of knowledge and the rules of practical behaviour.
F. Grucza (1997: 19) draws a distinction between "the *pure* brain, at its
entry status" and the brain's "postsocializing and posteducational"
status, that is the mind.

   This distinction is crucial for a handful of reasons. Firstly, construc-
tivist epistemologies has oftentimes been criticised for their rationalistic
bias, as if learning could only be defined in terms of conscious mental
effort (for more detail on this kind of criticism, see *e.g.* Varney 2009,
also discussed in Chapter 3, section 6). Anchoring his epistemological
theory in the brain, helps F. Grucza avoid the rationalist reduction of his
epistemological proposals.

   Secondly, when learning is defined as a major function of the brain –
and then, consequently of the mind – it is regarded as a neuro-biological
phenomenon. As such, learning becomes determined. In other words,
the fact that we learn – in the sense of the operation of the pure brain

that leads to the development of the mind – is no longer a question of human or social choice.[31]

Another consequence of the deterministic view of learning is that indispensably depends on the *individual* nature of the human brain. In this way, F. Grucza's (1997) reference to the brain helps justify the claim that knowledge construction can only be defined on the epistemological level as anthropocentric. This is because no epistemological theory can viably support a claim that there is any kind of *social* link between human brains – at least until now. Hence, F. Grucza's anthropocentric conception of knowledge and knowledge construction helps us refute all those conceptions of learning and education that rest on the epistemological stance that knowledge is socially constructed or socially determined.

It should be made clear at that point that our reading of F. Grucza's anthropocentric epistemology does not preclude social factors in learning and education (*cf.* Grucza 1997: 18–19). They correspond with F. Grucza's concept of the mind, as discussed above. The point we want to make here is that ultimately, irrespective of the extent to which it is embedded in social and cultural circumstances, learning is individual (but not individualistic), person-centred and brain-centred. Hence, effective education can never be built on premises that infringe upon these basics.

It can be surprising that the neuro-biological deterministic conception of knowledge construction can be used as an effective tool of promoting a humanistic, person-centred (phenomenological) conception of learning and education. Yet, the perspective adopted in this monograph is that education makes sense only if it relies on the power of human self (agency) to learn and transgress towards a better life. Let us emphasise that the vision of learning we have built as our interpretation of F. Grucza's anthropocentric theory of knowledge does not contradict the agency of

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31 The concept of human or social choice relates to the on-going Structure-Agency Debate in sociology and philosophy. The scope of this monograph does not allow either presenting or taking side in the debate. Yet it must be clear to the reader that our stance on the matter seeks complementarity between agency and structure. It seems that A. Giddens (1984) idea of structure that is at the same time constraining and enabling is the closest to our views. We also find attractive his notion of structuration where structure and action meet to create, rather than reproduce facts (*cf.* P. Bourdieu's *cultural reproduction*, *e.g.* Bourdieu, Passeron 1977). A. Giddens (2009: 108) openly rejects the deterministic nature of E. Durkheim's *social facts* (*cf.* Durkheim [1895] 2014).

learning. Conversely, since *that* we learn is beyond our choice, and since learning is so important for our lives, we would better take care of *what* we learn and *what* we do that others could learn.

This last assumption also implies that effective education is primarily not about building effective educational policies and systems, even though these can be helpful. Primarily, education is about facilitating learning. This is why in this monograph we put a strong emphasis on the dynamics of the interaction in the T&I classroom (*cf.* González Davies 2004) as a meeting place for all the protagonists of the educational (learning) process – not only students or teachers. Adopting the anthropocentric profile of our view of T&I education, we contend that effective T&I education needs to focus primarily on T&I classroom interaction.[32] Curriculum design, educational policies or any other measures intended to improve (T&I) education cannot ignore the anthropocentric factor in our understanding of learning and education.

The anthropocentrically profiled view of T&I education we are proposing in this monograph underlies a need for an emancipatory, reflection-based approach to learning, where the choice of what to learn and how cannot be left exclusively in the hands of teachers, curriculum designers, educational experts, ministry officials or other *social agents of power*. In this way, our anthropocentric constructivist stance paves the way towards an authentic realization of the principles of lifelong learning, which can either become a source of endless *social oppression* (*cf.* Gergen 2009 or Brookfield 2007), or it can be seen as a chance for the learners' transgression towards their decision to participate in learning with others and for others throughout lifetime.

3. F. Grucza's anthropocentric epistemology as a variety of constructivism

Constructivism seems to have won a lot of recognition in the world of education theory and practice. It has also become a recognizable educational trend in T&I education. In fact, a form of constructivism

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32 The notion of classroom interaction is not intended to exclude the teacher–learner interaction in blended or distance learning. See *e.g.* T. Duffy, J. Kirkley (2004), R. Garrison (2000) or R. Garrison *et al.* (2001) for more detail on the problems of managing interaction in distance education.

serves as a basis for one of the models of T&I education that is of fundamental import to us – D. Kiraly's (2000) model of empowered T&I education. This is why in this section we seek correspondence between F. Grucza's anthropocentrism and two variants of constructivism, and then between anthropocentrism and D. Kiraly's references to constructivist thought.

M. Castelló, L. Botella (2007) point out that all versions of constructivism[33] share two underlying criteria. They necessarily reject *epistemological objectivism* (*i.e.* they adopt *epistemological relativism*) and they advocate the *nonjustificationist* position. We assume that the notion of epistemological relativism is already clear to the reader in view of our previous discussion of F. Grucza's anthropocentric claims. The nonjustificationist position can perhaps be best illustrated by a direct quote from M. Castelló, L. Botella (2007).[34]

> Constructivism cannot rely on the original/copy correspondence metaphor, since it departs from a representational conception of knowledge. Justification by means of the authority of truth is then regarded as an illusion. This nonjustificationist position leaves constructivist metatheory facing the task of articulating an alternative set of epistemic values, taking into account that values are, by definition, subjective preferences. (Castelló, Botella 2007: 263)

F. Grucza's anthropocentric epistemology seems to match the description by M. Castelló, L. Botella. This is because he rejects the notion of "mental representation of language" (*cf.* Grucza 1997: 11, as quoted above), as a personal, derived *copy* of some primary, original (social or ethnic) language. In reference to F. Grucza's approach to language, nonjustificationism manifests itself by his rejection of an abstract model of the idealized language. Consequently, learning is not about creating a mental copy or a model of objectively true knowledge.

Although all variants of epistemological constructivism share the above-mentioned underlying premises, they differ considerably in

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33 A debate on contemporary application of constructivism as epistemological stance and as a basis for educational theory and practice is to be found in a relatively recent collection of texts edited by S. Tobias, T. Duffy (2009).

34 A formulation of the nonjustificationist claim can also be found in K. Gergen (1985). K. Gergen accuses modern empirical sciences of avoiding answers to crucial epistemological questions (Gergen 1985: 266–267).

other respects. M. Castelló, L. Botella (2007) distinguishes between six variants of constructivism, of which we choose only two, as they best serve our objective to compare and contrast F. Grucza's (1997) anthropocentric epistemology with constructivist thought.

The first variant mentioned by M. Castelló, L. Botella (2007) is called *radical constructivism*. According to these authors, this stance:

> […] rejects the possibility of objective knowledge, since all the knowledge depends upon the structure of the knower. Thus, subject and object are constructions (or operations) of the observer, and not independently existing entities. Even if there is an ontological reality, we can only know it by assessing how well our knowledge fits with it. Thus, radical constructivism views knowledge as a construction—versus an internalized representation of an externally independent reality. (Castelló, Botella 2007: 264)

The quote above is helpful in illustrating how radical constructivism goes to the extreme of emphasising the individual mind's construction of the world – rather than the representation of it. In a relatively recent text, E. von Glasersfeld – perhaps the most prominent proponent of radical constructivism – explains:

> If the view is adopted that "knowledge" is the conceptual means to make sense of experience, rather than a "representation" of something that is supposed to lie beyond it, this shift of perspective brings with it an important corollary: the concepts and relations in terms of which we perceive and conceive the experiential world we live in are necessarily generated by ourselves. In this sense it is we who are responsible for the world we are experiencing. (von Glasersfeld 2007a, Internet source, no page numbering)

In this respect, radical constructivism seems conceptually close to F. Grucza's (1997) anthropocentrism. They both insist on the anthropocentric nature of knowledge construction and they both reject epistemological representationism.

Epistemological relativism is often criticised for its apparently unclear ontological, often also moral orientation. In other words, relativism is often interpreted in terms of solipsism, indifferentism, anti-realism or nihilism. This kind of criticism is mentioned by K. Gergen (2007).

> Perhaps the chief form of attack has centred on what traditionalists portray as the "dangerous slide into relativism," our slide into a realm where

> "anything goes" and no claims to reason, fact, or moral principle are
> commanding—indeed, where any such claims are deemed suppressive,
> ridiculous, or both. For the religious, the danger perceived is often that
> of *moral* relativism, while for scientists it is most frequently the *ontologi-*
> *cal* variety. […] To replace "our God" with "god as we understand god
> in our culture," or "is true" with "is true in the context of what we are
> doing here," or "is moral" with "conforms to our deeply felt protocols of
> morality," is understood as threatening. The basis for worship (in the first
> case), scientific experiment (in the second), or institutions of justice (in
> the third) is understood as threatened. (Gergen 2007: 364)

In a parallel fashion, F. Grucza's (1997) conception of knowledge could
be criticised as solipsistic and unrelated to the world in which people live
and learn. K. Gergen (2007) attempts to show that the accusations like
the ones quoted above are ungrounded.

> Foundationalists and relativists all argue from some circumscribed ar-
> ray of premises, cling to certain visions of the good, are committed to
> relationships within particular traditions. […] Still, all parties concerned
> agree that moral pluralism is our global condition; that we lack a mutu-
> ally sustaining understanding of the real, the rational, and the good […].
> My suggestion is that we consider ways of framing our condition […] that
> could allow for mutually acceptable action. (Gergen 2007: 364–365)

From the quotation above, one can read that K. Gergen does not ques-
tion the existence of the world, nor does he strive to undermine the need
for people to take responsible actions in the world and about the world.
Also E. von Glasersfeld (2007a) leaves no doubt that there is something
rather than nothing around us:

> Throughout the two thousand five hundred years of Western epistemol-
> ogy, the accepted view has been a realist view. According to it, the hu-
> man knower can attain some knowledge of a really existing world and
> can use this knowledge to modify it. People tended to think of the world
> as governed by a God who would not let it go under. Then faith shifted
> from God to science and the world that science was mapping was called
> "Nature" and believed to be ultimately understandable and controllable.
> Yet, it was also believed to be so immense that mankind could do no
> significant harm to it. Today, one does not have to look far to see that
> this attitude has endangered the world we are actually experiencing.
> […] In this sense it is we who are responsible for the world we are expe-
> riencing. As I have reiterated many times, radical constructivism does

> not suggest that we can construct anything we like, but it does claim
> that within the constraints that limit our construction there is room
> for an infinity of alternatives. It therefore does not seem untimely to
> suggest a theory of knowing that draws attention to the knower's re-
> sponsibility for what the knower constructs. (von Glasersfeld 2007a,
> Internet source, no page numbering)

Von Glasersfeld's notion of participating in the world through knowledge
construction provides enough evidence to prove that he rejects a view-
point under which epistemological relativism necessarily leads to onto-
logical anti-realism or moral indifferentism. In fact, it is worth noticing
that E. von Glasersfeld imposes an ethical obligation on people: every
constructor of knowledge is responsible for what they construct. Simi-
larly, commenting on E. von Glasersfeld's work, M. Larochelle (2007)[35]
makes the following observation:

> Ultimately, whenever we claim to describe the world-in-itself
> (or the 'ontologically preexisting world'), we in fact are describing
> the product of the mapping process that has enabled us to make our
> way in this world and to actualize our projects within it [...] In short,
> we are describing what can be done in the world and not, to paraphrase
> Geertz (1988), seeing the world as it really is when only God is looking!
> (Larochelle 2007: xiii)

Also for T. Duffy, D. Jonassen it is undisputable that "[c]onstructivism,
like objectivism, holds that there is a real world that we experience"
(Duffy, Jonassen 1992: 3).

For F. Grucza (1997), the link between anthropocentrically con-
structed knowledge and the existing world is obvious too. Having
presented his thesis about the impossibility for one person to transmit
knowledge to others, as quoted and discussed in section 1 above in this
chapter, F. Grucza proceeds to observe that:

> [w]ithout realizing these facts, one cannot understand, and hence ex-
> plain, the difference between operations that are purely linguistic, that
> is lectal, in nature and those which are communicative; how extremely
> complex is what people refer to as "interpersonal communication"; why

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35 This text by M. Larochelle is part of E. von Glasersfeld's collection of his key works
    in radical constructivism. Apart from these two authors, the volume also includes
    a selection of comments by other researchers. In the references to this monograph,
    this volume is listed as E. von Glasersfeld (2007b).

so often people fail to "communicate", even when they do their best to do so. Obviously enough, this lack of understanding and explanation renders it impossible to improve human communicative efforts, to enhance the effectiveness of their actions undertaken for the sake of mutual understanding and/or communication. (Grucza 1997: 15)

That F. Grucza's epistemological proposals are in no way meant to be solipsistic or individualistic (isolationistic, *cf.* Gergen 2009) is perhaps best proved by his numerous contributions focusing on the nature of language, communicative processes, interpersonal and social communication, as well as cultural factors influencing language learning and use.[36]

On the basis of our analyses so far, we are ready to conclude that F. Grucza's anthropocentrism and radical constructivism, at least in the form advocated by K. Gergen (2007) or E. von Glasersfeld (2007a), have a lot in common. They all share an anthropocentric view of knowledge and knowledge construction. They also consequently reject an objectivist, representationist and justificationist view of knowledge. It is interesting to ask, however, if anthropocentric constructivism can be agreed with the postulate made by a lot of researchers in sociology, psychology of learning or theories of education for the fact that individual knowledge is constructed in the social context, and that collaborative learning often facilitates individual learning.

4. Social construction of knowledge in comparison with anthropocentrism

Radical constructivism has often been accused of regarding human knowledge construction as taking place in a vacuum – isolation from the world around the learner. Take Piaget, for example, who was criticised for too individualistic a view of education, ignoring the social and the cultural aspects of learning (*cf.* Jordan *et al.* 2008: 57). This is why some constructivists wanted to consider individual knowledge construction as dependent on the social context in which it takes place. As commented upon by M. Castelló, L. Botella (2007), K. Gergen (1985) postulates the notion of *social constructionism*, which:

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36 See *e.g.* F. Grucza (1989, 1992, 1993).

> places knowledge neither within individual minds nor outside them, but
> between people. In other words, according to social constructionism,
> knowledge is generated by people interacting and collectively negotiat-
> ing a set of shared meanings. By rejecting the objectivist conception of
> knowledge as an internal representation, social constructionism shares
> the view of knowledge as a construction—a social construction in this
> case. (Castelló, Botella 2007: 264)

K. Gergen's model is classified by M. Castelló, L. Botella (2007) within
constructivism, since the former theoretician respects the principle of
knowledge being constructed, not discovered (relativism) and that he
consequently rejects the possibility to justify knowledge construction
through relating it directly to objective reality (nonjustification). K. Ger-
gen's (1985) refers to an objectivist viewpoint on knowledge construction
as *exogenic perspective*. Yet, K. Gergen (1985) also expresses his criticism
of an epistemological stance which he names *endogenic perspective*, and
which he defines as antinomic to the exogenic one.

> On the one hand, thinkers such as Locke, Hume, the Mills, and various
> logical empiricists in the present century have traced the source of knowl-
> edge (as mental representation) to events in the real world. Knowledge
> copies (or should ideally copy) the contours of the world. This *exogenic
> perspective* (Gergen, 1982) thus tends to view knowledge as a pawn to
> nature. Proper knowledge maps or mirrors the actualities of the real
> world. In contrast, philosophers such as Spinoza, Kant, Nietzsche, and
> various phenomenologists have tended to adopt an *endogenic perspective*
> regarding the origins of knowledge. In this case, knowledge depends
> on processes (sometimes viewed as innate) endemic to the organism.
> Humans harbour inherent tendencies, it is said, to think, categorize, or
> process information, and it is these tendencies (rather than the features
> of the world itself) that are of paramount importance in fashioning
> knowledge. (Gergen 1985: 269)

At first sight, one could claim that K. Gergen's concept of endo-
genic epistemology corresponds directly to radical, anthropocentric
constructivism as presented above. Under this view, K. Gergen (1985)
rejects the latter stance, since it covertly relies on the exogenic way of
understanding knowledge. In consequence, endogenic epistemology
isolates the learning subject and his/her knowledge from the world.
However, a closer look at the reasons behind K. Gergen's (1985) criticism
of the exogenic and the endogenic epistemological stances reveals that

it is not radical constructivism that K. Gergen (1985) has in mind when talking about endogenic epistemology.

> […] the contemporary conception of psychological science is a by-product of empiricist or exogenic philosophy – committed as it has been to rendering an account of objective knowledge of the world. The experimental psychologist thus sets out to employ methods for establishing objective knowledge about cognitive processes. To the extent that the investigator claims to achieve an accurate representation of the world […], it threatens the view that it is the world as represented (cognized) rather than the world in itself which is of importance. […] The exogenic basis of the scientific activity undermines the validity of the endogenic theories under examination. (Gergen 1985: 269–270)

As hinted above, the main argument against the endogenic perspective posed in the quotation above rests on the observation that even though endogenic epistemology defines knowledge construction in cognitive terms – that is as mental processes – they replicate some assumptions of exogenic epistemology: objectivism, justificationism and representationism. This view corresponds directly to the criticism in F. Grucza (1997), who pinpointed a similar problem with reference to the Structuralist and Generativist conceptions of language (see section 1 above in this chapter). The former paradigm, with its focus on external data corpus, seems to classify well as a case of exogenic epistemology, while the latter, with its idealized speaker-listener as an endogenic one. Let us add here that, similarly to K. Gergen (1985), F. Grucza (1997) is also critical about these two conceptualizations of language and knowledge. Consequently, K. Gergen's (1985) criticism of the exogenic and endogenic epistemologies cannot viably be extrapolated on F. Grucza's or E. von Glasersfeld's epistemological position.

K. Gergen escapes involvement with either the exogenic or the endogenic epistemology and proposes an epistemological notion of *social constructionism* – as defined at the beginning of this section. This is how K. Gergen justifies the need for this new outlook:

> This movement [= social constructionism – K. K.] begins in earnest when one challenges the concept of knowledge as mental representation. Given the myriad of insolubles to which such a concept gives rise, one is moved to consider what passes as knowledge in human affairs. At least one major candidate is that of linguistic rendering. We generally

> count as knowledge that which is represented in linguistic propositions
> – stored in books, journals, floppy disks, and the like. These renderings,
> to continue an earlier theme, are constituents of social practices. From
> this perspective, knowledge is not something people possess somewhere
> in their heads, but rather, something people do together. Languages are
> essentially shared activities. Indeed, until the sounds or markings come
> to be shared within a community, it is inappropriate to speak of language
> at all. In effect, we may cease inquiry into the psychological basis of lan-
> guage and focus on the performative use of language in human affairs.
> (Gergen 1985: 269–270)

At first sight, one could easily see how K. Gergen's idea of knowl-
edge contradicts F. Grucza's anthropocentric stance. His claim that
knowledge is "between people," not in individuals (*cf.* Castelló, Botel-
la 2007: 264, also quoted above), and as something people do together
(Gergen 1985: 270) can be read as evidently contradictory to the view
of the anthropocentric nature of knowledge, as proposed by F. Grucza.
To further illustrate the stark contrast between the two researchers, let
us quote F. Grucza again:

> However, in reality, words, sentences or texts contain no knowledge.
> Knowledge is not contained in either single letters, or – however well
> ordered – letter strings. Knowledge is not to be found in books, either.
> Although it is often said so, no one passes their knowledge on paper.
> There is no way for anyone to do it. (Grucza 1997: 12)

Despite all the above apparent contrasts, we would like to venture
an alternative reading of K. Gergen (1985), under which his social con-
structionist idea of knowledge does not have to contradict the radical
anthropocentric stance of either F. Grucza or E. von Glasersfeld. In our
opinion, K. Gergen (1985) is not consistent in the way he uses the notion
of knowledge in his text. When discussing the contrasts between the ex-
ogenic and endogenic epistemologies, he makes use of the concept of
knowledge as epistemological. Yet, in his social constructionist proposal,
a more metaphorical sense prevails. We believe this shift is signalled in
the last quotation from K. Gergen (1985: 270), where he declares that as
a result of his critical analyses, from now on he is going to focus on "what
passes as knowledge in human affairs."

Hence, we conclude that K. Gergen's (1985) main point is the neces-
sity to refute the objectivist pretences in the study of human knowledge

as isolated from social and cultural settings. This is why K. Gergen's appeal to regard knowledge construction as having to do with "performative use of language in human affairs" (Gergen 1985: 270, see the quote above) is so heavily stressed in his text. Seen in this way, K. Gergen's pro-social appeal may be placed much closer to the positions of F. Grucza and E. von Glasersfeld, as discussed above. In fact, a lot of K. Gergen's criticism of Cognitivist psychology can be said to match E. von Glasersfeld's reservations. K. Gergen's rejection of the *idealizing* tendencies displayed by Cognitivism is almost identical to the criticism propounded in F. Grucza (1997).

If, however, K. Gergen's (1985) conception of social construction of knowledge is to be read as formulated on epistemological grounds, its tenability can be questioned. According to K. Gergen (1985), his social constructionist approach solves the problem of the *endogenic–exogenic* bias in epistemology. However, this is disputable. If one is to consider the notion of "knowledge between people" in ontological terms, it is perhaps best understood as falling close to E. Durkheim's *ontology of social facts* (*cf.* Giddens 2009: 14, Durkheim [1895] 2014). If knowledge *exists as a social construct*, or in any other way obtains an ontological status independent of the person who possesses the knowledge, it becomes part of the world outside the human being. As such, it should be available to research with the use of an empirical apparatus. Consequently, K. Gergen's (1985) social constructionist postulations bring us back to a position closer to, if not just representative of, *exogenic* epistemology. Hence, his solution of the exogenic–endogenic antinomy fails.

We have also encountered similar interpretational problems when exploring the conceptual network developed by K. Gergen in his more recent work (Gergen 2009). This book defines people as *relational beings*, and learning as a *relation-based activity*. The main point that organizes K. Gergen's (2009) argument is that our reflection on knowledge and education needs to urgently abandon the Cartesian divide between the cognizing human being and the world he/she cognizes, or as K. Gergen (2009: 202) has it, "separation of the knower from the known." In a fashion parallel to his earlier work discussed above, he makes a strong claim that knowledge be regarded as a result of social activity.

> As you read these lines, isn't it clear: *You* are the reader, *this* book is before you, and *I* am the writer. We have, then, three entities—you,

me, and the book—each separate and distinct. But reconsider: As I write I am using words that are not my own; I am borrowing from countless sources and shaping them for you. Are these words, then, truly my own—a unique expression of me as an independent being, or are they someone else's, and in important degree even yours? The moment at which *I* the author specifically begins and ends is clouded. Consider as well that the words on this page are not the specific property of the book itself. The book does have some distinct characteristics—a unique title, chapter names, cover design—that suggest an independent identity. But all that *it* says—the important stuff—is borrowed from elsewhere—one might have said "from me" if only we knew where I began and ended. But hold on; precisely who are *you* in this situation? As these words crowd your consciousness are they not defining who you are at this moment; aren't they at this moment *your* words. Or were they yours already? At the moment of reading, then, the words belong to neither you, the book, nor to me. At the moment of reading there is no clear separation between me, the book, and you. (Gergen 2009: 29)

As in the case of K. Gergen (1985), we do not think that the idea of social knowledge construction as formulated in the quotation above represents an epistemological stance. Although we admire how skilfully K. Gergen manages to show the relational aspect of human communication and a human "becoming" someone new through communicating with others, we tend to believe that his views are not an expression of an epistemological position. In other words, we see K. Gergen's concept of *knowledge* substantially divergent from F. Grucza's (1997) use of the concept. In our view, in both cases (*i.e.* 1985 and 2009), K. Gergen's *social knowledge* and *relational knowledge* are metaphorical constructs, and they do not represent authentic epistemological statements on how humans construct knowledge.

To support our interpretation of K. Gergen's words, let us have a closer look at some fragments of the latter work.

If we understand ourselves as fundamentally isolated, then living alone is a natural act. Almost half the adults living in the United States now live alone. Closely related is the fact that in 2004 the average American had only two close friends in whom they could confide on important matters. This was down from 1985 when the average was three such confidants. Thus the prevalence of loneliness should come as little surprise. There are now over two million websites devoted to the challenge

of loneliness in contemporary life. Loneliness is viewed not only as a deficit in itself, but is associated with dangerously elevated levels of blood pressure, and to depression and suicide. […] Nor should it be surprising that many therapists, scholars, and theologians describe what they feel is a distinct loss of meaning in people's lives. There is a failure to locate something truly significant—worthy of a life commitment, a compass for concerted action, a reason to remain alive. Yet, we also celebrate autonomy, the "self-made man," the individual who resists social convention and marches to his own drummer. Is it this very celebration that lends itself to the loss of meaning? When asked about what is truly meaningful to them, many people speak of love, family, and God. Yet, what is the origin of such investments? Could they ever be discovered in solitary? What if we could understand all that we call thought, fantasy, or desire as originating in relationships? Even when physically isolated we might discover the remnants of relationship. We would invite a renewed appreciation of self *with* others. (Gergen 2009: 6–7)

We are prone to believe that the bottom line of K. Gergen's (2009) criticism focuses on the contemporary culture of isolationist individualism – also manifesting itself in contemporary educational regimes – and the anxiety he feels about the future of the world fashioned in this way. It is particularly the last sentence in this quotation that makes us read K. Gergen's words as an appeal to anchor learners' individuality in the social context, but without depriving the individual of his/her learning agency.[37] This is how K. Gergen defines the major objective of education as redefined in accordance with his relational narrative:

I propose that the primary aim of education is to enhance the potentials for participating in relational processes—from the local to the global. The aim, then, is not that of producing independent, autonomous thinkers—mythological creatures at best—but of facilitating relational processes that can ultimately contribute to the continuing and expanding flow of relationships within the world more broadly. (Gergen 2009: 243)

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37 We have encountered similar interpretation problems when analysing other proponents of *social learning*, like J. Lave, E. Wenger (1991: 15–16) and their idea of learning that takes place in "a participation network, not in individual mind," and is "distributed among coparticipants, not a one-person act." We decide to adopt the same mode of interpretation of their concept of learning as we do for K. Gergen's – as metaphorical and not epistemological.

We do acknowledge that K. Gergen's (1985) and (2009) are an interpretational challenge for us. Nevertheless, we hereby assume that only the anthropocentric reading of K. Gergen (1985) and (2009) can make these two works authentically constructivist. To conclude in a more general way, we contend that any epistemological stance under which knowledge construction can take place outside the human brain can hardly be classified as constructivist. Consequently, constructivism is only thinkable as anthropocentric.

Our decision to adopt the anthropocentric reading of K. Gergen in this monograph is intentional. This is mostly owing to the fact that we find K. Gergen's main idea of learning and education being relation-based extremely attractive. This attractiveness lies in that for K. Gergen (especially 2009), it is relations between the protagonists of the educational scene that constitute a central motif in education, while procedures, content and educational institutions are secondary elements (but not unimportant or marginal).

Our convergent reading of F. Grucza and E. von Glasersfeld on the one hand, and of K. Gergen on the other, shows that constructivism proves to be an epistemological perspective that can allow a full recognition of the individuality of the learning process with its social and cultural embeddedness. An eclectic approach like this is defended *e.g.* by J. Bruner – an outstanding figure in education studies, whose various contributions to education theory are also discussed later in this monograph. In one of his later works (Bruner 1996), J. Bruner admits his fascination with the social constructivist thought of L. Vygotsky, which made him abandon his predominantly cognitive view of learning and education. In the introduction to J. Bruner (1996), one can find the author's recognition of the fact that education must be understood as part of the social and cultural universe.

> What we resolve to do in school only makes sense when considered in the broader context of what the society intends to accomplish through its educational investment in the young. How one conceives of education, we have finally come to recognize, is a function of how one conceives of culture and its aims, professed and otherwise. […] [C]ulture shapes the mind […] it provides us with a toolkit by which we construct not only our worlds but our every conception of ourselves and our powers. […] [H]uman mental activity is neither solo nor conducted unassisted, even when it goes "inside the head." (Bruner 1996: ix–xi)

J. Bruner's (1996) words express perfectly the compromise position between the individual and the social aspect of learning and education. Hence, we would like to adopt this view as a guideline in our work, too. In fact, we would not like to talk about a compromise in this case, but rather about a lack of conflict between the anthropocentric epistemological individuality of learning and the fact that individuals live and learn in groups, teams and societies. A similar stance is defended by other researchers of learning and education, who openly acknowledge the role of the socio-cultural context in learning. Take P. Jarvis *et al.* (2003), for example, who, admit that:

> Although culture and social context form the background for learning, and strongly influence the processes involved, in a very important sense all learning remains individual. For, despite talk about the 'learning society' and the 'learning organization', logically (and psychologically) only individuals can learn. […] In fact, the whole idea of lifelong learning and the learning society entails a notion of the individual self-directed learner. (Jarvis *et al.* 2003: 89)

Also a recent text by P. Jarvis (2012) directly addresses the problem of the anthropocentric nature of learning. The text is entitled *It Is the Person Who Learns*, and it starts with perhaps the most extensive, comprehensive and holistic definition of learning available in the literature of the subject until now:

> the combination of processes throughout a lifetime whereby the whole person – body (genetic, physical and biological) and mind (knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, emotions, meaning, beliefs and senses) – experiences social situations, the content of which is then transformed cognitively, emotively or practically (or through any combination) and integrated into the individual person's biography resulting in a continually changing (or more experienced) person. (Jarvis 2009: 25 as quoted in Jarvis 2012: 103)

These two quotations are perhaps the best way to summarize the debate in this section, and it also demarcates the stance we take on the matters of individual and social knowledge construction in this monograph. In the light of all that has been said in this section, we are going to adopt anthropocentric social constructivist epistemology as the foundation for our line of argument in this monograph.

5. Social constructivism in D. Kiraly (2000) and anthropocentrism in F. Grucza (1997): a comparative analysis

The comparative analyses we have ventured so far, trying to present F. Grucza's anthropocentric epistemology in relation to radical constructivism and social constructionism were intended to determine if it is possible to merge these conceptions into one relatively coherent epistemological stance on learning and education. In this section, we are looking for common grounds between F. Grucza's views on knowledge and learning and the version of constructivist epistemology adopted by D. Kiraly in his model of T&I didactics, developed in his seminal D. Kiraly (2000). One reason for this comparative analysis is that D. Kiraly's didactic reflection turned out to be extremely influential in the field of T&I education. D. Kiraly's (2000) contribution is responsible for opening the debate in T&I education to the question of its epistemological foundations. Also, D. Kiraly's didactic thought is a major source of inspiration for our proposals presented in this monograph, and so we would like to determine if the epistemological stance we adopt here is in harmony with the main ideas advocated by D. Kiraly in his metatheoretical perspective on how people learn.

D. Kiraly's (2000) constructivist orientation becomes evident very early in the work:

> In recent years, it has become a commonplace in educational psychology that knowledge is constructed by learners, rather than being simply transmitted to them by their teachers. (Kiraly 2000: 1)

However, to classify D. Kiraly's constructivism is not a straightforward task. Firstly, one could see D. Kiraly's (2000) constructivist stand as representative of trivial constructivism, as defined by A. Jordan *et al.* (2008):

> When used to describe this category of constructivist thought, 'trivial' means 'obvious' rather than 'insignificant' or 'unimportant'. It indicates the common-sense view that knowledge is not acquired through a process of transmission from an external source to an individual; rather, people actively construct knowledge in an effort to make sense of the world. According to trivial constructivism, people construct mental models of the way things are. These mental models – or 'constructs' – form personal understandings. When new information is received, the new mental constructs have to be accommodated within previously existing

> constructs. The new knowledge is adapted rather than adopted. A par-
> ticularly important process occurs when new constructs conflict with
> old. Learners are likely to become puzzled, causing them to reconsider
> and reconfigure mental constructs. This iterative and active process leads
> to richer understanding and improved learning. (Jordan *et al.* 2008: 56,
> the original text layout preserved)

In their account of trivial constructivism, A. Jordan *et al.* (2008) list two main representatives of this currently, namely J. Bruner and J. Piaget. It is the latter scholar whom D. Kiraly (2000) mentions as his source of inspiration, which can justify our claim that D. Kiraly's version of constructivist epistemology is the trivial one.

It must also be noted that D. Kiraly (2000) insists that his reliance on constructivism is not to be read dogmatically, since his main objective is not to be classified as a constructivist. He wishes to anchor his model of translation didactics in a variety of constructivist ideas and their variants:

> While the social constructivist ideas of L. Vygotsky, Bruffee, Rorty and
> Piaget have all informed my pedagogical approach, I hope that no rigid,
> dogmatic reading of constructivism will emerge to fossilize the method.
> The empowerment method should not be seen as a fixed stage in the evo-
> lution of translator education methods that will have come and gone
> on the threshold of the new millennium. To remain viable, the method
> must be seen as a process rather than a product – a neverending collab-
> orative process of experience, interpretation and re-evaluation. The key,
> perhaps to avoiding epistemological dogmatism is to focus more on
> empowerment, the goal of the method, than on the theories upon which
> the method is based. (Kiraly 2000: 19)

Thus, D. Kiraly wishes to be considered constructivist to the extent to which constructivism and social constructivism offer him epistemologi-cal grounds for his model of T&I education. D. Kiraly uses constructiv-ism as a background against which he puts forward his own educational proposals, and this is why he feels exempt from engaging into any detailed investigations of the constructivist thought.

There are, however, two epistemological arguments which D. Kiraly (2000) makes plain to the reader. Firstly, it is his open rejection of the ob-jectivist, "idealized" perspective adopted by the Cognitive approach to learning. Secondly comes his insistence on understanding knowledge as truly construable only through social interaction.

The first argument is based on D. Kiraly's own critical observations on the Cognitive approach to the translation process, which he had also subscribed to at some stage of his research:

> While working on the research that culminated in *Pathways to Translation* [Kiraly (1995) – K. K.], I was drawn, at least partially, into the mindset of the cognitivist approach to translation studies that was emerging in the mid-1980s. Then, as now, I depicted translation in terms of a double bind: as an internal, cognitive process and as an external, social phenomenon. Yet in analysing the think-aloud protocols produced by novice and expert translators while they performed translation tasks, I was working under the implicit assumption that by having subjects verbalize what they were thinking while translating, it would be possible to identify cognitive strategies as if they were fixed routines, artefacts of the mind that could be extracted, dissected and perhaps even distributed to translators-in-training.
>
> Since completing that earlier work, my understanding has evolved to a point where I see this cognitive science approach to translation process as epistemologically incompatible with a social process perspective. The former rests on the assumption that meaning and knowledge are products of the individual mind – replicable, transferable, independent of social interaction and essentially static – while the latter assumes that they are dynamic intersubjective processes. (Kiraly 2000: 1–2, original text layout retained)

Our investigations in the nature of constructivism have revealed that the anti-objectivist epistemological stance is shared by all constructivists. Taking that into account, D. Kiraly's (2000) position – pinpointed in the quote above – requires no further comments.

However, of greater interest to us is the move D. Kiraly (2000) proposes from the constructivist position to social constructivism. The quote above makes it clear that D. Kiraly associates the constructivist stance with the cognitivist approach to knowledge construction. In this sense, his argument falls close to K. Gergen's (1985) criticism of Cognitivism, as discussed above. If our interpretation is valid, D. Kiraly's move to extrapolate the criticism of Cognitivism onto a more general criticism of constructivism is not well grounded. As discussed above, neither F. Grucza, nor E. von Glasersfeld excluded the social plane from the perspective of knowledge construction. Hence, the claim that constructivism necessarily attempts to isolate learning from the social realm is untenable.

On the other hand, D. Kiraly's (2000) version of social constructivism seems not as radical as the statements found in K. Gergen (1985) or (2009). Even in the fragment quoted above, D. Kiraly (2000) makes it clear that he has in mind a "double bind:" the mental process and its social context. Conversely, the quotations from K. Gergen (1985) presented in the previous section, seem to indicate – at least at first sight – that the latter author believes in knowledge not being possessed by people in their heads, but being only a socially constructed reality.

As remarked above, D. Kiraly frees himself from any definitive demarcation of the kind of constructivism or social constructivism he is likely to subscribe to. In view of the didactic (methodological) proposals he makes in the latter part of the book under analysis, it is clear that despite his huge emphasis on taking the full advantage of the social situating of learning (collaborative knowledge construction), the ultimate goal is always understood as the growth of an individual (*e.g. cf.* Kiraly 2000: 36).

Summing up, D. Kiraly's (2000) social constructivist epistemological background can be read as anthropocentric, even though some concepts mentioned by D. Kiraly (2000) in relation to the social nature of knowledge construction might be seen at tangent with F. Grucza's epistemological theory (*e.g.* the notion of *intersubjectivity* – as quoted above – if understood epistemologically). If social constructivism is defined as the influence of social and cultural factors on what an individual constructs (in the sense of "available" ideas, viewpoints, values, *etc.*), F. Grucza's ideas are convergent with D. Kiraly's (2000) version of social constructivism. Also, E. von Glasersfeld's (2007a) idea of social responsibility for knowledge construction (see quotation above), leaves no doubt that the latter author keeps the social plane of his radical constructivist epistemology in mind.

Taking all the above into consideration, we are ready to claim that it is possible to regard the epistemological grounds of F. Grucza, E. von Glasersfeld and D. Kiraly as largely convergent. Despite the different angles at which these three authors observe knowledge construction, their views may be found convergent if read in the following way: learning as a function is always an attribute of an individual brain. What is learned and how is subject to social and cultural influence (determination).

6. The anthropocentric constructivist epistemology as a foundation for translation education methodology

This section is devoted to a short discussion on the consequences of the epistemological stance we take in this monograph, and which we refer to as anthropocentric social constructivism. The most obvious consequence of our stance, which has also been repeatedly voiced in the works of a lot of specialists in education and T&I education (see *e.g.* Chapters 3 and 4 below for details), is the need to focus on learning as its primary educational rationale. The social constructivist outlook has been recognized in the literature of the field, as already discussed. However, the fact that social constructivism has been accepted as a theoretical point of reference, or even as a basis for the formulation of classroom methodologies and activities presented in a growing number of publication does not translate on its authentic presence in contemporary T&I classrooms. Observations from our experience concerning our working academic environment reveal an urgent need to promote the idea of a shift towards the anthropocentricism of learning. Constructivism – which generally is part of contemporary teachers' declarative knowledge – is still challenged by – usually implicit, but strong and hegemonic – traditions and practices of transmissionist narratives and axiologies.

This is why in this monograph we would like to exploit problems which – in our view – have not yet been subject to detailed analyses. Let us briefly list the major problems that will occupy the significant portion of the debate in our work:

1. *The role of communication as an instrument of knowledge construction and assessment.* In the approach we are developing in this monograph, the T&I classroom is regarded as a shared space, where knowledge construction and its verification (assessment) hugely relies on the students' and the teachers' communicative skills. When we adopt the anthropocentric social constructivist optics, in which knowledge is constructed through social negotiation of senses, the role of effective, empowering communication practices in the T&I classroom must be viewed as paramount.

A special emphasis is put in this monograph on the practice of classroom assessment, which – in our view – can be of better educational use when seen as a communicative practice that involves the negotiating of

senses, rather than being a set of mono-directional messages produced by a teacher – as traditionally practiced in either a summative or formative style. Our vision of the T&I classroom and assessment calls for a revision of the roles played by the classroom protagonists, and a redefinition of the communication *games* (narratives) they engage in.

2. *The need to promote student learning as self-directed learning for life and career success.* It is our personal observation that contemporary T&I educational theory and practice betrays a certain predilection towards a narrative in which the main classroom protagonists are understood in terms of lists of competences to master (students) and a list of procedures to execute (teachers). The redefinition of the classroom roles we suggest here is meant to overcome this detrimental narrative. A concept that shows how our anthropocentric social constructivist optics can help in this respect is that of autonomy and of self-directed (self-regulated) learning.

The need for T&I education to foster student/learner, but also teacher, autonomy has been voiced by numerous researchers in the field. For example D. Kiraly (2000, 2005, 2006, 2009 or 2012) and B. Moser-Mercer (2008) make it clear that autonomy in knowledge and skill building is a prerequisite for the development of translation competence/skills – particularly of metacognitive skills. In this monograph, we would like to expand the range of arguments in favour of student and teacher autonomy in T&I education by referring to the views upheld by selected theorists of self-directed learning and education, such as J. Bruner, G. Grow, M. Knowles, J. Mezirow or C. Rogers. We also highlight the aspect of their theories in which they appeal that self-directed education be defined with the life-long, long-term horizon.

3. *The role of a teacher.* There is no denying that Rogers' (1951) conception of *person-centred* education has wielded a tremendous, positive impact on how we understand the classroom roles in contemporary education, including T&I education. Nevertheless, we are going to argue here that Rogers' (1951) seminal appeal to abandon the *teacher-centred* approach in favour of the *student-centred* has also brought about a distorted understanding of the role of the teacher. The main problem of Rogers' (1951) conception, which we discuss in further detail in Chapter 8, is that it is built on the *centre–periphery* narrative about interpersonal relations and classroom organization. The *centre–periphery* narrative is bound to thwart the development of a systemic, holistic

outlook in T&I education. This narrative renders it virtually impossible to create a shared space for social knowledge construction, since it inevitably falls victim to the power struggle of *we vs. them* (teachers vs. students, students vs. teachers, Academia vs. market, academic education vs. professional education, *etc.*). Even though we accept the fact that such a narrative can make sense in a lot of communicative and social contexts (*e.g.* market competition), we are prone to believe it is not the most advantageous underlying idea for a holistic perspective in educational reflection and practice.

The anthropocentric nature of knowledge construction concerns both the student and the teacher. Hence, they must be seen as equally vital for the processes of knowledge construction taking place in the T&I classroom. Consequently, an anthropocentric constructivist classroom must call the teacher back to the scene: not as a figure who is taken for granted as a provider of classroom activities or assessment grids, but as a vital classroom protagonist, also as a human being seeking his/her personal and professional growth (see point 2 above).

4. *An urgent need for multiple voices in T&I education*. The concept of multiple voices, expressed by M. González Davies (2004), is recurrently evoked in this monograph, since we find this idea extremely inspirational for our own argumentation. We want to see the T&I classroom (and T&I curriculum) as a space of *shared* – that is negotiated – values, power influences, narratives and decision-making practices. If T&I educators treat seriously the objective of overcoming the current Academia–market gap (see Chapter 1, section 5.2 above, also Chapter 5 below), they need to be open to the voices from outside the Academia. T&I educators need to embrace their responsibility for embedding the T&I educational process in the intricate network of actual, not idealized, social, economic and cultural needs of all the beneficiaries of academic education (as foreseen by the Bologna Process).

This is why M. González Davies' (2004) suggestions to open the T&I classroom to specialists (professional translators, terminology managers, experts in various domains of knowledge, representatives of companies related to the LSP industry, *etc.*) are crucial to our own line of argument in this work. Also, we want to emphasize that in the view adopted here, the role of all these stakeholders cannot be restricted to that of *important, honourable guests*, occasional visitors, consultants or representatives

of employers, who attend yet another conference on job opportunities in the region. When we talk about giving them a *voice*, we mean inviting them to become accountable for their *share* in the T&I classroom and curriculum; to take responsibility for *negotiating* values, interests and needs in a social constructivist knowledge construction process.

On the other hand, we oppose a disproportionate emphasis on the professionalization of the T&I classroom and curriculum, understood as giving too much power to the market-related narratives in the T&I classroom (*cf.* similar critical views by *e.g.* Fenwick, Parsons 1998 or Kearns 2008). One kind of educational practice that we find particularly detrimental in this respect is adopting the statistic parameter of *graduate employability* as an ultimate test of T&I educational effectiveness. Drawing upon the research of such specialists in professional and workplace education like M. Eraut or S. Billett, and on the observations made by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014), we argue that this, or any other reductionist approach to T&I education, is to be avoided. It often marks a restricted degree of responsibility of T&I educators for what happens to graduates when they leave the Academia. To make matters worse, this reductionist approach exempts T&I educators from looking for educational inspirations outside the walls of the T&I classroom. Let alone the fact that such educational practices impart developmental barriers for the graduates' development, in the dynamic conditions of contemporary economies and markets, such a monopolistic narrative in the T&I classroom and curriculum augurs ill for the chances of an authentic and effective dialogue between representatives of the Academia and the market. In such conditions, the Academia–market gap is very likely to persevere as one of the most serious global problems.

5. *The role of content in education*. We find the idea of educational content – as part of a classically defined educational setup – too static. The notion of educational content seems inseparable from the transmissionist narrative, where students are containers for content (knowledge). Another icon of this narrative is the notion of handbook, when understood and used a list of canonical ideas (truths) to master. If knowledge is constructed in the T&I classroom, there is no point in focusing on ready-made content, as if anyone could bring knowledge to the classroom to transmit it between classroom protagonists. In the light of the above, we have decided to substitute the notion of educational content with

the notion of educational task. The role we foresee for this component of the T&I classroom matches the role occupied by the text (message) in the speech act: it is an information offer that serves as an instrument of involvement into and management of communicative and social interaction between the classroom *voices*. Thus, the educational rationale for the meeting of people in the T&I classroom is no longer to pass content or acquire competences, but to work together to attain an objective (*e.g.* a translation task).

In the following four chapters of this monograph, we are going to explore the world of educational ideas that can be used to expand the assumptions we have made so far in this monograph, so as to address the problems listed above. We start with D. Kiraly's (2000) seminal exposition of ideas concerning T&I education anchored in the idea of empowerment (Chapter 3). D. Kiraly's (2000) research has raised our interest in the theories of learning and education he makes reference to in his work. Hence, we decided to explore that field, hoping to elicit further confirmation to the anthropocentric social constructivist way of thinking about T&I education (Chapter 4 and 5). What is more, we have managed to find empirical research reports that also help further confirm the need for the anthropocentric social constructivist optics in education (Chapter 6).

D. Kiraly's (2000) conception of empowered T&I education

1. Critique of the transmissionist translation classroom

Taking the social constructivist stance on T&I education, D. Kiraly (2000) criticises the transmissionist conception of the T&I classroom, that is one that relies on the notion of knowledge being transmitted by the teacher to the student. D. Kiraly's criticism is epistemological (see Chapter 2), but he also points out the methodological drawbacks of transmissionism. In a nutshell, transmissionism rests on the following premises:

1. It holds that the objective of education is to TRANSFER knowledge (facts and rules, relations, principles, *etc.*);
2. The role of the teacher is to TRANSFER their knowledge to students – this is why the teacher's position in the classroom is central;
3. The role of students is to ASSIMILATE the transferred knowledge.

Critics of transmissionist T&I education point out that it is marred by educational ineffectiveness. It thwarts students' development of cognitive and metacognitive skills relating to translation/interpreting. For C. Nord (1996), a transmissionist classroom is very often governed by a methodological strategy to which she refers by means of the phrase: "who takes another sentence?". According to C. Nord, in a transmissionist classroom, the translation task realization usually involves the following steps:

1. The teacher asks for volunteers or assigns a student to translate a fragment of a text;
2. The student renders the fragment;
3. The teacher comments on the rendition, assessing the degree of correctness;

4. The teacher gives the "appropriate" version (non-negotiable, the only true one).[38]

D. Kiraly (2000) describes the application of this educational strategy in the following way:

> [t]he instructor can be seen as a repository of translation equivalents and strategies that are to be made available to the entire class when one student displays a gap in his or her knowledge by suggesting a faulty translation. Students display their knowledge or lack of thereof by reading off segments of their necessarily imperfect translations. The instructor identifies the errors and then parcels out knowledge of the 'correct' equivalents for memorization by the students. The learning that goes on in this type of classroom is not expected to parallel the real work of professional translators. Rather than experiencing real-life constraints for themselves, the students are expected to appropriate the teacher's knowledge and experience, sliced and packaged for didactic distribution. (Kiraly 2000: 24)

In the fragment quoted above, D. Kiraly's criticism focuses primarily on the inadequacy of the transmissionist thinking for the profession-oriented T&I classroom. A. Pagano (1994) notes that transmissionist methodology renders it impossible for students to experience the real translation process, as it "reinforces the traditional emphasis on the adequacy between the target text and the source text, and disregards the 'acceptability' which a translated text is required to have in the new context of reception" (Pagano 1994: 214). Hence, the students cannot reconstruct a target text as a text, since they are not actually expected to. They are asked to render isolated sentences.

Even though in some types of transmissionist classroom students can be asked to produce more than a fragment of a text, or even the whole text, the position of a teacher, as the only reader (Klaudy 1996) and the provider of the "best version" of the translation prevents the development of autonomous translation strategies (Gile 1994) and thwarts the students' ability to reflect on their translation decisions and actions (Moser-Mercer 2008, Gile [1995] 2009).

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38 A similar kind of criticism can be found *e.g.* in M. González Davies (2004). She uses the notion of *"Read and translate" directive* to describe the transmissionist classroom practices.
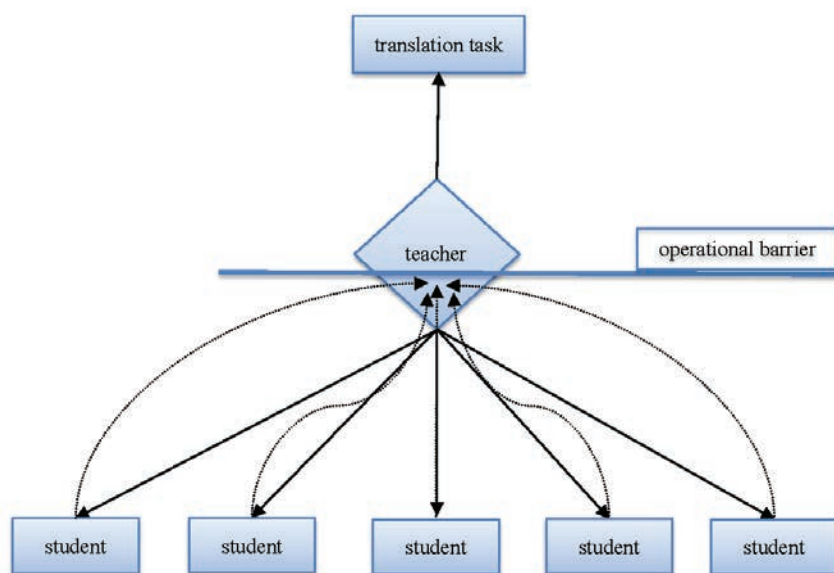
Figure 3. The transmissionist translation classroom (based on Kiraly 2000, Klaudy 1996, Nord 1996 and Pagano 1994)

Figure 3 is meant to graphically represent the arguments made by the above-mentioned authors. The teacher's actions are marked with the straight lines with arrows. It can be seen that the teacher's actions focus on the students and on the task. However, the students' actions – marked with the dotted curves with arrows – only *reach* as far as the teacher. The teacher's verdict about the "correct version" of the translated text prevents students from the authentic and complete realization of the translation task. Students have no influence on the final version of the target text. To signal this state of affairs, we employed the concept of operational barrier in Figure 3 above.

Having presented his main reservations against transmissionism in T&I education, D. Kiraly (2000) seeks ways to substitute this didactically ineffective and detrimental paradigm. To do so, he seeks inspiration in a variety of theories of education that draw fundamentally upon the assumption of the constructivist nature of learning.

Among the theories which D. Kiraly (2000) refers to, there are three approaches to learning and education we would like to focus in particular. The first is the developmental theory by L. Vygotsky,

who is often considered a pioneer of the social constructivist idea of education (*cf.* Bruner 1996, DeVries 2000 or Varney 2009). The second is the theory of transformative learning (*e.g.* R. Boyd, J. Dirkx, J. Mezirow or G. Myers), which is closely related to the critical-reflexive approach to education (*e.g.* S. Brookfield). The last educational concept that we explore is empowerment – a tenet of D. Kiraly's (2000) approach to T&I education.

2. L. Vygotsky's concept of the zone of proximal development

Describing the detail of L. Vygotsky's theory of learning and education falls far beyond the scope of this monograph. With the rise of constructivism and social constructivism in education, his thought has become well-known and widely discussed, as borne out by the long list of related publications.[39] For the purposes of our discussion, we would like to concentrate exclusively on his concept of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), since this concept is a crucial point of reference in D. Kiraly's (2000) argumentation. L. Vygotsky defines the concept in the following way:

> What we call the zone of proximal development […] is the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. (Vygotsky 1978: 86)

L. Vygotsky's idea of ZPD heralds a fundamental educational assumption that underlies consequent educational strategies adopted in the classroom. The corollary of his idea is that teachers should not expect students to become ready to proceed to more advanced stages of learning, but they should actively plan tasks that will help students reach these more advanced stages. In terms of a didactic strategy, L. Vygotsky's ZPD can be reformulated as follows: making students active participants of the (T&I) classroom is part of the didactic task. It is not an *entry requirement*. This is why teachers should not expect students to have reached

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39 To mention only a few: R. DeVries (2000), A. Jordan *et al.* (2008) or M. Tennant (2006). Let us also add that because of the constraints of this text, we refrain from presenting criticism of L. Vygotsky's ideas, including ZPD. The reader is refered to the sources listed above for detail.

the stage of readiness to participate actively in the classroom before or when the class begins. The reason for our highlighting L. Vygotsky's ZPD is partly owing to the fact that it is addressed by D. Kiraly (2000) as an idea that influenced his proposals. At the same time, let us observe that ZPD provides an excellent counterargument to the statements often made by teachers who object to the broadly understood constructivist view of education. Our experience shows that when faced with constructivist proposals, teachers often respond that constructivism offers a very good methodological model, but then they add: "you know, my students are not ready for this." The true problem unveiled by their responses is, perhaps, that these teachers are not ready for "this," irrespective of the fact that the teachers' anxiety concerning students' motivation to participate in a constructivist classroom is a problem of its own.

3. Education as transformation: expanding D. Kiraly's (2000) use of the concept

The second educational conception that D. Kiraly (2000) makes reference to when building his educational model is that of transformative learning. The idea of learning as a 'perspective transformation' is most frequently associated with the work of J. Mezirow, however it has also been taken up and developed by other scholars, *e.g.* R. Boyd, P. Cranton, J. Dirkx, G. Myers or E. O'Sullivan.[40] The idea of education as evoking change in a learner is standard for each theory of learning and education. However, J. Mezirow observes that education should not confine itself to objectives such as expanding learners' knowledge, building their skills, or even making them open to the endless list of lifelong educational/ learning experiences. These elements are important but they do not exhaust the human potential that can be actuated by learning. According to J. Mezirow, learning should lead to far more substantial changes in a learner. In one of his later works,[41] J. Mezirow defines transformative learning as:

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40 See *e.g.* R. Boyd (1989, 1991), R. Boyd, G. Myers (1988), P. Cranton (1994), J. Dirkx (2000), E. O'Sullivan (1999). For more discussion on transformative learning, also see J. Mezirow and Associates (2000).

41 J. Mezirow's earlier versions of transformative learning were subject to criticism for his rationalistic view of learning (see *e.g.* Cranton 1994 for debate). Influenced by

> […] learning that transforms problematic frames of reference-sets of
> fixed assumptions and expectations (habits of mind, meaning perspec-
> tives, mindsets) – to make them more inclusive, discriminating, open,
> reflective, and emotionally able to change. Such frames of reference are
> better than others because they are more likely to generate beliefs and
> opinions that will prove more true or justified to guide action. (Mezirow
> 2003: 58–59)

Ultimately, learning as seen by J. Mezirow is to help people change their
lives holistically, not only in terms of collections of skills they acquired.
J. Mezirow's views bring serious challenges to education, including
T&I didactics. Transformation as understood by J. Mezirow can only be
recognized from an anthropocentric perspective on learning. It cannot
be defined in terms of a curricular objective. That is why an objectivist
translation classroom can hardly recognize it as educationally valid.
It cannot be measured by a grid or a grading scale, and, in fact, it can
hardly be defined as a skill or competence. The power of transformative
education is more accessible to those classroom formats which are ready
to recognize the role of human knowledge constructors – learners and
teachers – who meet in order to support each other's holistic growth. This
is why this perspective on learning and education attracted the atten-
tion of D. Kiraly (2000). Also, the concept of education being ultimately
driven by making people aware of their potential to manage significant
life events and changes is one of the underlying ideas behind our views
and educational proposals presented in this monograph.

One such idea is to redefine the T&I classroom *who-is-who* in
the light of the transformative thinking. Under this view, education is no
longer about the teacher instigating change in the learner. A transfor-
mative T&I classroom empowers both the students and the teachers to
develop as humans through educational interaction and tasks. Thus both
the students and the teachers are transformative learners, even though
what they transform and how can differ. The transformative stance on
learning helps highlights a fundamental fact that the major educational
objective – to learn – is shared by the students and the teachers.

scholars such as R. Boyd and G. Myers, J. Mezirow started to accept a more holistic
view, accounting for the emotional, the non-conscious and imaginative aspects of
knowledge construction. E. O'Sullivan, M. Taylor (eds.) (2004) is among the most
recent contribution to transformative learning theory, with visible focus on social
and environmental aspects of transformative learning.

Apart from the holistic nature of the learning process, as mentioned in the quotation above, J. Mezirow also emphasises that learning is a process of one's becoming self-aware. This self-awareness makes one capable of critical appraisal of his and others' beliefs, opinions and actions, which is a key stage in transforming one's life perspective. Critical self-awareness is an idea promoted, among others, by S. Brookfield.[42] According to him, critical reflection manifests itself through the following four processes (Brookfield 1987: 7–9):

- recognizing and challenging assumptions;
- identifying the context in which assumptions are made;
- being willing to explore alternative perspectives;
- engaging in thoughtful scepticism.

S. Brookfield's idea of critical thinking does not only pertain to a cognitively understood learning process of an individual, but it is deeply embedded in the social and cultural environment of human interaction. S. Brookfield (1994) brings a more elaborate list of the stages on the way towards critical awareness:

> (1) the experience of questioning and then replacing or reframing an assumption or assumptive cluster, which is unquestioningly accepted as representing dominant common sense by a majority; (2) the experience of taking a perspective on social and political structures, or on personal and collective actions, which is strongly alternative to that held by a majority; (3) the experience of studying the ways in which ideas, and their representations in actions and structures, are accepted as self-evident renderings of the 'natural' state of affairs. (Brookfield 1994: 204)

S. Brookfield seems to reject a view under which culture and environment determine entirely the individual's learning experience. His vision of learning is a call for questioning and reconstructing the learner's self, previously constructed under the social and cultural (political) influences.[43]

This idea of learning as a liberating activity is further pursued by the so-called narrative approach to education. In it, a learner becomes

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42 For the sake of brevity, we exempt ourselves from describing links between the thought of such authors as Freire, Foucault or Habermas and their influence on S. Brookfield or J. Mezirow. For more detail on these relations, see *e.g.* A. Jordan, *et al.* (2008) or M. Tennant (2006).

43 One of the recent expositions of the notion of critical thinking is to be found in S. Brookfield (2007).

a critical subject who, through a constant self-narrative and self-critique, liberates him/herself from the domination of ideas "imposed" on him/her. This self-critique is based on the relativistic idea of self: one that does not require a human being to have only one narrative about oneself. Instead, the theory emphasizes "the indeterminacy of identity, the relativity of meaning, and the generation and exploration of a multiplicity of meanings" (Tennant 2006: 132).

M. Tennant (2006: 132) also points to the didactic application of the narrative theory, as exemplified by K. Gergen and J. Kaye (1992). They define a narrative classroom as a place where learners can:

> […] find exceptions to their predominating experience; to view themselves as prisoners of a culturally inculcated story they did not create; to imagine how they might relate their experience to different people in their lives; to consider what response they might invite via their interactional proclivities; to relate what they imagine to be the experience of others close to them; to consider how they would experience their lives if they operated from different assumptions – how they might act, what resources they could call upon in different contexts; what new solutions might emerge; and to recall precepts once believed, but now jettisoned. (Gergen, Kaye 1992: 258)

In essence, the assumptions of the narrative approach seem to count among the critical reflexive theories of learning. It is worth noting that although these theories make it clear that learning is always culturally-embedded, it cannot be understood as a passive transmission of ideas between teachers and learners. S. Brookfield, J. Mezirow, K. Gergen or J. Kaye take an ethical stance, claiming that the social and cultural (political) determinants of learning constitute the main reason why students should become reflexive learners.

It must be noted that when D. Kiraly (2000) makes reference to the idea of transformative learning, he mostly relies on the work by J. Miller, W. Seller (1985), since these two authors develop a transformative perspective of not only learning but also teaching (facilitating learning). They promote the idea of a so-called holistic, integrative curriculum. A holistic approach means, first of all, that the students and the teachers are thought of as human beings taking part in educational initiatives as beneficial for their lifelong development. Under this view, education should not be reduced to the processes of mastering skills or

knowledge, but it should provide a chance for the students and the teachers to engage as complex personalities in individual and collaborative learning processes.

The latter kind of engagement means expanding the field of educational influence from the exclusively rationalistic view of learning (conscious effort to master knowledge and skills) to cover the impact of such factors like affect (*e.g.* motivation strategies, self-esteem, stress management) and the socio-cultural situating of the classroom (*e.g.* collaboration, negotiating, perspective transformation, profession-related contexts).

An integrative view of education gets rid of the traditional division between teachers opposed to students in the classroom. This antagonistic view of the classroom roles is perhaps best described by K. Gergen's (2009: 241) juxtaposition of *the knowing teacher* against the *ignorant student*. In this narrative, the didactic mission of the former is to work *for the benefit* of the latter (Gergen 2009: 241), which often takes the form of a narrative: "I want your good, and I am going to have it." K. Gergen avoids this educationally detrimental divide by adopting an integrative, relation-based perspective: "What takes place in the classroom is our achievement *together*" (Gergen 2009: 241). In this way, an integrative view of education gets rid of the learning/teaching divide, claiming that it is only learning that takes places in the classroom, both done by the students and the teachers.

D. Kiraly (2000) focuses particularly on the juxtaposition made by J. Miller, W. Seller (1985) between what they name a *transmission* and a *transformation* perspectives in education. To demonstrate the contrast between these two educational approaches, J. Miller, W. Seller ask a number of questions and note down the opposition displayed in the particular answers. The questions concern the relation between the student, the teacher and the educational content/task:

1. Should a student be regarded as a client of the rationally understood educational effort on the part of the teacher/teaching institution, or should a student be conceived of as a learning person, but not only in the rational aspect of learning?
2. Which is more effective: individual or collaborative learning?
3. What should be the source of student motivation: predominantly external or predominantly internal?
4. Who should be in control of the educational process?

5. Should the teacher chunk knowledge into bits, or should they strive to show the complexity of the reality to which the knowledge relates?
6. Should the educational content cater for the needs of individual students, or should it be generalized for a group/all students? (This question concerns both: the choice of content but also students' aptitude for learning.)
7. Should the function of the educational process be defined as "filling a student with content", or should be seen as supported knowledge construction by a student. (quoted after Kiraly 2000: 20–21)

To better visualize the contrastive perspectives, D. Kiraly presents them in a table.

Table 5. J. Miller, W. Seller's (1985) dilemmas (after Kiraly 2000: 22)

Transmission perspective	Transformation perspective
Knowledge is transferred	Knowledge is constructed
Learner is a student and client	Learner is a whole person
Teacher should be in control	Student should be in control
Knowledge is public	Knowledge is private
Motivation is extrinsic	Motivation is intrinsic
Learning is molecular	Learning is holistic
Learning characteristics are shared	Every learner is unique
Learning is individual	Learning is social
Knowledge is content	Knowledge is process

This is how D. Kiraly comments on the two perspectives on education:

> From a transmissionist perspective, the learner comes to the classroom as a passive listener, a consumer of knowledge. And if knowledge can be packaged for distribution, then it can be conveniently dissected into digestible chunks for transmission. If it is transferable, it is natural to also assume that knowledge corresponds to some objective reality and that it is essentially the same for different people. As the teacher is considered the fountain of knowledge, then naturally it is the teacher who should have control of the knowledge distribution process in the classroom. In my view, the structure of contemporary educational systems for the training of translators rests, at the most basic, fundamental level, on the acceptance of this viewpoint. [...] From a transformationist position, we would see learning essentially as a personal, holistic, intrinsically motivating and socially effectuated construction process. Given such

> a perspective, knowledge cannot be transferred from one person […] to another; instead it is transformed or constructed by the individual who makes his or her own meanings through dialogue with other people in a linguistic community. (Kiraly 2000: 22–23)

The quotation above is almost self-explanatory. It only further exhibits the reasons for D. Kiraly's (2000) fundamental choices in his approach to T&I education.

4. Problems with the notion of learning as transformation

The scope of this monograph does not allow us to discuss the full picture of the debate around transformative learning and its educational application, including the criticism that can be found in the literature of the subject (for references see footnote 41 and 42 above). However, there are two issues relating to the concept of transformative education that we would like to elaborate further, hoping that these remarks can facilitate the practical application of the transformative view in the T&I classroom.

As signalled above, the concept of learning transformation hardly translates onto a clearly definable educational objective. In our view, this fact can raise a distrust of the T&I educators (and students) as *just another theoretical construct* which they find hardly instrumental for their classroom. Such problems are also discussed by K. Howie, R. Bagnall (2013).

> The theory is argued here to be conceptually problematic, except at the level of a conceptual metaphor, which latter renders its many inconsistencies inconsequential and which explains, not just its continued popularity among educational practitioners, but also its largely being ignored as a subject worthy of serious critique. (Howie, Bagnall 2013: 816)

Yet, we are going to defend the transformative role of education,[44] however elusive it may seem as a research concept. We would also like to make reference to a conceptual distinction introduced by B. Joyce, M. Weil, B. Showers that can help advocate the need for concepts like

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44 In fact, K. Howie, R. Bagnall (2013) also support the idea of transformative education, despite criticism.

transformation in T&I education. According to B. Joyce *et al.* (1992), educational objectives and effects branch into direct and indirect ones. These authors claim that the processes taking place in the classroom represent two complementary planes: the explicit plane of *instructional effects* and the implicit plane of *nurturant effects*. In terms of T&I education, the explicit can be said to cover the whole domain of planned and conscious efforts to build the scaffolding for T&I task realization. The implicit aspect, on the other hand, concerns the change that an individual learner experiences in the T&I classroom, most of which – according to the authors quoted above – happens without the students' or the teachers' awareness. A key conclusion that the quoted authors make is that teachers and curriculum designers should take the explicit/implicit dialectics in the classroom as a matter of fact. Although the implicit cannot be planned, it cannot be ignored, either. Instead, the implicit objectives must be allowed for, supported and evaluated.

The contribution of B. Joyce *et al.* (1992) is extremely important to us, but not only for the sake of granting support for transformative education in the T&I classroom. First and foremost, their work brings further support to the fundamental optics adopted in this monograph that education is not only about knowledge, competence and *content realization*.[45] It is primarily about people taking action towards the goals they negotiate.

Secondly, the explicit/implicit dialectics further supports the holistic approach to T&I education, as it shows that developing translation competence cannot only be conceived of in terms of the enhancement of one's consciously (rationally) developed specialist, communicative and professional knowledge and skills. The *implicit* facet of education grants support to those perspectives in T&I education that appeal for an extensive use of situating the training of translators and interpreters.

As suggested by B. Joyce *et al.* (1992), the implicit educational effects should also be subject to assessment, but – as we believe – this

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45   The concept of content realization can potentially sound awkward and vague. Yet, we make use of it as we find it very frequently evoked by our Polish colleague teachers (realizacja materiału dydaktycznego), and which we interpret as an icon of the procedure-based thinking about the classroom.

assessment must adopt principles different from the assessment of the explicit effects. Or, in fact, assessment of the two educational planes should be integrated. Some proposals for such an integrated approach to assessment are discussed in Chapter 7 below.

The second problematic aspect of the transformative dimension of learning we would like to pinpoint here is that the theory as such was formulated as part of the theory of adult education (andragogy). More details concerning this theoretical stance on education are presented in the next chapter of this monograph, while here we would only like to refer to the basic assumption of that theory: the way people learn depends much on the developmental stage they are at. The fact that the learners in the academic translation classroom cannot be unconditionally classified as adult learners can raise problems in the teachers' expectations to attract them to participate in the process of knowledge construction to change their modes of thinking and behaving, rather than their getting a desired signature (*cf.* Rogers 1951 and his notion of significant learning).

That this problem is real can be testified by research reported in K. Klimkowski and K. Klimkowska (2012). This study reveals that the students – who in terms of developmental psychology qualify as young or emergent adults – tend to behave partly as adults, but partly as adolescents. K. Klimkowski, K. Klimkowska asked students a series of questions, based on J. Miller, W. Seller's (1985) list of educational dilemmas discussed above. The dilemmas were used to build a questionnaire intended to examine the students' perception of their translation classes, their own role in the classroom as well as their expectations of the translation teacher. The subjects were a relatively small and consolidated group of students: 53 first-year MA course students of translation at one university (Applied Linguistics, UMCS in Lublin); all of them within the age bracket 22–23. The nature of the research pool implies that the answers they gave must be treated with caution as regards their generality.

The students were asked to express their opinion on how their translation curriculum works now (grey graph) and how they would like it to work in ideal conditions (black graph).
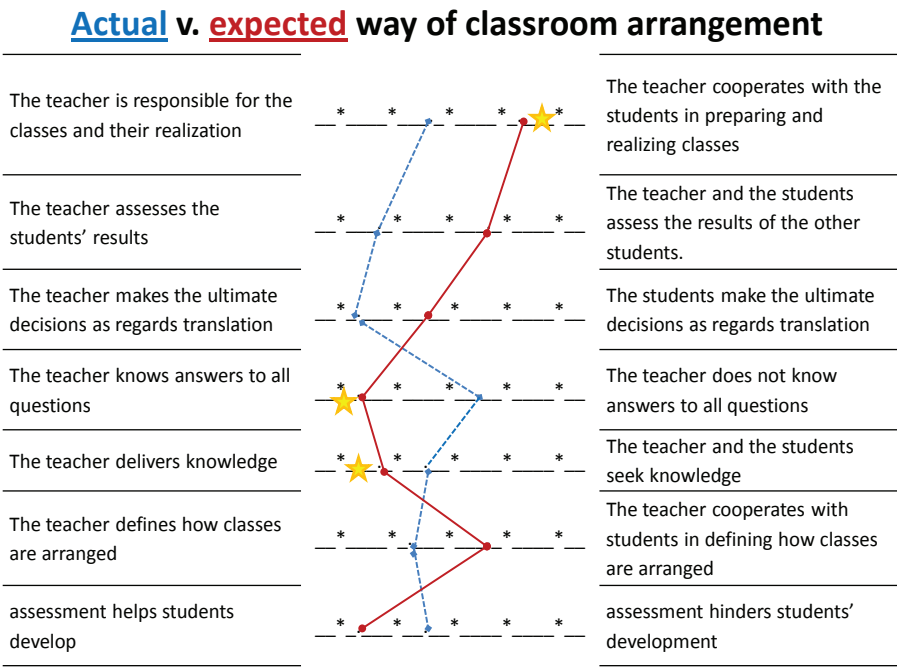
Actual v. expected way of classroom arrangement

The teacher is responsible for the classes and their realization	The teacher cooperates with the students in preparing and realizing classes
The teacher assesses the students' results	The teacher and the students assess the results of the other students.
The teacher makes the ultimate decisions as regards translation	The students make the ultimate decisions as regards translation
The teacher knows answers to all questions	The teacher does not know answers to all questions
The teacher delivers knowledge	The teacher and the students seek knowledge
The teacher defines how classes are arranged	The teacher cooperates with students in defining how classes are arranged
assessment helps students develop	assessment hinders students' development

Figure 4. Students' opinions on the actual and expected classroom management (Klimkowski, Klimkowska 2012: 185)

The face-value analysis of Figure 4 indicates that the subjects' experience of their academic course in translation is predominantly that of a transmissionist environment. In this model, the activity of the teacher as the creator of the educational reality, covering planning (content and rules), implementation and assessment is paramount. The majority of the researched students expressed their preference for the teacher who provides them with ready-made knowledge. In fact, the students expected the teacher to also confirm and correct their translation decisions.

Indirectly, K. Klimkowski, K. Klimkowska's (2012) research reveals that the teachers of the researched students opted for the transmissionist mode of work, too. Worth highlighting here is that the teachers – perhaps unintentionally – imprinted in their students the inability to make strategic translation decisions. If this *implicit* educational programme is ingrained in them, it may easily permeate the other spheres of their activities and competences. This, in turn, may create barriers

that the students – also as future translators – may experience when faced with challenging tasks.[46]

However, for our argument in this monograph, it is perhaps the inconsistency of the students' answers that is the most intriguing. On the one hand, they claim being ready to accept more responsibility for the classroom activities, as testified by the answers in point 1 in Figure 4 above, marked with the first star. The research shows that students regard the degree to which they are allowed to participate in their classroom design and conduct as insufficient. On the other hand, the answers in points 4 and 5 (the other two stars) exhibit that the students are not ready to resign from treating the teacher as a source of *objective* knowledge and a decision-making authority. They also expect the teacher to be the unfailing source of knowledge about translation.

In the complex picture revealed by K. Klimkowski, K. Klimkowska (2012) we can see the students who are capable of recognizing the advantages of the anthropocentric constructivist approach to education, but they indicate their preference for a purely transmissionist *performance magistrale*. This diagnosis can be explained by the students' previous educational experiences. Their past background in translation training (the BA course) is enough for them to acknowledge the advantages of an anthropocentric constructivist take on their translation competence development. On the other hand, their experience of a predominantly transmissionist classroom wins, since it is a safer reality they already know, even though they find it ineffective, uninspiring and unattractive.

Another explanation can be presented from the perspective of developmental psychology. Under this interpretation, the researched students display a considerable degree of immaturity. Even though they are young adults in terms of age, as regards their psychological needs, they represent the stage of adolescence. This is why their choices recorded in the questionnaire reveal such a strong need for safety and determinacy in their classroom performance. Obviously enough, it is not the need for safety and determinacy that makes these students immature, but the fact they expect the teacher to satisfy these needs for them.

The conclusion from the research by K. Klimkowski, K. Klimkowska (2012) is that becoming an adult learner is not something that comes

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46 This situation seems to correspond directly to the description of a transmissionist T&I classroom discussed at the beginning of this chapter, including the notion of the operational barrier we mentioned there.

naturally with age. These developmental intricacies must be allowed for by a teacher wishing to embark on the idea of guiding his/her students towards transformed thinking and behaving. The developmental facts may be responsible for the students' divergent behavioural patterns and various degrees of their readiness for changes at a given developmental stage.

Secondly, L. Vygotsky's idea of Zone of Proximal Development, discussed in section 2 above, can be used as a recommendation for those teachers who fear that their students are not ready for a transformation. L. Vygotsky makes it clear that making students ready for transforming their life perspective is our – teachers' – task. Finally, it is crucial to avoid a way of thinking about transformative education as if it could become an *official ideology* of an objectivist-positivist kind. Our emphasis on the anthropocentric outlook on education helps us make it clear that transformation, although endorsed in a social context, is epistemologically a matter of a single brain. It cannot be directly caused, forced, transferred or transmitted.

5. The concept of empowerment and its centrality in D. Kiraly (2000)

The last educational idea to be discussed in relation to D. Kiraly's (2000) approach to T&I education is empowerment. The concept of empowerment is difficult to define exhaustively in a straightforward way. Perhaps the best way to approach the idea is suggested by J. Lord, P. Hutchison (1993):

> Empowerment can begin to be understood by examining the concepts of power and powerlessness (Moscovitch and Drover, 1981). Power is defined by the Cornell Empowerment Group as the "capacity of some persons and organizations to produce intended, foreseen and unforeseen effects on others" (Cornell Empowerment Group, 1989 p.2). There are many sources of power. Personality, property/wealth, and influential organizations have been identified by Galbraith (1983) as critical sources of power in the last part of this century. Others have pointed out that the class-dominated nature of our society means that a small number of people have vast economic or political power, while the majority have little or none (Moscovitch and Drover, 1981). (Lord, Hutchison 1993: 6)

It can be seen that the concept of empowerment relates historically to cultural studies, sociology as well as social work (*cf.* Rosalska 2006 and

references there). This is specially seen in how the concept of power and powerlessness is defined above. However, empowerment has also become a pedagogical idea as soon as education theorists realized the social factors that are at play when people learn. Thus educationally profiled, empowerment can be defined as:

> a process of personal development in a social framework: a transition from a feeling of powerlessness, and from a life in the shadow of this feeling, to an active life of real ability to act and to take initiatives in relation to the environment and the future. (Sadan [1997] 2004: 133)

Apart from the already discussed assumption that personal development should be seen as taking place in a social framework, the above definition of empowerment puts an equation mark – albeit implicitly – between human development and human action. In our view, this is perhaps the strongest appeal of empowerment as an educational notion. They promote the idea of "power to act," which is perhaps to be seen as something more than "developing a competence" or "learning to perform." As D. Perkins, M. Zimmerman (1995) note:

> […] empowerment is more than the traditional psychological constructs with which it is sometimes compared or confused (e.g. self-esteem, self-efficacy, competency, locus of control). (Perkins, Zimmerman 1995: 570)

The difference that D. Perkins, M. Zimmerman (1995) mean is that between knowing what and how and *employing* this knowledge in making a decision or realizing the task. In other words, it is also a difference between being motivated to do something and using this motivation in actually doing it. Thus in general, the concept of empowerment seems to suggest that knowledge, skills and self-control, although indispensable, may still need an additional factor that will *push* them into action.

It can be assumed that this vision of abandonment of the disempowering myth of education based on "transferring, consuming or assimilating knowledge" to an empowering process of active participation of students (and teachers) in their knowledge construction (together and respectively on their own) attracted D. Kiraly. He foresees that an empowered[47] classroom:

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47 This quote from D. Kiraly (2000: 23) originally refers to the concept of the transformationist approach to the translation classroom. However, we use it in the broader context of empowering the translation classroom which is the main idea of the section this quote is taken from.

> […] will be marked by proactive students working in collaboration
> with each other and the teacher, and a focus on situationally-embedded
> real-life or realistic projects rather than on the memorization of discrete
> pieces of knowledge. […] Thus learning process becomes a forum for
> guided social and cultural experience. (Kiraly 2000: 23)

Although D. Kiraly (2000) finds support for his ideas in a vast selection
of theories of education, his book is not limited to theoretical investiga-
tions. His major concern is the practical application of the principles
he advocates. Thus, on the one hand, the concept of empowerment in
T&I education, as employed by D. Kiraly (2000), can be considered
a synthesis of his social constructivist and transformational approach.
On the other hand, D. Kiraly does his best to extrapolate this general
theoretical background on everyday educational practice.

With that purpose in mind, he highlights six principles underlying
his own proposal of a T&I educational programme, in which one can
also find his view of the T&I teacher's identity. We list his ideas and
discuss them in brief below.

> 1. As the most valuable learning experiences are authentic experiences, it
> is essential to situate learning (Kiraly 2000: 65)

Two important educational ideas are noticeable in this statement.
Firstly, the experiential basis of learning – a tenet of all constructiv-
ist approaches to education. Secondly, D. Kiraly opts for a vision of
T&I education that is a form of simulation of the real-life translation
market practice – a thesis discussed previously in this monograph.
The T&I classroom organization should mirror in the best possible way
the whole array of processes that are typical of everyday translators'/
interpreters' work. One of the main advantages of adopting the situated,
simulational educational strategy is, according to D. Kiraly (2000: 66),
"feedback from the real world outside of the classroom." In fact, D. Kiraly
goes further than a sheer simulation of real-life translator work, since his
students are involved in real translation projects:

> Often I have been able to share with students jobs that have been com-
> missioned to me. While clients naturally insist that I personally assume
> full responsibility for the quality of the translation, I find they are often
> willing to have students participate in the project.[...] As the facilitator,
> I often assume the job of project co-ordinator myself. I then have the task

> of making sure the work is done in a timely and professional manner to the satisfaction of the client. This change in the habitual authority structure of the classroom allows and empowers students to think, solve problems and learn for themselves. (Kiraly 2000: 66)

A lot of teachers find this step a risky one, and in a lot of academic systems it is perhaps virtually impossible to have students work in a fully-fledged business environment as part of formal training. This is why initiatives like these need meticulous planning and logistic "security mechanisms," but we are ready to confirm – on the basis of the initiatives we have undertaken as a T&I teacher, as reported in Chapter 7 of this monograph – that such projects are definitely empowering for students and teachers, let alone clients.

> 2. The most valuable learning experiences are imbued with multiple perspectives – not the transmission of a single truth (Kiraly 2000: 66)

This point in D. Kiraly's (2000) programme can be said to address the issue of *operational barrier* that was postulated in section 1 of this chapter (see Figure 1 and comments). D. Kiraly (2000) propounds that the task realization process in the T&I classroom he envisages necessarily leads to more than one viable translation solution. This assumption is only acceptable in an educational programme based on the principle of anthropocentric social constructivist learning. It provides grounds for constructing multiple perspectives that help see deeper into the particular translation problems as well as make more conscious choices of solutions. In this way, the notion of multiple perspective is equally pertinent to the notion of *multiple voices* (González Davies 2004), evoked repeatedly in this monograph.

> 3. Truly collaborative work is an essential part of every learning experience (Kiraly 2000: 67)

We assume that the discussion held above in this monograph and in this chapter suffices as an explanation for D. Kiraly's insistence on collaborative work in the T&I classroom. However, we would like to clarify the concept of collaborative work as meant by D. Kiraly.

> True collaboration in the classroom does not mean having learners do translations individually in the company of peers. It means sharing responsibility for empowering the entire group as emergent professionals.

> The process of decision-making becomes a second primary focus of attention in the class along with the artefacts of those processes. To ensure true collaboration in the classroom, students must be mutually dependent on each other for accomplishing goals. (Kiraly 2000: 67)

Thus, collaboration does not show itself in any kind of shared project, but only in those where the strategic translation decisions are made through collaborative negotiation. We admit that we share D. Kiraly's enthusiasm concerning teamwork in translation and of advantages it offers. We have also discussed the issue of teamwork in a handful of contributions (Klimkowski 2006, 2007, 2008a, 2010, 2012), sharing with the reader our experience relating to a number of teamwork and groupwork-based translation projects. In this monograph, we postulate a concept of collaboration that expands its use in the T&I classroom situation. We suggest that the principle of collaboration – negotiated decision-making – needs to be employed as a general strategy for managing the participation of all the stakeholders in the T&I educational process.

> 4. The goal of each class will be to construct multiple and viable (rather than correct) solutions to problems that emerge naturally from authentic projects (Kiraly 2000: 67)

This point partly repeats point 2, however with a greater emphasis on educational goals. It must be noted, however, that the co-construction of multiple and viable solutions must finally lead to the one (or a limited number of) version(s) of the target text, if we assume the T&I class is a simulation of real-life working conditions. In this case, at some stage of project realization the decision must be taken concerning the final target text. As a matter of fact, the moment of negotiation "the one out of the many" creates another collaborative learning experience, *e.g.* of learning to win or lose one's version of the text. It also highlights the role of the teacher and his potentially casting vote on the final version of the target text. We address this problem in detail in Chapter 7 below.

> 5. Rather than teaching correct answers (truth) to my students, it is my pedagogical task to scaffold learning, provide substantial support for knowledge construction early in the course or programme, and gradually relinquish control over the learning environment to the students themselves (Kiraly 2000: 68)

This point presents in the most explicit way D. Kiraly's (2000) vision of what a teacher does in the empowered classroom. Thus the main role that D. Kiraly envisages for the teacher is defined as active support for knowledge construction. Also vital is D. Kiraly's emphasis on the teacher's being conscious of the changes taking place in the way students learn, and the need to adapt to the students' growing competences by passing more and more control over learning to students.

> 6. My translator education classes are designed as socio-cognitive apprenticeship workshops, where students at the periphery of the translation community are gradually drawn into the community's discourse until they are competent, full-fledged members of the community themselves. (Kiraly 2000: 69)

In this point, D. Kiraly (2000) shares with the reader his vision of the student–teacher interaction on their way towards attaining learning objectives. A special emphasis is put on one advantage that the empowered classroom offers to students. According to D. Kiraly, the collaborative social constructivist T&I classroom is beneficial for those students who find it difficult to get involved in the task realization at the early stages.

D. Kiraly's (2000) educational manifesto presented above requires neither further explanations nor comments. Some of his proposals and their educational consequences are discussed in the later parts of our monograph. The only concluding remark we make here is that, in our view, the notion of empowerment is perhaps one of the most inspiring, promising and challenging concepts in education. Unless T&I education embraces the need for empowering students – rather than confining itself to equipping them with knowledge and skills, or maybe even the first jobs – it will not be able to fulfil effectively its educational, social, economic and cultural duties.

6. Criticism of D. Kiraly's (2000) proposals in the translator education literature

In this section, we would like to discuss two voices of critical appraisal of the model proposed by D. Kiraly (2000). For one thing, we would like to know what critical arguments have been posed in the literature of the field to his educational approach. Secondly, any such argument can

also help us enhance the proposal we make in this monograph. The two critical responses at hand differ in their aims. J. Varney's (2009) criticism is meant to provide clarification of the main ideas as referred to by D. Kiraly (2000), and its general intention is give support to his claims. On the other hand, A. Pym (2009a) declares his intention to question, if not undermine, D. Kiraly's (2000) approach.

The focus of J. Varney's (2009) critical analysis concentrates mostly on the theoretical background of D. Kiraly (2000). For example, she quotes A. Begg (2000), who opposes the purely rationalistic approach to education, as proposed by social constructivism. A. Begg's point is that the discussion about the educational process should always take into account the affective factors influencing learning, since they constitute a specific kind of knowledge. A. Begg speaks of *non-cognitive knowing* that must be catered for in the formal curriculum (Begg 2000, as quoted in Varney 2009: 28–29).

Also T. Fenwick (2000) accuses social constructivists of the rationalistic reductionist view of education. According to T. Fenwick, social constructivist education fails to recognize the distinction between the conscious and the non-conscious processes involved in the classroom interaction and learning (Fenwick 2000, as quoted in Varney 2009: 29).

J. Varney (2009) discusses these critical views of social constructivist education, but she concludes that they are not directly pertinent to D. Kiraly's (2000) educational model, since "Kiraly's (2000: 29) application of the social constructivist approach to translator education displays a clear engagement with such criticism." This concerns both, the problem of intuitive knowledge (Begg 2000) as well as the psychoanalytic critical position of T. Fenwick (2000).

> Begg (2000) lists a number of non-cognitive instances of knowing which do not seem to sit well with social constructivism. Citing Hargreves, he suggests that "emotions are at the heart of teaching", and calls for emotion and other forms of unformulated knowledge to be seen not as distinct impulses distinguishable from cognitive knowing, but as fundamental to our way-of-being and as such to our learning process (Hargreves, cited by Begg, 2000). Kiraly's emphasis on learner empowerment to some extent absorbs this argument. Emotion and other non-cognitive instances of knowing are fully recognised and respected as inherent characteristics of Kiraly's individual empowered learner, responsible for his or her own learning experience. Empowerment here stimulates

and liberates the creative capabilities of individual learners, a creativity which is nourished by non-cognitive knowing.

Returning to the psychoanalytic critique of social constructivist perspectives, Kiraly himself questions the validity of purely cognitivist approaches which fail to take into account the "non-strategic, relatively uncontrolled, and virtually untraceable mental processes" (Kiraly, 2000, p. 3) involved in learning. He claims an important role for intuition in the learning activity, which he describes as having a feel for accuracy, appropriateness and correctness, and acknowledges that intuition cannot be consciously accounted for precisely because it resides for the most part in the sub-conscious. (Varney 2009: 29)

According to J. Varney (2009), D. Kiraly (2000) insists that his constructivist stance be read as social constructivist through his strong emphasis on teamwork and collaboration.

In emphasising the social element in constructivism, Kiraly, for his part, rejects the self-world duality, affirming that thought processes and social processes are mutually dependent. The social, inter-subjective nature of meaning, thought and the mind provides the framework for his specific social constructivist approach to translator education; indeed, Kiraly clearly states that learning is mutually constructive between the individual, the social, and the cultural and physical environment and asserts that learning is thus a function of situation. (Varney 2009: 29)

J. Varney (2009) points out that D. Kiraly's approach can be found at odds with other models of education that emphasize the social influence on individual learning. She makes mention of T. Fenwick's (2001) enactivist position and claims that D. Kiraly's view of learning *through* experience and T. Fenwick's learning *in* experience can potentially be seen as divergent. Yet, J. Varney (2009) observes that to see these two stances as divergent, one has to read D. Kiraly (2000) as distinguishing between experience and learning as separated phenomena, while for T. Fenwick (2001), experience and learning are just one thing. J. Varney (2009: 29) concludes that "in the final analysis, the apparent contention between enactivism and Kiraly's social constructivism may be more a question of lexical choice than a fundamental difference in belief systems."

We agree fully with the above conclusion, and this is for two main reasons. Firstly, learning *through* experience and learning *in* experience do not contradict each other. It is rather that different ways of understanding

experience are evoked. Learning *through* experience suggests the way in which new knowledge is built, which happens *in* the context of the already experienced and (re)constructed reality. Subscribing to only one of the above-mentioned perspectives probably implies a static understanding of experience.

Secondly, D. Kiraly's (2000) line of argument for the book read as a whole makes us assume that D. Kiraly had no intention of postulating the contradiction between learning *in* or *through* experience. We are prone to believe that the integrative, dynamic view of experience serves as a more accurate interpretation of his thought.

J. Varney's (2009) discussion concerning D. Kiraly's definition of the empowered social constructivist translation classroom leads to the conclusion that D. Kiraly has successfully merged a number of theoretical positions and his own didactic experience into a relatively consistent model for T&I didactics, even though some questions about the theories he makes reference to remain open:

> In the final analysis, Kiraly's premise that empowered, autonomous learners construct meaning may come under fire from critics requiring a more convincingly situated approach, but in terms of translator education, it is currently the most *viable* approach. (Varney 2009: 33)

J. Varney's (2009) final judgment of D. Kiraly's (2000) conception of empowered T&I education is positive, even though she finds some of its theoretical premises worth further explanation or clarification. Thus even though critical in her analyses, J. Varney confirms the pedagogical advantages of D. Kiraly's (2000) approach. This confirmation is strengthened by a case study she provides in the latter part of her article.

In his short article entitled "Translator Training," A. Pym (2009a) presents his views on the *status quo* of contemporary T&I education. He discusses the achievements and challenges in T&I educational research and practice. Part of his text is devoted to a critique of D. Kiraly's (2000) approach, which A. Pym finds largely questionable.

> Kiraly's grand dichotomies can be questioned on several fronts. The categories do not always line up, since the learning of a narrow set of skills can be as constructivist as any interactive education, and non-transmissionist translation principles can be conveyed in a lecture. Further, there are many different ways of applying constructivism in the classroom, and not every non-transmissionist teacher will go so far

> as to allow students to choose their own source texts and methods of
> evaluation. As for peer collaboration as a work ethic, it matches poorly
> with the many professional situations based on hierarchies. More gener-
> ally, the student-centred approach of social constructivism belongs to
> an educational philosophy of the 1960s, making it standard fare in some
> countries and putting it on a collision course with the current ideologies
> of planned competence-based teaching. (Pym 2009a: 7–8)

Let us start with a remark that A. Pym (2009a) is very insightful and
informative. It does not only allow to look at D. Kiraly's (2000) proposals
from a more critical position than J. Varney's (2009), but it also high-
lights a number of current dilemmas – theoretical and practical – that
contemporary T&I education faces. We would like to address four main
points by A. Pym (2009a) in the fragment quoted above. Each of these
points is devoted a separate subsection below.

6.1. Constructivist education can be substituted with any kind of interactive education

In this subsection, we would like to focus on A. Pym's (2009a: 7) state-
ment that "the learning of a narrow set of skills can be as constructivist as
any interactive education." To analyse this argument, let us reformulate
it to read as follows: *as long as (T&I) education resigns from the transmis-
sionist principles, it can rely on a whole range of approaches that can be
put on a par with social constructivism*. If our reformulation is correct,
we can claim that A. Pym and D. Kiraly agree at least on one point: there
is no space for transmissionism in the T&I classroom. At the same time,
it must be observed that A. Pym's (2009a) understanding of education,
constructivism or transmissionism seems to be conceptually confined
to the level of classroom methodology.[48] When A. Pym uses concepts
like *constructivist* or *interactive education*, he seems to have particular
types of *classroom practices* in mind. Under this view, *constructivist
education* can be seen as an option to *interactive education*, or, in fact any
other classroom organization that is non-transmissionist. Seen from this

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48 This interpretation can be further supported by the view by P. Kirschner (2009)
that constructivism is often understood in two ways: as an epistemology and as
a methodology. In fact, P. Kirschner (2009) discusses problems in employing con-
structivist epistemology as constructivist pedagogy. The scope of this monograph
does not allow us to discuss his text in detail, yet the issues and problems he signals
are at least partly addressed in our monograph.

perspective, A. Pym's (2009a) criticism seems to boil down to an observation that the list of classroom practices presented in D. Kiraly (2000) is too short or too narrowly concentrated around to the idea of social construction of knowledge through collaborative work.

The problem is, however, that A. Pym's (2009a) understanding of the concepts in question – provided our interpretation is correct – ignores completely their epistemological aspect. This conceptually impoverished understanding is unacceptable with reference to D. Kiraly's (2000) use of the terms like education or constructivism. D. Kiraly (2000) makes it clear that apart from his own educational experience, his approach is constructed on the particular epistemological premises. All in all, it is social constructivist epistemology that provides him with argumentation against transmissionism – understood in terms of an epistemological position as well. In consequence, A. Pym's (2009a) conceptual reduction, which deprived the concepts of education and constructivism of their epistemological aspect, is invalid. In this sense, it is not true that constructivist education can be substituted by any kind of interactive education. For an approach like D. Kiraly's (2000), any kind of educational methodology, including interactive education, needs to be anchored in social constructivist epistemology.

Let us also add here a short critical comment about A. Pym's (2009a: 8, also see quotation above) vision of T&I education as "learning a narrow set of skills." A. Pym might be referring to his minimalist definition of translation competence (see *e.g.* Pym 2003 and the discussion on this text in Chapter 1 above), but the view of T&I education this phrase betrays is hardly holistic. One of the main points made in D. Kiraly (2000) is that T&I education can be better off thinking about its objectives and methods in a holistic, integrative way, and not in terms of particular skills to master – a topic discussed in section 3 above in this chapter.

6.2. Scalability of the constructivist approach to T&I education

This subsection addresses A. Pym's (2009a) observation that:

> […] there are many different ways of applying constructivism in the classroom, and not every non-transmissionist teacher will go so far as to allow students to choose their own source texts and methods of evaluation. (Pym 2009a: 7–8)

D. Kiraly's own experience of applying the collaborative method and his dedication to "relinquishing control over the learning environment to the students themselves" (Kiraly 2000: 68) can be read as radical, and it seems it is too radical for A. Pym. Still, in our view, D. Kiraly's intention is to use his educationist's experience as evidence in favour of his theoretical stance. We are not aware of any fragment of D. Kiraly (2000) where he would claim that teachers have no choice as regards the extent to which they decide to pass control to students in particular classroom situations. Hence, D. Kiraly's (2000) insistence on collaboration does not signal a deterministic, reductionist view, under which T&I education is either totally collaborative and under full students' control, or is not empowering.

Consequently, we disagree with A. Pym's (2009a) interpretation of D. Kiraly's (2000) approach to T&I education as deterministically reliant on collaboration and students' control over learning. D. Kiraly (2000) definitely highlights these two aspects and insists on their being crucial educational guidelines. Yet, reading these ideas in a deterministic fashion hardly goes well with the general relativist, social constructivist background of his proposals. As no one can directly make students learn, no one can expect teachers pass control over learning to students unless they decide to – in a way and to the degree they deem advantageous.

At the same time, A. Pym's (2009a) criticism exhibits the fact that D. Kiraly's (2000) idea of student control over learning can be easily misunderstood, which may in turn suggest a need for its clarification. Since we find this issue critical, we discuss it in sections 2.2 and 2.3 in Chapter 7.

6.3. Collaboration as a work ethic

In this subsection, we discuss A. Pym's (2009a) argument in which he objects to D. Kiraly's (2000) view that the collaborative T&I classroom prepares adequately for the needs of professional performance.

> As for peer collaboration as a work ethic, it matches poorly with the many professional situations based on hierarchies. (Pym 2009a: 8)

On the one hand, we agree with A. Pym that collaboration in educational and professional contexts is perhaps a more problematic issue than it can be inferred from the extremely positive picture drawn by D. Kiraly (2000). Let us exemplify our claim with our own past experience

as a translator working for an LSP. When working on a relatively large text, distributed among seven co-translators, we asked the LSP for contact data of the translators involved in the process in order to communicate and cooperate our efforts. My request was rejected as threatening to the general policy of the LSP, under which contact was only allowed via the LSP office. This mode of communication hardly made sense, as too slow and ineffective. As a result, instead of one text, the LSP got seven pieces of text. The later fate of this project remains unknown to us. This, and other similar professional experiences make us ready to admit that in lots of professional contexts, collaboration can be regarded by some stakeholders in the translation market as a source of power in the hand of the translators, and, in consequence, it can be interpreted as a threat.

Notwithstanding the above, a question arises to what extent facts like the one evoked above should influence the choice of collaboration as a T&I educational strategy. In fact, the question is more general in nature: should we train translators/interpreters to accept and adapt to policies like the ones described in the example from our own professional experience? Or, alternatively, do we want them to be able to make self-regulated (self-directed) decisions if they want to be part of this or that hierarchical environment, and why?

The alternative marked by these two questions is vital. The former option is governed by the underlying narrative of academic education being responsible for *producing/releasing* qualified (certified) human resources in such a way that they meet the *demands of the market* (employability becomes a paramount educational standard). The latter option is that education helps particular people develop personal resources in order that they willingly (axiology) and effectively (empowerment) interact with the world we live in – including its professional dimension.

It is perhaps obvious that an approach to T&I education like D. Kiraly's (2000) – and the one we advocate in this monograph – adopts the latter educational option. In consequence, empowered graduates of T&I programmes are expected to be critical-reflexive individuals, who are able to decide whether they want to adapt to the rules of particular hierarchical contexts or not. They also are able to choose if to rely on the synergy affected by collaboration.

This last remark refers us back to the main problem we analyse in this subsection. One can observe that A. Pym's (2009a) criticism towards

collaboration as a work ethics is based on the assumption that if students are trained in a predominantly collaborative fashion, their ability to act individually is undermined. But to make such an assumption, A. Pym must ignore the social constructivist profile of D. Kiraly's (2000) proposals. D. Kiraly never abandons his view of knowledge being constructed by individuals, despite his emphasis that these construction efforts are more effective thanks to a collaborative approach to task realization.

To conclude, A. Pym's (2009a) reservations concerning D. Kiraly's (2000) insistence on maximizing the use of collaborative work in the T&I classroom do not make D. Kiraly's approach questionable. We find no grounds for interpreting D. Kiraly's insistence on collaboration in terms of monopolizing the classroom space. In fact, we are ready to claim that D. Kiraly's (2000) reliance on collaboration is worth expanding onto other aspects of T&I education than *e.g.* real-life collaborative translation projects. In this monograph, we advocate collaboration as a principle that enables sharing of the T&I classroom and curriculum between all the stakeholders of the T&I educational process.

6.4. Problems with the student-centred approach

A. Pym (2009a) disapproves of D. Kiraly's (2000) reliance on the idea of student-centred education.

> More generally, the student-centred approach of social constructivism belongs to an educational philosophy of the 1960s, making it standard fare in some countries and putting it on a collision course with the current ideologies of planned competence-based teaching (Pym 2009a: 8)

We partly share A. Pym's (2009a) reservations concerning the concept of a student-centred approach to education, yet our reasons for criticism differ from A. Pym's. We have briefly outlined our critical remarks in Chapter 2, section 5 above, and we also address this problem in Chapter 7.

The short fragment from A. Pym (2009a) quoted above can be interpreted in a number of ways, and we find it necessary to present all of them to be able to discuss A. Pym's criticism in detail. Under one interpretation, A. Pym can be read as suggesting that the idea of student-centred education is outdated ("belongs to an educational philosophy of the 1960s," see quotation above). However, this view is at tangent with a trend emergent in T&I education since the mid-1990s (see section 1 in

this chapter for references and discussion) and noticeable also in later works like D. Kelly (2005, 2008) that sees the student-centred metaphor repeatedly evoked. It seems, thus, that apart from D. Kiraly (2000), also other authors in the domain of T&I education found the idea inspiring.

Perhaps another reading of A. Pym could be that the idea of student-centred education is questionable for him as accepted only in some cultures ("standard fare in some countries"), and hard to implement in others. If this interpretation is what A. Pym intended, the question arises if the fact that a stance on the nature of learning is hard to accept in certain cultural conditions truly undermines it as it stands. In our view, the answer is negative, even though we admit that cultural factors may hugely negatively influence the practical application of ideas like student-centred education.

Finally, the third interpretation that comes into mind is that D. Kiraly's (2000) reliance on the student-centred approach to education is criticised by A. Pym for its being in conflict with contemporary T&I educational ideas and practices. Assuming we are right in our interpretation of the fragment at hand, we must observe that A. Pym (2009a) seems to ignore the fact that it is D. Kiraly's (2000) intention to *object* to a lot of teaching practices of the time. What is more, his works published after 2000 also exhibit his criticism of some current T&I educational ideologies. For example, D. Kiraly appeals continuously for empowering T&I education by allowing more and more autonomous and accountable participation of students in real-life translation projects (*e.g.* Kiraly 2008, 2009, 2012, 2013a or 2013b). He highlights a need to reflect on T&I curricula in a holistic fashion, where students are prepared not only for academic or professional, but also for individual, social and cultural functioning (Kiraly 2008, 2009). Also, worth mentioning are his works where he employs the notion of fractal structure of the world and fractal geometry to show that education cannot see the world in the objectivist optics (Kiraly 2012, 2013a). All these contributions are intended to voice D. Kiraly's dissatisfaction with the fact that contemporary I/T educational ideologies and practices often fail to provide advantageous environments for learning and growth. What is more, he pinpoints that this failure is not because the T&I educational ideas are ineffectively put into practice *e.g.* for organizational or cultural reasons. The real problem is that a lot of these ideas tend to ignore the epistemological aspect

underlying the learning process, while a lot of T&I education theorists and practitioners seem unready to open to an educational perspective that is broader than "learning a narrow set of skills" (Pym 2009a: 7).

In the light of the above, A. Pym's (2009a) argument that D. Kiraly's (2000) approach is questionable since it is at tangent with the predominant T&I educational narratives of today leads to a kind of vicious circle. Of course, A. Pym has a full right to entirely disagree with D. Kiraly, yet this fact does not grant sufficient support to the view that D. Kiraly's approach is untenable. The arguments he used can indeed show that D. Kiraly's (2000) view of education can be difficult to implement, but there is nothing in A. Pym's (2009a) exposition of ideas to undermine it *per se.*

To round up this presentation of D. Kiraly's seminal work on empowered translator education (Kiraly 2000), we list three major ideas that we adopt from this and his other works as pivotal for further discussion in this monograph:

1. Notion of empowered T&I education (holistic, integrative and transformative);
2. Interactive nature of knowledge construction;
3. Task-based classroom interaction.

Together with the anthropocentric social constructivist epistemological stance developed in Chapter 2 above, these three educational ideas are our reference points for the rest of this book. In the next two chapters, we are going to seek further grounding and support for our line of argument among selected researchers of education. Apart from the more general findings about how people learn, especially when they grow to become adults, we are interested in how theories of education look at the relations that obtain in educational contexts. Finally, we also explore the conditions that need to be met for these relations to facilitate learning throughout a lifetime.

Selected theories of education
and their relevance for T&I education

The previous chapters of this work made repeated references to educational ideas that have been inspirational to numerous researchers and practitioners in T&I education. Situated learning, student-centred education or teacher as a facilitator are among the multitude of concepts that were developed in the field of theory of learning and education and then incorporated into T&I educational thought. In this chapter, our aim is to convince the reader that contemporary T&I education can benefit considerably from expanding its insight into theories of education and learning even more. This chapter does not discuss each and every theory of education that has had, or can potentially have its impact on how education is conceived of and practiced. Our choice of theories relates directly and is conditioned by the epistemological assumptions we have made as well as by the choice of issues that we find central in our argumentation in this monograph.

Apart from the above-mentioned aim of this chapter, we are also going to seek support for the educational ideas presented above and for the educational proposals we put forward in the later part of this monograph. Hence, to organize our text in a comprehensible way, we put the main emphasis in this chapter on the divide between learning as *dependent* on schooling/teaching/instruction and learning as *empowered* by teaching.

The choice of the other ideas discussed in this chapter is a corollary of the fundamental contrast in approaching education signalled above. One such idea is adult education, which we use as a background for some of the educational solutions proposed later in our own text. Let us add briefly that adulthood is understood here as a developmental stage; one

that is never absolute, final or complete, and one that continually calls for further developmental actions. Following scholars like M. Knowles or J. Mezirow, we adhere to the viewpoint that adulthood and learning are inseparable. Consequently, we argue that T&I education needs to support students' and teachers' adulthood, since it is only adult learners who can face satisfactorily the challenges of their future life, including professional performance.

The final part of this chapter is devoted to yet another concept which builds our own vision of effective translation education: interpersonal relations in the T&I classroom. Again, we refer to three researchers of learning and education (K. Gergen, U. Ostrowska and C. Rogers) to seek support for the claim that effective T&I education needs to rely on interpersonal relations as key to making learning a meaningful and authentic component of the lives of students and teachers.

1. Pedagogy vs. andragogy

One of the significant evolutions in Western understanding of learning concerns the problem of the ability of adults to learn. When this question was answered positively, researchers started to reflect upon the way in which adults learn. The idea of learning by adults had often been questioned by education theorists, and it was no sooner than E. Thorndike's *Adult Learning* (1928) that the myth was openly challenged. However, opening the world of education for adults led to the question if adult learners needed to be defined as distinct group from children and adolescent learners. E. Lindeman answers this question in his seminal work *The Meaning of Adult Education* (1926).

> Our academic system has grown in reverse order: subjects and teachers constitute the starting point, students are secondary. In conventional education the student is required to adjust himself to an established curriculum; in adult education the curriculum is built around the student's needs and interests. Every adult person finds himself in specific situations with respect to his work, his recreation, his family life, his community life, etc.—situations which call for adjustments. Adult education begins at this point. Subject matter is bought into the situation, is put to work, when needed. Texts and teachers play a new and secondary role in this type of education; they must give way to the primary importance

of the learners. […] The resource of highest value in adult education is the learner's experience. If education is life, then life is also education. Too much of learning consists of vicarious substitution of someone else's experience and knowledge. […] Small groups of aspiring adults who desire to keep their minds fresh and vigorous, who begin to learn by confronting pertinent situations, who dig down into the reservoirs of their experience before resorting to texts and secondary facts, who are led in the discussion by teachers who are also searchers after wisdom and not oracles: this constitutes the setting for adult education, the modern quest for life's meaning. (Lindeman 1926: 8–11, as quoted in Knowles *et al.* [1973] 2005: 37)

One could say that the programme E. Lindeman outlined in the fragment quoted above does not differ much from some contemporary proposals discussed previously in this monograph. Yet, E. Lindeman's programme, expressed as early as the beginning of the 20th century, remains largely an undone lesson today. That this is so in T&I education is argued by authors like D. Kiraly (Kiraly 2000 and later), who claims that the educational struggle between transmission or instruction-based education on the one side and experiential, empowering knowledge construction on the other is still going on.[49] As for our text, we have been trying to show that at least some current conceptions of translation competence can be regarded as representative of an objectivist epistemological approach to T&I education.

E. Lindeman was among many researchers who influenced the thought of M. Knowles. This American scholar argued that the way in which children learn should be seen as conceptually distinct from how adults learn. This observation made him postulate the conceptual divide between *child learning/education* (pedagogy) and *adult learning/*

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49 See our discussion of D. Kiraly's works in Chapter 3, section 6.4 above. Let us add that D. Kiraly is not convinced that his model he proposed in D. Kiraly (2000) and that the ideas he presented in his later works such as D. Kiraly (2006, 2008, 2009, 2012, 2013a or 2013b) have changed the predominant objectivist narrative in T&I education, even though if his model is well-recognized in the literature of the field (On the basis of our private conversation held on 10 October 2013 during the MCCTE conference in Kraków). Also see M. González Davies (2004) for a similar view and other authors like P. Kirschner (2009), who points out that the struggle between the educational narrative of instruction (institutional teaching and certification) and that of knowledge construction (learning for individual growth and social development) continues.

education (andragogy). Although terminologically the distinction had already been known before M. Knowles, he was the first to develop a comprehensive conceptual background for the theory of adult learning and education.

M. Knowles' seminal work on adult education (Knowles[50] *et al.* [1973] 2005) begins with the following observation:

> Until fairly recently, there has been relatively little thinking, investigating, and writing about adult learning. This is a curious fact considering that the education of adults has been a concern of the human race for such a long time. Yet, for many years, the adult learner was indeed a neglected species. The lack of research in this field is especially surprising in view of the fact that all the great teachers of ancient times—Confucius and Lao Tse of China; the Hebrew prophets and Jesus in Biblical times; Aristotle, Socrates, and Plato in ancient Greece; and Cicero, Evelid, and Quintillian in ancient Rome—were teachers of adults, not of children. Because their experiences were with adults, they developed a very different concept of the learning/teaching process from the one that later dominated formal education. These notable teachers perceived learning to be a process of mental inquiry, not passive reception of transmitted content. [...] (Knowles *et al.* [1973] 2005: 35)

This short excerpt exhibits M. Knowles' rejection of transmissionism as an educational idea and practice, and highlights the primacy of experience for knowledge construction.

M. Knowles summarizes E. Lindeman's (1926) educational proposals providing a list of five features that define adult education:

1. Adults are motivated to learn as they experience needs and interests that learning will satisfy.
2. Adults' orientation to learning is life-centered.
3. Experience is the richest source for adult's learning.
4. Adults have a deep need to be self-directing.
5. Individual differences among people increase with age. (M. Knowles *et al.* [1973] 2005: 40)

E. Lindeman's (1926) ideas are employed by M. Knowles to make a basis for his own comparative classification of child vs. adult learning (pedagogy vs. andragogy).

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50 The first exposition of M. Knowles' idea of andragogy is to be found in M. Knowles (1970).

Table 6. Comparison of the principles of child and adult learning (based on Knowles *et al.* [1973] 2005: 62–68)

Pedagogy	Andragogy
1. The need to know	
Learners only need to know that they must learn what the teacher teaches if they want to pass and get promoted; they do not need to know how what they learn will apply to their lives.	Adults need to know why they need to learn something before undertaking to learn it. Tough (1979)[51] found that when adults undertake to learn something on their own, they will invest considerable energy in probing into the benefits they will gain from learning it and the negative consequences of not learning it. Consequently, one of the new aphorisms in adult education is that the first task of the facilitator of learning is to help the learners become aware of the "need to know." At the very least, facilitators can make an intellectual case for the value of the learning in improving the effectiveness of the learners' performance or the quality of their lives. Even more potent tools for raising the level of awareness of the need to know are real or simulated experiences in which the learners discover for themselves the gaps between where they are now and where they want to be. […]
2. The learner's self-concept	
The teacher's concept of the learner is that of a dependent personality; therefore, the learner's self-concept eventually becomes that of a dependent personality.	Adults have a self-concept of being responsible for their own decisions, for their own lives. Once they have arrived at that self-concept, they develop a deep psychological need to be seen by others and treated by others as being capable of self-direction. […] The minute adults walk into an activity labeled "education," "training," or anything synonymous, they hark back to their conditioning in their previous school experience, put on their dunce hats of dependency, fold their arms, sit back, and say "teach me."

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51 A. Tough (1979) is a second edition of the original A. Tough (1971). See references for detail.

	This assumption of required dependency and the facilitator's subsequent treatment of adult students as children creates a conflict within them between their intellectual model—learner equals dependent—and the deeper, perhaps subconscious, psychological need to be self-directing. And the typical method of dealing with psychological conflict is to try to flee from the situation causing it, which probably accounts in part for the high dropout rate in much voluntary adult education. As adult educators become aware of this problem, they make efforts to create learning experiences in which adults are helped to make the transition from dependent to self-directing learners.
3. The role of experience	
The learner's experience is of little worth as a resource for learning; the experience that counts is that of the teacher, the textbook writer, and the audiovisual aids producer. Therefore, transmittal techniques (e.g., lectures, assigned readings, etc.) are the backbone of pedagogical methodology.	Adults come into an educational activity with both a greater volume and a different quality of experience from that of youths. By virtue of simply having lived longer, they have accumulated more experience than they had as youths. But they also have had a different kind of experience. […] Hence, greater emphasis in adult education is placed on individualization of teaching and learning strategies. It also means that for many kinds of learning, the richest resources for learning reside in the adult learners themselves. […] There is another, more subtle reason for emphasizing the experience of the learners; it has to do with each learner's self-identity. […] To children, experience is something that happens to them; to adults, experience is who they are. The implication of this fact for adult education is that in any situation in which the participants' experiences are ignored or devalued, adults will perceive this as rejecting not only their experience, but rejecting themselves as persons.

4. Readiness to learn	
Learners become ready to learn what the teacher tells them they must learn if they want to pass and get promoted.	Adults become ready to learn those things they need to know and be able to do in order to cope effectively with their real-life situations. An especially rich source of "readiness to learn" is the developmental tasks associated with moving from one developmental stage to the next. […]
5. Orientation to learning	
Learners have a subject-centered orientation to learning; they see learning as acquiring subject-matter content. Therefore, learning experiences are organized according to the logic of the subject-matter content.	In contrast to children's and youths' subject-centered orientation to learning (at least in school), adults are life-centered (or task-centered or problem-centered) in their orientation to learning. Adults are motivated to learn to the extent that they perceive that learning will help them perform tasks or deal with problems that they confront in their life situations. Furthermore, they learn new knowledge, understandings, skills, values, and attitudes most effectively when they are presented in the context of application to real-life situations.
6. Motivation	
Learners are motivated to learn by external motivators (e.g., grades, the teacher's approval or disapproval, parental pressures).	Adults are responsive to some external motivators (better jobs, promotions, higher salaries, and the like), but the most potent motivators are internal pressures (the desire for increased job satisfaction, self-esteem, quality of life, and the like). Tough (1979) found in his research that all normal adults are motivated to keep growing and developing, but this motivation is frequently blocked by such barriers as negative self-concept as a student, inaccessibility of opportunities or resources, time constraints, and programs that violate principles of adult learning.

When we browse through the six main point of divergence between how children and how adults learn, as assumed by M. Knowles (1970), we can

easily see how much they influenced later thinking about education, especially academic T&I education. We can see how much educational conceptions such as social constructivism, empowerment, student-centred learning, experience-based learning or situated translator education owe to the research by M. Knowles and by other andragogists. Let us briefly discuss a selection of details in Table 6 above, since they hugely inform our discussion in the rest of this monograph.

Firstly, it can be inferred from point 2 in Table 6 above that adult learning is not conditioned by adult age. M. Knowles' adult learner is a person who has integrated his/her learning experience within his/her other domains of life experience (work, personal life, *etc.*). If this integration fails, adults are likely to behave like adolescent or child learners (*cf.* Klimkowski, Klimkowska 2012, discussed in Chapter 3, section 4 above).

Secondly, M. Knowles takes a stance similar to L. Vygotsky's view that human development can be facilitated educationally (Zone of Proximal Development). Consequently, under this view, facilitating a transformation from an adolescent (young adult) learner towards an adult learner becomes a necessary part of reflection and practice in the field of education. In our view, this stance also holds good for T&I education.

Thirdly, M. Knowles' vision of adult education touches upon the problem of how learning relates to building the learner's self-identity. Adult learners are motivated by their personal experience and identity; in contrast to child learners, who – according to M. Knowles – tend to engage in learning in order to satisfy their teachers' or parents' expectations. Experience is what helps a person define his/her self. Consequently, education that fails to empower adult learner experiences, or disempowers it – as is the case with transmissionism – constitutes a serious threat to the development of the learner's self-identity. As a result, adult learners are not likely to engage into education that rejects his/her experience and needs.

Although the need for education to cater for students' construction of their self-identity and self-image has been signalled in T&I education literature (*e.g.* González Davies 2004, Kelly 2005, Kiraly 2000 or Moser-Mercer 2008), M. Knowles' observations can be used in support for these claims from the position of education studies. In fact, M. Knowles views allow us to make a further claim that T&I education needs to be regarded as adult education if it is to provide a holistic developmental environment for the T&I students.

Another issue signalled by M. Knowles, which is worth discussing here is the divide between learning with a "subject-centred orientation," where learning means "acquiring subject-matter content," and learning with a life-centred, task-centred or problem-centred orientation (see Table 6, point 5 above). M. Knowles' views in this respect correspond well with our claim, made in Chapter 2, section 5, that educational content is an idea that needs to be substituted in T&I educational narratives by the concept of educational task. It is also clear that for M. Knowles, task-centred learning is not one in which the teacher makes the students attain his/her, or institutional ideological objectives, but one in which part of the educational process consists in helping students construct their own educational objectives – despite the fact that most of them are likely to be determined by their classroom or project environment (scaffolding).

The last point to highlight among the long list of M. Knowles' ideas presented above concerns motivation and motivational barriers. It is interesting to note that M. Knowles makes a distinction between the child learner, who is predominantly motivated by his/her environment, and the adult learner, who tends to rely more on his/her personality as *locus of control* (*cf.* Rotter 1966) in order to perform in the real world. Also crucial for our monograph is M. Knowles' concept of motivational barrier. Following a study by A. Tough ([1971] 1979), M. Knowles lists a number of factors that make adult learners refrain from performing, with negative self-concept being the first problem on the list. We are of the opinion that the operational barrier which we postulated when discussing the criticism of the transmissionist T&I classroom (Chapter 3, section 1), also has its motivational consequences for the students. The students who are exposed to such barriers are less likely to make independent translation/interpreting decisions, since their motivation to do so is thwarted by their expectation that the teacher will finally make this decision for them. The students also lack stimulation that could underlie their accountable, authentic translational action, since they feel such an action has no chance of bringing them the sense of attainment (success in task realization).

The whole problem of student motivation has been extensively discussed by theorists and practitioners of learning and education. One of the most extensive studies devoted to that issue is Z. Dörnyei (2001). A central issue pinpointed in this work is the extrinsic/intrinsic

dichotomy, which relates to the well-known psychological and philosophical dilemma concerning the nature of factors that explain why humans act in certain circumstances, while refuse to act in others. It perhaps is evident that constructivist approaches to education tend to favour a view under which motivation of a constructivist learner is intrinsic rather than extrinsic (see *e.g.* Miller, Seller 1985, as quoted in Kiraly 2000: 21 and discussed above in Chapter 3, section 3).

The view of learner motivation we adopt in this monograph differs from the contrastive view of J. Miller, W. Seller (1985). Under the anthropocentric epistemological profile we decided to adopt here, we suggest an integrative approach to the issue of human motivation. This integrative view assumes that motivation – as a human attribute, and as a function of the human brain – is always anthropocentrically intrinsic (in a way parallel to knowledge and knowledge construction). Yet, intrinsically motivated (anthropocentrically constructed) human behaviours are usually actuated as human reactions (more or less conscious) to extrinsic stimuli. In this way, as in the case of knowledge construction, we can integrate the individual and the social aspect of why people engage into action or abstain from it. Our approach seems necessary if knowledge and attitude construction are to be understood in terms of educational objectives in the anthropocentric social constructivist T&I classroom.

To exemplify how our integrated approach to learner motivation can influence T&I educational practice, let us consider the concept of translation project deadline. In terms of its motivating function, a deadline can be considered an extrinsic stimulus for the translator's intrinsic motivation to manage his/her work in such a way as to meet the deadline. However, for this situation to take place, this translator needs to have constructed an intrinsic motivational mechanism, thanks to which he can react to extrinsic stimuli by means of taking action rather than *e.g.* procrastinating or ignoring the deadline. Seen in this way, the educational strategy to help students develop time management techniques can be used to enhance their intrinsic motivation capital. What is more, managing intrinsic motivation can be claimed to be a meta-cognitive skill and a vital component of what B. Moser-Mercer (2008) refers to as self-regulation, and what M. Knowles calls self-direction. In contrast, a translator who fails to develop intrinsic motivational resources

is very likely to react to external stimuli which he interprets as adverse (*e.g.* time constraints, or unexpected problems in project implementation) with distress, sense of helplessness and decision-making paralysis (*cf.* Fraser 1996).

The issue of constructing and managing student motivation surfaces as an important factor in our proposals for T&I education made later in this monograph. For example, in our view, a greater reliance of T&I educationists on non-formal educational initiatives to enrich or expand the formal curriculum can help students situate the construction of their intrinsic motivation through engagement in projects outside the curriculum.

2. J. Bruner's expository and hypothetical modes of teaching

M. Knowles' division into pedagogy and andragogy – as learning styles – corresponds closely to a distinction developed by J. Bruner between the *expository* and the *hypothetical* styles of teaching.

> In the former, the decisions concerning the mode and pace and style of exposition are principally determined by the teacher as expositor; the student is the listener. If I can put the matter in terms of structural linguistics, the speaker has a quite different set of decisions to make than the listener: the former has a wide choice of alternatives for structuring, he is anticipating paragraph content while the listener is still intent on the words, he is manipulating the content of the material by various transformations, while the listener is quite unaware of these internal manipulations. In the hypothetical mode, the teacher and the student are in a more cooperative position with respect to what in linguistics would be called "speaker's decisions." The student is not a bench-bound listener, but is taking a part in the formulation and at times may play the principal role in it. He will be aware of alternatives and may even have an "as if" attitude toward these and, as he receives information he may evaluate it as it comes. (Bruner [1961] 2006: 58)

For J. Bruner, the pivotal advantage of the hypothetical model is that it helps students fulfil their need for learning, which is a natural human trait ("will to learn," *cf.* Bruner [1966] 2006). The expository model, on the other hand, often curtails this natural human predilection. Hence, according to J. Bruner, changing the teaching model from expository to

hypothetical is a key solution to unlock the students' learning potential. J. Bruner mentions four aspects of learning enhanced by the hypothetical model of teaching:

> (1) The increase in intellectual potency, (2) the shift from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards, (3) learning the heuristics of discovering, and (4) the aid to memory processing. (Bruner [1961] 2006: 58)

The increase of intellectual potency is a result of students' active knowledge construction, which, according to J. Bruner, is always related to problem-solving:

> I would urge now in the spirit of an hypothesis that emphasis upon discovery in learning has precisely the effect upon the learner of leading him to be a constructionist, to organize what he is encountering in a manner not only designed to discover regularity and relatedness, but also to avoid the kind of information drift that fails to keep account of the uses to which information might have to be put. It is, if you will, a necessary condition for learning the variety of techniques of problem solving, of transforming information for better use, indeed for learning how to go about the very task of learning. Practice in discovering for oneself teaches one to acquire information in a way that makes that information more readily viable in problem solving. (Bruner [1961] 2006: 60)

The concept of learning as a *heuristic discovery* is one of the landmarks of J. Bruner's educational thought. It is this heuristic nature of learner's knowledge construction that led J. Bruner to call his model hypothetical. The notion of heuristic discovery and hypothetical learning are of crucial importance for T&I education, as they pertain to a key aspect of the translator's work: decision-making. However, the notion of heuristic learning can hardly be an attractive option for an educational environment relying on expository teaching, with the teacher's executing educational procedures to gain educational effects. J. Bruner is aware of a persistent conflict or a paradox of schooling vs. learning:

> In consequence of all this the problem of "the will to learn" becomes important, indeed exaggerated. Let us not delude ourselves: it is a problem that cannot be avoided, though it can be made manageable, I think. We shall explore what kinds of factors lead to satisfaction in "educated" learning, to pleasure in the practice of learning as it exists in the necessarily artificial atmosphere of the school. (Bruner [1966] 2006: 115)

Hence, the role of the teacher is to empower hypothetical, discovery-driven learning despite evident deficiencies of the educational settings of the school or the university. A need for hypothetical learning at the academic level is not only supported by the argument of facilitating learning as such. Hypothetical learning can also be more advantageous for emerging adult learners and for emerging professionals in the domain of translation.[52]

When discussing J. Bruner's conception, M. Knowles makes reference to a study by N. Postman, C. Weingartner (1969), who developed a profile of a teacher showing preference for the hypothetical approach to education.

- The teacher rarely tells students what he thinks they ought to know. He believes that telling, when used as a basic teaching strategy, deprives students of the excitement of doing their own finding and of the opportunity for increasing their power as learners.
- His basic mode of discourse with students is questioning. […] He emphatically does not view questions as a means of seducing students into parroting the text or syllabus; rather, he sees questions as instruments to open engaged minds to unsuspected possibilities.
- Generally, he does not accept a single statement as an answer to a question. In fact, he has a persisting aversion to anyone, any syllabus, any text that offers The Right Answer. Not because answers and solutions are unwelcome—indeed, he is trying to help students be more efficient problem solvers—but because he knows how often The Right Answer serves only to terminate further thought.
- He encourages student/student interaction as opposed to student/teacher interaction. And generally he avoids acting as a mediator or judge of the quality of ideas expressed. […] The inquiry teacher is interested in students developing their own criteria or standards for judging the quality, precision, and relevance of ideas.
- He rarely summarizes the positions taken by students on the learnings that occur. He recognizes that the act of summary, of "closure," tends to have the effect of ending further thought. Because he

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52 Let us remark here that while M. Knowles' distinguishes two styles of learning for developmental reasons, J. Bruner's divide does not rest on the child–adult divide. In this sense, his distinction between expository and hypothetical education is 'universal.' While for M. Knowles pedagogy is an acceptable style of learning for children, J. Bruner is openly against the expository approach to education irrespective of the developmental stage.

regards learning as a process, not a terminal event, his "summaries" are apt to be stated as hypotheses, tendencies, and directions. He assumes that no one ever learns once and for all how to write, or how to read, or what were the causes of the Civil War. Rather, he assumes that one is always in the process of acquiring skills, assimilating new information, formulating or refining generalizations. […]

- His lessons develop from the responses of students and not from a previously determined "logical" structure. The only kind of lesson plan, or syllabus, that makes sense to him is one that tries to predict, account for, and deal with the authentic responses of learners to a particular problem: the kinds of questions they will ask, the obstacles they will face, their attitudes, the possible solutions they will offer, and soon. Thus, he is rarely frustrated or inconvenienced by "wrong answers," false starts, irrelevant directions. These are the stuff of which his best lessons and opportunities are made. In short, the "content" of his lessons are the responses of his students […]
- Generally, each of his lessons poses a problem for students. Almost all of his questions, proposed activities, and assignments are aimed at having his students clarify a problem, make observations relevant to the solution of the problem, and make generalizations based on their observations. […] He measures his success in terms of behavioral changes in students: the frequency with which they ask questions; the increase in the relevance and cogency of their question; the frequency and conviction of their challenges to assertions made by other students or teachers or textbooks; the relevance and clarity of the standards on which they base their challenges; their willingness to suspend judgments when they have insufficient data; their willingness to modify or otherwise change their position when data warrant such change; the increase in their tolerance for diverse answers; their ability to apply generalizations, attitudes, and information to novel situations. (Postman, Weingartner 1969, as quoted in Knowles *et al.* [1973] 2005: 99–101)

N. Postman, C. Weingartner's (1969) vision of an inquiry-driven and discovery-oriented teacher provides a perspective on education that we would like to see implemented in the T&I classroom. This is why we feel obliged to comment on what we find fundamental aspects of their vision.

Firstly, we would like to highlight that N. Postman, C. Weingartner (1969) insist on the relational, interaction-based classroom and not on the one where educational procedure execution is expected to yield educational effects. Education is not about the knowing teachers bringing

the (ready-made, true, objective) knowledge to the ignorant students. Education is about students and teachers meeting to learn to solve their problems. Secondly, N. Postman, C. Weingartner (1969) underline the fact that an educational system built on learner autonomy must indispensably depend on students' developing their own autonomous systems of self-assessment. They warn against the dangers of a close-ended approach to learning and assessment (the notion of "summary," see quotation above). N. Postman, C. Weingartner (1969) strongly advocate problem-based, task-oriented classroom interaction, since it provides the most favourable environment for students to become discoverers and problem-solvers. Finally, let us focus on the N. Postman, C. Weingartner's remark concerning planning classroom work. They express their open criticism against detailed *a priori* planning of the *content* and *procedures* (*cf.* the idea of *the logic of the classroom* in the quotation above). The *logical* approach is very likely to constitute a developmental barrier, since this classroom model relies on the teacher's superiority as a distributor of knowledge to be passed on students, *e.g.* by answering truly and appropriately all the questions that are asked in the classroom.

N. Postman, C. Weingartner (1969) seem to be radical opponents of complex, formal lesson planning, stating that the only plan the teacher needs is the one to empower students in their quest for solutions to the problems they have. It is interesting to note how this last remark by N. Postman, C. Weingartner (1969) relates to the prevalent practices of recent higher education reforms in Poland – as we experience them personally. In our view, the extreme emphasis on formal encoding of possibly each and every detail of the classroom work (*e.g.* defining educational objectives half a year before the teacher first meets his/her students) seems to go completely against the spirit of N. Postman, C. Weingartner's discovery classroom.

The last fragment in the quote from N. Postman, C. Weingartner (1969) presented above concerns assessment and educational effects. It is interesting to note that N. Postman, C. Weingartner avoid defining educational success in terms of scores, benchmarks, indices or grids. Conversely, the marker of the teacher's success is the students' transformation. It is not much dependent on their scores or tests' results, but on the changes in their performance: from predominantly extrinsically

motivated actions, built on discipline and its corollary fear of failure and punishment, towards acting based on intrinsic motivation to learn and solve problems. This educational transformation helps students see the educational problems as *their* problems and as *real* problems: they can identify the problems as part of their life, which motivates them to find solutions that can make it better. In this way, N. Postman, C. Weingartner's (1969) define educational effects in terms of personal (continuous) transformation, instead of a product view of human knowledge, which is generalized, can be elicited on demand, irrespective of context, and can be assessed as objective "results of learning."

Concluding on the quotation from N. Postman, C. Weingartner, M. Knowles observes:

> These behaviors and attitudes amount to a definition of a different role for the teacher from that which he has traditionally assumed. The inquiry environment, like any other school environment, is a series of human encounters, the nature of which is largely determined by the "teacher." "Teacher" is here placed in quotation marks to call attention to the fact that most of the word's conventional meanings are inimical to inquiry methods. It is not uncommon, for example, to hear "teachers" make statements such as, "Oh, I taught them that, but they didn't learn it." There is no utterance made in the Teachers' Room more extraordinary than this. From our point of view, it is on the same level as a salesman's remarking, "I sold it to him, but they didn't buy it," which is to say, it makes no sense. It seems to mean that "teaching" is what a "teacher" does, which, in turn, may or may not bear any relationship to what those being "taught" do (Postman and Weingartner, 1969, 34–37). (Knowles *et al.* [1973] 2005: 101–102)

M. Knowles highlights the idea of education as a "series of human encounters" inspired by the teacher as a pivotal concept in N. Postman, C. Weingartner (1969), which is highly relevant for our line of argument in this work. Another interesting point made by these two researchers, and pointed out by M. Knowles, refers to teachers' narratives, showing their dissatisfaction that the students failed to play the transmissionist game. This fragment is crucial to us, for it matches our own experience as an educator. The majority of the teachers with whom we have cooperated declare their support for constructivism, student autonomy and the need for their taking more active part in the educational process. Still, this does not prevent the narratives

noted by N. Postman, C. Weingartner (1969), which we can hear at almost each meeting dealing with programme issues. "They don't learn the things I am telling them to learn. They are lazy." Such narratives express the teachers' helplessness about the fact that the students should have complied to educational procedures and they should have opened their minds to the ready-made, objectively true and proved knowledge, but somehow they have not. It is clear in these narratives that the problem is on the part of students – procedures and content is not questioned. In this sense, N. Postman, C. Weingartner's (1969) accurate observations about the teachers' transmissionist narrative keep their validity today. Also in this sense, they need to be challenged for the good of T&I education.

3. C. Rogers' educational hypotheses

The role of C. Rogers' research in clinical psychology and education cannot be overestimated. His impact on these fields of research can perhaps be called revolutionary in a lot of aspects. C. Rogers, along with A. Maslow, are considered forefathers of humanistic psychology, as distinct from the behavioural and the psychoanalytic paradigms. Fundamental for educational debate is C. Rogers' turn from a therapist-centred to a client-centred therapy. Since C. Rogers assumed that therapy and education can be treated as generally similar phenomena (*cf. e.g.* Rogers 1951: 132), he proposed a similar turn in the field of learning and education theory: a teacher-centred education, focused around the teacher and his/her methods is to be abandoned for a student-centred education, focused around the student's developmental potential.

Drawing upon the above-mentioned change in perspective, C. Rogers expressed his educational views in the form of five "tentative principles and hypotheses:"

1. We cannot teach another person directly, we can only facilitate his learning.
2. A person learns significantly only those things which he perceives as being involved in the maintenance of, or enhancement of, the structure of self.

3. Experience which, if assimilated would involve a change in the organization of self, tends to be resisted through denial or distortion of symbolization.
4. The structure and organization of self appears to become more rigid under threat and to relax its boundaries when completely free from threat. Experience which is perceived as inconsistent with the self can only be assimilated if the current organization of self is relaxed and expanded to include it.
5. The educational situation which most effectively promotes significant learning is one in which (a) threat to the self of the learner is reduced to a minimum, and (b) differentiated perception of the field is facilitated. (Rogers 1951: 273–276)

Since some of C. Rogers' hypotheses presented above constitute a crucial part of the argumentation used in this monograph, we would like to put them under closer scrutiny. It is perhaps obvious for the reader why C. Rogers' first hypothesis is fundamental for our text. It repeats in almost exactly the same wording the basic thesis of our epistemological approach, anchored in F. Grucza's anthropocentric theory of knowledge (see Chapter 2). C. Rogers' own comments on his first hypothesis help us better understand his argumentation in favour of anthropocentric, person-centred education:

> This is a hypothesis with which any thoughtful teacher will agree. […] Operationally, however, most teachers utterly ignore this basic hypothesis. Watch a faculty group concerned with the formation of a curriculum. How much shall we cover in this course? How can we avoid overlap between these courses? Isn't that topic best taught in the third year? What percentage of our first-year course shall be given to this topic? These are samples of questions discussed – and they are all of them based on the hypothesis, which every faculty member knows is false, that what is taught is what is learned.
>
> Here, more than at any other point, is evidenced the revolutionary nature of a student-centered approach to education. If instead of focusing all our interest on the teacher – What shall I teach? How can I prove that I have taught it? How can I "cover" all that I should teach? – we focused our interest on the student, the questions and the issues would be all different. Suppose we asked, what are his purposes in the course, what does he wish to learn, how can we facilitate his learning and his growth? A very different type of education would ensue. An educational program […] which had the facilitation of learning as its clear and definite and

> primary operational purpose would be a program vastly different from the ones with which we are most familiar. (Rogers 1951: 273–274, original formatting retained)

It is perhaps evident from the quote above to what extent our own way of thinking about T&I education corroborates with C. Rogers' educational views. Reading the statements which C. Rogers puts into the minds and mouth of his hypothetical teachers and especially the curriculum designers ("How much shall we cover in this course…"), we cannot help the feeling that these educators do not need either real students, or actually even real teachers, to be part of the education process they design or engineer. Content, coverage or competences are central, while the fact that humans are not truly present in their educational thought seems irrelevant. One could venture a rather radical claim that this type of educator sees the human presence in the classroom in terms of a challenge: how to overcome the disadvantages of a human's unpredictable response to instruction. Even more radically, one could claim that objectivist educational motto can be formulated as follows: the most effective learning is one that tries as much as it can to ignore the learner, since he/she is the gravest obstacle in the learning process (*cf.* quotation from Postman, Weingartner 1969, especially the teachers' narratives exemplified there). On the one hand, the educators wish to inspire learning, on the other, by adopting the objectivist stance they thwart it. In this way they fall in a gap signalled by C. Rogers (1951), between their declarative acknowledgement of the constructivist nature of learning and the more or less deliberate choice to ignore this nature on the practical level.

C. Rogers' (1951) second hypothesis introduces the crucial educational concept of *significant learning*. In C. Rogers' terms, learning is significant to the extent it helps maintain or improve the structure of one's self.

> Perhaps the meaning of the [second – K. K.] hypothesis can be illustrated by referring to two types of student in, let us say, a course in mathematics or statistics. The first student perceives this mathematical material as being directly relevant to his professional purpose, and thus directly involved in his long-range enhancement of self. The second student is taking the course because it is required. For the maintenance and enhancement of self he regards it as necessary that he stay in the university.

> Therefore it is necessary that he pass the course. Can there be any question as to the differences in learning which take place? The first student acquires a functional learning of the material. The second learns how to "get by" in the course. (Rogers 1951: 275)

The former student's learning is significant since he/she conceives of the course as directly related to his/her life. This student uses the course as a tool in building intrinsic motivation to engage in activities he perceives as meaningful (*i.e.* constructs their meaning). Henceforth, we will refer to this learner's attitude as *intrinsic framing of significance.*

The latter student in Rogers' (1951) example perceives the course as significant, too. However, his/her frame of reference used in the conceptualization of the significance of learning is different. This latter kind of significance is built on extrinsic conditioning: "how do I need to perform/behave to 'get by' as a student (see the quotation above), to collect all the necessary passes and relevant certificates." This latter kind of learning is hardly transformative, as it is not based on a learner's decision to engage in the course as relevant to his/her intrinsically motivated development. Henceforth, we will refer to this attitude as *extrinsic framing of significance.*

We find C. Rogers' (1951) observations about significant learning directly relevant to the present-day T&I classroom. The two styles of learners' attitudes and behaviours observed by C. Rogers correspond directly to the reports by J. Fraser (1996), M. Kaiser-Cooke (1994) and a lot of other researchers (see Chapter 1, section 5.3 above). These latter researchers talk about the *student–professional performance gap* as one of the major educational problems in T&I training. C. Rogers' analysis can be helpful in understanding the psychological background of the phenomenon and in showing that solving the problem calls for more than an improvement of teaching procedures. Using C. Rogers' terms, to solve the problem, we need to inspire students to reframe their conceptualizations of who they are and what they do in the classroom: from extrinsic to intrinsic significance. It is the latter, intrinsic framing of the significance of learning that becomes a paramount educational objective for the educators and the students.

Narratives like the ones found in N. Postman, C. Weingartner (1969), C. Nord (1996) and the ones we often experience in our educational environment prove that redefining their frame of significant learning

can be a challenge for the students, the teachers and the academic institutions. Yet, if academic T&I education is to equip the students with resources for the provision of quality translation services, for their successful career-making as translation professionals and for satisfactory personal and social life, this challenge should be met. In our view, the intrinsic framing of significance is a condition on the genuine engagement of all the stakeholders in the T&I educational process, since it is only the intrinsic framework that can make them conceptualize education as relevant to their life and work; to their real needs and priorities.

If we are right in our interpretation of C. Rogers' (1951) hypotheses, it stands to reason to assume that the T&I students with their significance frame oriented on 'getting by' and meeting extrinsic criteria for completing academic courses may be likely to adopt the same significance framing strategy as career-makers. They may tend to understand their professional performance and obligations in terms of extrinsic criteria only. Such an employee can indeed be regarded as valuable by some employers. Yet, organizations that strive to make their employees integral part of their cultures put a lot of effort in enabling its staff to develop the intrinsic framing of significance for their professional performance. In this sense, an educational model built on the extrinsic framing is likely to fail to provide the graduates with skills and resources that could enable them to become valuable members of such organizations.

Consequently, T&I education that ignores the objective to empower the students' transformation from the extrinsic to the intrinsic framing of significance is likely to fail all the stakeholders of the educational process. The T&I educational procedures relying on the extrinsic framing are more of an obstacle to growth rather than its facilitation. Let us add here, that this kind of radical criticism of contemporary educational systems is easily found in the literature of the subject. S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000), M. Eraut (2000, 2009) or S. Billett (2001, 2010) are just a few examples of this radical critical view that contemporary education seems to be more of a problem than help for learners, since it fails to prepare them for the challenges of their lives. These critical voices are discussed in Chapter 5.

C. Rogers' (1951) third and fourth hypothesis addresses a developmental barrier that a learner faces when the experience he/she is faced with requires his/her transformative effort. According to C. Rogers,

the stronger the transformative influence of a new experience, the more likely it is to cause a learner's resistance or denial. Put in simple terms, learning new things can be perceived by learners as threatening, since accepting a new view, even if in some way attractive, requires rejection of an earlier stance or position. This hypothesis may be useful in explaining the discrepancy between the students' expectation to be given more power in the T&I classroom and their simultaneous choice of the teacher as the ultimate problem-solver – as reported by K. Klimkowski, K. Klimkowska (2012), and discussed above in Chapter 3, section 4.

C. Rogers' (1951) fifth hypothesis explains how to facilitate a transformation from the significance of learning focused on 'getting-by' (extrinsic frame) towards the type of significance that sees learning as relevant to life (intrinsic frame). C. Rogers mentions two conditions to be met for the transformation to take place: (a) minimizing the threat to the learner's self; and (b) enabling the learner to reframe their conceptualization of the learning environment. C. Rogers believes that if one's educational experience is to bring transformative learning effects, the teacher needs to help the learner reduce the sense of their self being threatened by expectations of change. According to C. Rogers (1951), the reduced level of threat is a prerequisite for one's self to develop a new, transformed perspective, leading to his/her change in attitudes and functioning.

It must be highlighted here that C. Rogers' (1951) appeal for educators to reduce the level threat to the learner's self to the minimum cannot be read as a call to eliminate educational obligations put on students by teachers. Under our interpretation, C. Rogers expects teachers to act in such a way that will make the students construct these obligations as tasks to which they are intrinsically motivated (and extrinsically stimulated), and not tasks which are imposed on them by the teacher.

In our opinion, C. Rogers' (1951) mention of the threatening learning experience relates to the problem of the classroom discipline. The classical notion of discipline is that of power wielded by the university as a knowledge distribution organization and the curriculum designers who grant the teachers an unquestionable authority to teach the objective nature of the world to the students. Under this view, discipline is an inseparable instrument of ensuring that the students comply with the classroom obligations. Extrinsic motivational incentives become a tool of making it clear to the students what is expected of them for their

own good. If they fail to comply, they will be punished and ultimately eliminated from the class. In this way, a disciplinary model uses fear as a motivational tool for learning. This is where C. Rogers (1951) finds the main problem of such educational systems: they try to make students learn, but by employing their methodologies, they contradict their own aspirations. Consequently, C. Rogers' (1951) words can be read as an inspiration – or even an obligation – to reconstruct T&I educational narratives so as to make them realize his hypotheses.

We admit our deep admiration of C. Rogers' educational ideas, even though our own views on education sometimes diverge from his. For example, as has already been mentioned, we only partly subscribe to C. Rogers' view that education should be student-centred.[53] The main purpose of our reference to C. Rogers in this monograph is to select and highlight these ideas that can inform our own approach to T&I education, despite the fact some of them were formulated almost half a century ago.

4. K. Gergen's relational view on education

A need to see education as built on student–teacher and student–student relationships constitutes a central idea of C. Rogers' ([1967] 2002) article entitled "The Interpersonal Relationship in the Facilitation of Learning." In a highly emotional statement, C. Rogers emphasizes how much he sees relational education as fundamental for the future of our civilization.

> I am sorry I can't be coolly scientific about this. The issue is too urgent. I can only be passionate in my statement that people count, that interpersonal relationships *are* important, that we know something about releasing human potential, that we could learn much more, and that unless we give strong positive attention to the human interpersonal side of our educational dilemma, our civilization is on its way down the drain. Better courses, better curricula, better coverage, better teaching machines will never resolve our dilemma in a basic way. Only persons acting like persons in their relationships with their students can even begin to make a dent on this most urgent problem of modern education. (Rogers [1967] 2002: 37)

Another work in which the notion of human relations figures as a supreme educational theme is K. Gergen (2009). This book has already

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53 For more criticism of C. Rogers' educational ideas see *e.g.* M. Tennant (2006).

been referred to in Chapter 2, as one of the most important expositions of social constructivist thought in the recent literature in education studies. Previously, we have ventured a proposal that despite his strong emphasis on the social nature of knowledge construction, the main tenets of K. Gergen's (2009) educational conception can be regarded as convergent with the anthropocentric view on knowledge adopted in this monograph. Even though the degree of this convergence is a matter of interpretation of K. Gergen (2009), we still find his proposals inspiring and add his work to the list of educational conceptions under our analysis in this monograph.

Of particular interest to us is Chapter 8 of K. Gergen (2009), devoted to an idea of education as fundamentally and primarily dependent of human relations. This idea is signalled by the chapter's title – repeated above in the title of this section. K. Gergen's (2009) conception of the role of human relations in understanding education is exhibited overtly at the beginning of Chapter 8:

> If knowledge and reason are relational achievements, we must reconsider the question of educational goals. If relations are primary, what then is the aim of education; what do we hope to achieve from our practices? If what we call mental functioning is relational functioning, we must begin to ask questions about the relationships in which students are, or will be, participating and the outcome of such participation. From this standpoint I propose that *the primary aim of education is to enhance the potentials for participating in relational processes—from the local to the global*. The aim, then, is not that of producing independent, autonomous thinkers—mythological creatures at best—but of facilitating relational processes that can ultimately contribute to the continuing and expanding flow of relationships within the world more broadly. (Gergen 2009: 243 – original text formatting retained)

The motto of enhancing the learners' potential for participating in relational processes cannot be better suited for the context of T&I education, since there is perhaps hardly anyone who would reject the strongly relational nature of the translation process itself, its professional context and the way people train to become expert translators. Also worth emphasizing is K. Gergen's (2009) repeated criticism of viewing education as a quest for the idealized perfect learner (*cf.* idealized translation competence). K. Gergen rejects the idea of learner autonomy (in K. Gergen

words: "autonomous thinkers – mythological creatures at best," as quoted above) as learner's isolation. K. Gergen suggests a revision of traditional educational goals.

> What would it be to place relationship prior to the individual in educa-
> tion? First, the focus would be directed to relations between teachers
> and students, and among students. Who is participating and in what
> manner? In the long run, the character of these relationships may prove
> more significant than the subject matter under study. (Gergen 2009: 243)

In this short excerpt, K. Gergen (2009) introduces a significant shift of focus in education: from *content* towards *people in relations*. This outlook is fundamental for the T&I education proposals we develop in this monograph. K. Gergen's appeal to open the classroom to the world around it also needs underlining, as instrumental for our purposes.

> Second, we would move beyond the classroom. The classroom should
> give voice to the webs of relationship in which students and teachers are
> engaged. Relations between the classroom and its environment should
> also be extended from the local to the global context. The classroom
> would ideally be a meeting ground for the concerns of the world. And
> finally, there are the relationships of the future. With what skills are
> students prepared to enter the relationships on which global life will
> depend? Most obvious are entries into the prevailing communities of
> practice: law, medicine, teaching, business, government, the helping pro-
> fessions, the military, and so on. A relationally effective education would
> also consider the potentials for productive participation in families,
> communities, the political process, the arts, diverse cultural traditions,
> nature, and more. Education is not, then, a process of *producing* effec-
> tive individuals; it is one of fostering processes that indefinitely extend
> the potentials of relationship. (Gergen 2009: 243)

It is exactly the idea of the classroom as a meeting point, as depicted by K. Gergen in the quote above that we have in mind, including his refer-ence to opening to multiple voices (*cf.* González Davies 2004), which rep-resent diverse relational networks. Equally important to us is K. Gergen's expectation that curriculum designers think of educational programmes in a more holistic approach than the one focused predominantly on the graduate's finding the first job or getting accepted for a valuable internship. K. Gergen's educational ideals reach further than the models for *educational production of human resources for the needs of the market.*

Finally, K. Gergen (2009) refocuses the scope of educational reflection to cover preparing students for the productive performance in the social, political, artistic and environmental realms. Also this idea serves as an inspiration for some of our proposals in T&I education.

The list of inspirations that we owe to K. Gergen (2009) is long, but it is perhaps obvious that discussing all of them in detail is a task we find unattainable. Thus, we choose just one more concept proposed by K. Gergen (2009), which we find instrumental for our own argumentation in this work. This concept is *circle of participation*, which – in our view – can be partly linked with the concept of the *community of inquiry*, as developed by C. Peirce and J. Dewey, and evoked by researchers like P. Coombs *et al.* (1973), discussed in Chapter 5.

> Following the earlier analysis, let us view each of the student's relationships as a circle of participation. Thus the student arrives embedded within multiple circles, with mother, father, siblings, friends, and so on. Further, let us recognize that each of these circles is also educational. That is, participation in any relationship will bring with it an increase in one's capacities, sensitivities, and skills for relating. Each fosters a way of being with others, favoring certain ways of talking, values, fears, enthusiasms, and so on. Each generates its own limitations as well. In effect, each establishes its own ways of "doing knowledge."
>
> We further recognize that the teacher arrives in the classroom as a multi-being, embedded in a similar matrix of connection, along with relations with other teachers, administrators, and more. Each of these relations leaves the teacher with a residue of potentials. When teacher and student meet, each is embedded within a multiplicity of relationships, and each is replete with multiple skills (and potential deficiencies) in relating. In this sense, the meeting of the student and teacher brings about a new circle of relationship, one that could link each of them to an expanded sea of potentials—or not. Yet, we also recognize that a student's achievements depend on his or her circle of relations with classmates. Not only do these relationships harbor significant educational potential, but they will also insinuate themselves into the relationship between teacher and student. Effective teachers, then, will attend not only to their personal relations with their students, but will develop practices that draw into the circle the relations of students among themselves. In effect, we expand the potentials of the educational process by broadening the range of circles taken into account. (Gergen 2009: 246 – original text formatting retained)

The notion of *circle of participation* shows what K. Gergen (2009) has in mind by saying that students are *relational learners*. By emphasising the fact of students' educational participation, K. Gergen redefines their classroom role from *knowledge containers* to *knowledge constructors*. K. Gergen can also bring the teacher back to the scene: not as an executor of instructional procedures to pass objective, ready-made knowledge to ignorant students, but as the participant of the learning process. Worth noting is K. Gergen's description of the collaborative nature of the student–student classroom relations, which he perceives as an educational opportunity. In this aspect, his views corroborate fully with D. Kiraly's (2000) educational approach. We are convinced that when getting acquainted with the T&I education proposals we develop later in this monograph, the reader will easily see the extent to which these are influenced by the educational thought of K. Gergen (2009).

5. U. Ostrowska's conception of interpersonal relationships in education

The relational foundation of learning and education has also been studied extensively by the Polish theorist of education Professor Urszula Ostrowska. Although the question of interpersonal relations constitutes an important theme in a number of her research contributions, we will only focus on two of them – U. Ostrowska (2002a) and (2002b) – since her views on relational education expressed in these two works directly influence the shape of our own view on that matter.

The first thing that strikes the reader of U. Ostrowska's texts is the depth of her analyses and the wide use of sources in domains such as psychology, sociology or epistemology, let alone the vast range of approaches to learning and education. U. Ostrowska's extensive studies of Polish and foreign literature in the field lead her to postulate four categories of relationships that are constitutive for human functioning:

- human being in relation to him/herself. This means is a feedback relationship between two aspects of one's self – the subjective *I* and the relativized *me*;[54]

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54 In her footnote 9, U. Ostrowska (2002a: 13) points to G. Mead's concept of the *I – me* distinction as the source for the first type of relationship.

- human being in relation to another human being (the *I – other* relationship);
- human being in relation to social groups (the *I – others* relationship);
- social groups, communities and nations in relation to other such groups (the *community – community* relationship) (adapted from Ostrowska 2002a: 12–13)

According to U. Ostrowska (2002a), these four types of relationship are also fundamental for education. In this way, she poses a kind of obligation on the educational system to endorse all forms of relational functioning of the learners and of all the stakeholders of education.

Let us also observe that U. Ostrowska (2002a) devoted a considerable part of her work on the first type of relationship, *i.e.* the *I – me*. Commenting upon this type, U. Ostrowska observes that a deliberate and positive constructing of one's self is a necessary prerequisite of an accountable and effective engagement in interpersonal relationships in the educational realm. In fact, this type of self-constructing effort should also continue in the course of educational participation:

> […] to conclude a valid educational contract with others, one needs to conclude such a contract with oneself, being persistent in one's compliance to the contract terms. (Ostrowska 2002a: 13)

In our view, U. Ostrowska's (2002a) stance as presented above adds grounds to the anthropocentric epistemological foundation of this monograph. This is owing to the fact that she perceives the process of one's self construction as an indispensable prerequisite of any effective type of relationship. This view helps integrate the anthropocentric nature of human knowledge construction as a brain function with the view that human knowledge construction is relational and takes places in the world of socially negotiated senses.

U. Ostrowska's stance also seems related directly to C. Rogers' (1951) claim about the role of personality construction in and through education. Let us add at this point that U. Ostrowska's postulate is valid not only for students, but in fact for all the stakeholders of the educational process, including teachers, curriculum designers, market-related partners, educational authorities, *etc.*

U. Ostrowska (2002b) examines a long list of sources in various domains of knowledge that take up the notion of human relations, especially as employed in the educational settings. The wealth and complication of

all these approaches are hard to incorporate into our text, yet, in our view, U. Ostrowska's (2002b) contribution as well as the sources mentioned thereby are a valuable read for anyone interested in the nature and dynamics of human relations. For our purposes, we choose only two educational concepts discussed in U. Ostrowska (2002b). The first section below explores the master–student relationship in education, while the following one elaborates on the issue of power distribution and control in the educational context.

5.1. U. Ostrowska's conception of the master–student educational relationship

U. Ostrowska (2002b) does not provide the reader with a precise definition of the master–student interpersonal relation, rather confining herself to a relatively simple description of that relation, where the master helps the student break through the developmental barriers, opens new horizons for him/her and serves as an axiological guide. U. Ostrowska contends that the relationship of that kind is an educational challenge for both the master and the student. She also adds that the relationship of that sort could especially be advantageous in academic education.

> This relationship is highly desirable, on the academic level in particular, and university students aspire to this relationship in a special way, since they expect a common, authentic quest for knowledge together with the teacher, reaching wisdom, instead of what they perceive as a dominating formalized educational canon, which above all favours internalization of ready-made knowledge and their retrieval on demand, like a test or exam. (Ostrowska 2002b: 41)

The fragment quoted above clarifies what kind of relation U. Ostrowska has in mind, and why it is of interest to us in this monograph. Notions such as "authentic quest for knowledge together with the teacher" match the views of most, if not all, the researchers of education and T&I education mentioned in this work. In what follows, we would like to highlight some aspects of U. Ostrowska's conception, as we find them indispensable for the master–student relationship to be advantageous for contemporary T&I education.

Firstly, U. Ostrowska (2002b: 42) observes that the master–student relationship tends to be an inter-generational link and the examples of eminent scholars and masters she refers to seem to confirm this viewpoint.

Yet, she also quotes an alternative approach suggested by J. Rutkowiak (Rutkowiak (ed.) 1992), under which intra-generational master–student relationships are equally possible and desirable (*cf.* Ostrowska 2002b: 42). In our view, the context of contemporary academic education, including T&I education, makes the former perspective unnecessarily constrained. Hence, we favour J. Rutkowiak's (1992) claim that either age or developmental stage should be excluded from the list of parameters that are used in defining the master–student relationship.

Secondly, in her deliberations on the nature of the relationship in question, U. Ostrowska (2002b) seems to assume, albeit covertly, that it involves two persons only. Hence, it represents the second type on her list quoted above (*cf.* Ostrowska 2002a: 12–13). Our interpretation of U. Ostrowska's view on that matter is based on the kind of narrative she uses in her text, dominated by two individual protagonists: the master and the student. Yet, we admit that this reading can be mistaken, and her narrative can represent an attempt to express certain generalizations on the roles of the master and the student. Irrespective of U. Ostrowska's (2002b) real intentions, we would like to reject the view of the master–student educational relationship as exclusively constrained to the *I – you* configuration. Instead, we subscribe to the idea of building the master/expert – learner/apprentice (*cf.* González Davies 2004, González Davies, Kiraly 2006, Kiraly 2000) relationship in the T&I classroom, which is dynamic and flexible enough to cover various relational configurations. In other words, a master can play the role of the master for a person, a team or a community, even though the relations involved in each case will certainly differ in nature. The collaborative, social constructivist T&I classroom can provide advantageous grounds for the development of various forms of the master–student interpersonal bonds, also catering for its one-to-one variety.

Let us also revoke K. Gergen's (2009) warning against an individualistic conception of education; a formation of a lone genius in a closely-set relation to his/her (usually one and only) master (Gergen 2009: 241). This latter vision of the master–student relationship bears a clear semblance a transmissionist approach to education. The role of the master as envisaged by this educational epistemology and methodology should no longer loom over contemporary T&I education. Conversely, we would like to promote an approach, where masters and students are many, and

where they are open to interaction in a multidimensional network of educational settings. Their relations must be based on their decisions to engage together to attain educational objectives. The power of the master–student interpersonal relation lies in the anthropocentric, social constructivist, relational outlook on the nature of authentic, effective learning and education.

Lastly, the point that we also wish to highlight in U. Ostrowska (2002b) is that the master–student relationship always needs to be juxtaposed against the background of the educational objectives. Since the fact that the master and the student meet has an educational rationale, their relationship must depend on their decision to pursue educational tasks together (*cf.* the notion of "educational contract" as used by Ostrowska 2002a: 13, and quoted above). In other words, the reason for the master and the student to meet is their need to share and explore the world.

In this context, let us repeat our decision to abandon the notion of educational content, and to substitute it with that of educational task. Thus, the notion of task is necessary to make the master–student relationship transparent in terms of the values, needs, interests and intentions of both/all partners. The task gives the master an opportunity to engage the student in the process of constructing knowledge together. It is thanks to the task that the constructed knowledge is that of the world (declarative) and in the world (procedural), instead of being the masters' own knowledge (educational content). The master's *authority* is not built on the students' applauding his/her research grandeur or extensive practical expertise. The master plays his role because he/she is able to use his/her knowledge and expertise to attract the student to take part in learning and acting – the role that is a perfect illustration of the idea of educational empowerment.

5.2. U. Ostrowska's view of the *equality of partnership* in educational interpersonal relations

U. Ostrowska (2002b: 45) rightly observes that numerous changes and turns in educational theory brought about changes in understanding interpersonal relations in education. One notion that seems most debated upon is the equality of partners in such relations. U. Ostrowska claims that the changes in defining this equality can be placed on a continuum between two educational extremes: a need of educational compliance,

order and discipline and a need of autonomous learning and growth. In her approach to the question of equality of partnership, U. Ostrowska abandons the confines of that continuum, stating that the equality of partnership in interpersonal relations in education manifests itself as the equal rights to full, authentic participation of persons – partners in these relations. However, if we allow for such an equality of rights, we must respect the fact that different partners have different educational needs. Hence, they participate in the relationship from different positions. Thus, as U. Ostrowska (2002b: 46) observes, *equality of rights* is not *identity of rights*.

U. Ostrowska's (2002b) line of argument grants support to our idea of the T&I classroom as a space for shared, negotiated student–teacher interactions and relations, focused around the attainment of agreed educational tasks, and leading to the endorsement of self-regulation in students and teachers. Her views in this respect also inform our own approach to the question of power and control in the translation classroom, discussed in Chapter 7.

Conclusions

As mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, its aim was to attract the reader's attention to the conceptual potential that theories of learning and education can offer T&I education. In part, this chapter was a continuation of our explorations in the realm of epistemological and educational concepts discussed in the previous chapters of the monograph. We attempted to take a deeper look behind some of the ideas developed in such approaches to translator education as M. González Davies (*e.g.* 2004), D. Kiraly (2000), K. Klaudy (1996), B. Moser-Mercer (2008) or C. Nord (1996). Our analysis in this chapter was brief and selective, since we decided to focus only on these authors and the concepts that grant support to our main line of argument in this work. This means we were in the unfortunate position to have to exclude from our text almost all critical analyses of the conceptions and ideas we discussed.[55] In a parallel to D. Kiraly (2000), we consider the works of these great theorists of education as wells of inspiration, and not rigid scholarly paradigms that

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55 An exemplary survey of critical remarks on the theories we discuss can be found *e.g.* in M. Tennant (2006).

either are accepted as wholes or rejected completely. In what follows, our explorations of the theories of education and learning continue to touch upon the complex issue of educational autonomy and the benefits that T&I education can draw from the ideas such as non-formal learning or implicit knowledge.

From dependent to autonomous learning

Having assumed that our anthropocentric, social constructivist, relational approach to T&I education needs to rely on the self-directed (self-regulated) growth of the learner and the teacher, we would now like to focus on the problem of control and autonomy of the learner and the teacher in T&I education. This is because our analysis of a selection of viewpoints on the issue of autonomy in education reveals its conceptual complexity, inevitably leading to problems on the level of its practical application. Our explorations in the domain of learner and teacher autonomy opened our mind to educational worlds outside the academic formal T&I curriculum. In our view, an effective situating of T&I education calls for extra-curricular educational initiatives; not only to complement the formal T&I curriculum, but also to expand the standard way of thinking about, planning and implementing T&I educational holistic solutions. According to some researchers, formal curricular education can benefit considerably from initiatives promoting non-formal learning. They argue that the latter style of learning is necessary for effective professional education. Their argumentation is presented in the latter part of this chapter. Their way of thinking is also used in support for our observations and educational proposals made in Chapters 7 and 8 of this monograph.

1. Control and autonomy in P. Candy (1987), G. Grow (1991) and D. Kiraly (2000): a comparative analysis

This section discusses three conceptions of *control* and *autonomy* in learning. D. Kiraly makes mention of control in point 5 of his T&I educational programme (Kiraly 2000: 68). He presents an idea of a changing

interaction in the translation classroom, through which the degree of scaffolding and support on the part of the teacher gradually diminishes. In this way, the control over the learning process is gradually bestowed on the students. Consequently, relinquishing control over the learning environment to students leads to an increase in student autonomy. Although D. Kiraly (2000) does not refer to the concept of autonomy too often in his book, it is clear that autonomy in decision-making and translation task attainment is a highly valued objective in his approach:

> An objectivist perspective leads to transmissionist approaches to education, based primarily on the transfer of knowledge; while a constructivist epistemology leads to transformation, with the goal of empowering the learner to act responsibly, autonomously and competently. (Kiraly 2000: 33).

However, for D. Kiraly, autonomous learning can also imply isolated learning by an individual, which he does not advocate as a pedagogical strategy.

> This approach to translator education does not make teachers obsolete. Instead, it redefines their roles and responsibilities as guides, assistants, and catalysts for learning for incipient, and then emerging, professional translators. Nor am I aiming at what has sometimes been described as 'autonomous learning', where each individual would essentially be an autodidact within the institutional framework. Clearly the development of autonomous learning skills in the sense of independence from the teacher as the source of truth is essential for ensuring that translators can continue learning once the programme of studies is over. However, I believe that such skills must be grounded in collaborative social experiences in the construction of meaning. (Kiraly 2000: 21)

Thus, for D. Kiraly, autonomy can mean at least two things: self-direction in collaborative learning, which he supports; vs. autonomous, individual or even isolated learning, which he rejects as a didactic strategy for the T&I classroom. In this respect, D. Kiraly's (2000) idea of autonomy in collaboration seems in harmony with K. Gergen's (2009) vision of relational education.

Unlike D. Kiraly (2000), P. Candy (1987) distinguishes between three types of learner autonomy, and – also in opposition to the former – the latter researcher accepts all the types as educationally advantageous. Thus, according to P. Candy, autonomy can be understood

– firstly – as a personal attribute. This concept of autonomy corresponds well with the anthropocentric idea of learning adopted in this monograph: the learner – or the learner's brain – is an autonomous learning system. Autonomy is undisputable, irrespective of the extent to which the tasks and the methods of learning are influenced or determined by the social context.

The second understanding of autonomy suggested by P. Candy (1987) is that of individual learning outside the formal educational context. This kind of autonomy is excluded by D. Kiraly (2000), mostly because he is interested in learning in the classroom and not outside. However, P. Candy's considerations are interesting in that they reach further than the classroom, and in that he is mostly interested in how people learn as working professionals. This expanded scope of the concept of learner autonomy can be beneficial for T&I education in its profession-oriented aspect. Since in our monograph we do not confine ourselves to understanding T&I education as taking place in the T&I classroom only, P. Candy's (1987) second definition can be worthy of consideration in the context of our monograph.

Let us also observe that we find D. Kiraly's (2000) dichotomy between collaborative vs. isolating autonomy too radical. In our view, individual learning does not have to imply isolation from social interaction. A translator can work alone on his part of a translation project, yet his individual decisions are more often than not influenced by the social factors, like the terminological guidelines suggested by a terminology manager or the client's requirements. Thus, as long as autodidactics is not isolating didactics, this version of autonomy is worth encouraging in students. At the same time, the isolating view of autonomy should be avoided. Apart from D. Kiraly (2000), K. Gergen (2009) is also a critic of isolationism in education, as discussed in the previous chapter. Following K. Gergen's line of argument one can formulate a kind of warning against understanding autonomy as an absolute, isolationist concept: (educational) autonomy cannot exist outside relations. Autonomy can only mean substituting one network of relationships and dependencies for another. Hence, an autonomous learner is not one who emancipates from all kind of relations or dependencies, but one who makes an empowered decision to become a significant part of this or that relational system.

Finally, the third way of understanding autonomy by P. Candy (1987) is that of negotiated degree of control over the learning environment. To some extent this definition matches the concept of educational autonomy as promoted by D. Kiraly (2000: 33). However, for D. Kiraly, the ultimate purpose of the negotiations is to give more and more power to the hands of the learner, while in P. Candy's terms the negotiation of power seems to be a constant element of the classroom interaction, without a clear indication concerning the relinquishing of control into either direction. These contrastive views on power and control are discussed further in the next section.

The analysis of the various ways of defining autonomy in the educational context leads us to an assumption that an integrated approach to the matter at hand is needed. We would like to find room for all sorts of autonomous learning in the T&I classroom and outside of it – unless they lead to learner or teacher isolation. We find autonomy particularly important in the context of these curricular and extra-curricular activities that are intended to prepare students for their cultural, social, economic and individual functioning after graduation. To put it in other words, we do not see the various meanings of autonomy as opposing, but rather as complementary.

A similar, integrative view of autonomy seems to be adopted by G. Grow. In one of his best-known publications (Grow 1991), he suggests that learner autonomy should be viewed as gradual in nature, and that not every learner and not in every learning environment can be expected to become autonomous. G. Grow distinguishes four stages of learner autonomy, as presented in Table 7 below.

Table 7. Four stages of learner autonomy (Grow 1991: 129)

	Student	Teacher	Examples
Stage 1	dependent	authority, coach	Coaching with immediate feedback. Drill. Informational lecture. Overcoming deficiencies and resistance.
Stage 2	interested	motivator, guide	Inspiring lecture plus guided discussion. Goal-setting and learning strategies.

| Stage 3 | involved | facilitator | Discussion facilitated by teacher who participates as equal. Seminar. Group projects. |
| Stage 4 | self-directed | consultant, delegator | Internship, dissertation, individual work or self-directed study-group. |

The stages presented in the table above illustrate the idea of growing learner autonomy. The learner starts from being dependent on an expert-teacher and on performing precisely what the teacher assigns. Then he/she moves towards his/her own definition of educational goals and strategies, based on the growing intrinsic motivation. Later comes the growing role of discussion, debate and collaboration with teachers and peers. Finally, the learner reaches the stage where the teacher's role is that of a consultant needed to make autonomous learning more effective. Ultimately, a Stage 4 learner takes complete control over learning.

> In Stage 4 the learner may not need a teacher at all. A Stage 4 teacher might set a challenge, then leave the learner largely alone to carry it out, intervening only when asked for help – and then not help meet the challenge but instead help empower the learner to meet the challenge. […] the ultimate task of a Stage 4 teacher is to become unnecessary. (Grow 1991: 136)

G. Grow's (1991) typology seems to be in full accord with D. Kiraly's (2000) distinction between the dependent, teacher-centred, transmissionist pedagogy and the empowered, autonomous, collaborative translation classroom. Interpreting D. Kiraly's (2000) approach in G. Grow's (1991) terms, D. Kiraly's shift from transmissionism to empowerment represents G. Grow's transition from Stage 1 to Stage 3. Thus perhaps one evident difference that suggests itself is that G. Grow's (1991) Stage 4 is excluded from D. Kiraly's pedagogy – most probably as representative of the type of learner autonomy that D. Kiraly does not approve of.

However, there is more to G. Grow's (1991) idea of learner autonomy than the fact that it develops in stages. G. Grow maintains that the relationship between the stages is neither linear, nor simple. It is not based on the assumption that once a learner transgresses the dependent stage, they never behave like a dependent learner again. On the contrary, G. Grow (1991: 129) observes that "[a]ll learners of whatever stage may become temporarily dependent in the face of new topics." Autonomy is a learning

style that cannot be developed once and for all. What is more, G. Grow finds autonomy (or self-direction in his terms) not only gradual, but also context-dependent.

> Some features of self-direction are distinctly situational: Few learners are equally motivated toward all subjects. Some features appear to be deep, familial, perhaps even genetic traits of individual personalities – such as persistence. […] Some aspects of self-direction develop best in nurturing environments while others are nearly impossible to suppress. Some develop as the peak of Maslow's pyramid of needs; others are so essential to survival that they emerge almost before the self. (Grow 1991: 128)

The above claims are reasonable when one adopts the view of learning as a never-ending process governed by the human brain. The learner is bound to face learning problems whose solving depends on his/her relationship with other people: teachers, colleagues, experts, superiors or clients. Faced with such challenges, the learner is likely to make a step back from autonomy to dependence, since – paradoxically as it may sound – this may facilitate learning. Therefore, autonomous lifelong learning consists in continuous repetitive transitions from the dependent to the autonomous stage.

The quotations from G. Grow (1991) presented above underline his acceptance of the fact that some learners choose to be dependent at least in some aspects of their education. Thus, although G. Grow generally supports the idea of autonomy-oriented learning and teaching (Grow 1991: 127), he is not as radical as D. Kiraly (2000) seems to be about the negative influence of the more dependent stages of learning (Stage 1 and 2) on the overall development of translators and interpreters.

> Dependent learners need an authority-figure to give them explicit directions on what to do, how to do it, and when. For these students, learning is teacher-centered. They either treat teachers as experts who know what the student needs to do, or they passively slide through the educational system, responding mainly to teachers who "make" them learn. Some learners are dependent in all subjects they are "taught;" others are dependent in some subjects. Some dependent learners become excellent students within a specialized area; they can be systematic, thorough, and disciplined, mastering a settled subject or transmitting a fixed tradition. Some learners are enduringly dependent; others are temporarily teacher-dependent, because, in Pratt's terms, "they lack either relevant

> knowledge, skills, and experience or the motivation and self-confidence to pursue educational goals" (1988, p. 168). (Grow 1991: 129)

G. Grow's (1991) description of the dependent stage of learning may at first sight resemble the transmissionist approach to education, since G. Grow talks about teacher-centred education and teachers as "experts who know." In fact, G. Grow (1991) was aware of the criticism that some researchers expressed at his positive attitude towards Stage 1 (dependent) learning and teaching.

> Many of the characteristics of Stage 1 teachers sound terrible to proponents of student-centered styles of teaching. Fox (1983) for example, criticizes this method as the "transfer" theory of teaching – where teachers pour knowledge into students. (Grow 1991: 130)

However, although G. Grow accepts the fact that some learning takes place in a teacher-dependent context, and that some learners may show their preference for the dependent learning, he does not truly supports it as the best or most favourable pedagogical strategy. On the contrary, G. Grow argues that:

> [...] the goal of the educational process is to produce self-directed, life-long learners. Many current educational practices in public schools and universities, however, do more to perpetuate dependency than to create self-direction. [...] self-direction is advantageous in many settings and this model is built upon a strong belief in its value – but there is nothing inherently wrong with being a dependent learner, whether that dependency is temporary or permanent, limited to certain subjects or extending to all. [...] just as dependency and helplessness can be learned, self-direction can be learned – and it can be taught. (Grow 1991: 127)

Finally, G. Grow adds a remark disclosing his view on when dependent learning ceases to be an advantageous educational strategy.

> Stage 1 learning can be limiting and even punitive [...] Stage 1 teaching is bad only when it is applied to the wrong students or used to perpetuate dependency. (Grow 1991: 130)

Looked at from the perspective presented in the two latter quotations from G. Grow (1991), the contrast between approaches like D. Kiraly (2000) on the one side and G. Grow (1991) on the other is perhaps less sharp. One can conclude that although G. Grow subscribes to a view of

education that is autonomy-oriented, he simultaneously believes that Stage 1 learning is a pedagogical fact that needs to be respected. Firstly, when learners begin to learn they are dependent on someone who help them learn. Secondly, not all kind of learning can be empowered and significant.

All in all, the final verdict as for whether D. Kiraly and G. Grow are in opposition in their views on Stage 1 learning is perhaps a question of interpretation. Even though we also find G. Grow's acceptance for Stage 1 somewhat controversial in the context of T&I education, there are certain points in his work that are worth discussing in detail.

Firstly, we adopt an interpretation of D. Kiraly's (2000) and G. Grow's (1991) conceptualizations of learner autonomy as convergent to a large extent. D. Kiraly and G. Grow both accept the fact that at the early stages of learning, students tend to be dependent on their teachers. The main contrast between the two researchers concerns the role of the dependent stage in the holistic perspective on learning. While D. Kiraly concentrates on efforts to transgress the dependent stage towards learner autonomy as soon as possible, G. Grow shows more tolerance for dependent learning, stating that some learners tend to stay dependent. In his opinion, "being a dependent learner it is not a defect; it can however be a serious limitation" (Grow 1991: 129).

D. Kiraly's (2000) view seems an evidently more advantageous approach in the context of T&I education. There is perhaps not much ground for G. Grow's (1991) tolerance of learners staying dependent, if the learner trains to become a professional translator and a person capable of personal and professional change in the future. The dependent learner has virtually no chance of developing meta-cognitive skills, underlying translation as a profession (*cf.* Moser-Mercer 2008) or make his learning significant (Rogers 1951). Thus although G. Grow is perhaps right that some students will never reach the higher stages in learning, it is D. Kiraly's (2000) perspective – backed up with L. Vygotsky's idea of the Zone of Proximal Development – that we find far more advantageous for the T&I classroom.

Simultaneously, we admit that G. Grow's (1991) model is quite convincing in showing that learning takes place through repetitive cycles of transgressions between Stages 1 to 4, not necessarily reaching further than Stage 2 or 3. In other words, G. Grow's view of learner autonomy

is more selective: some learning can be empowered, while some does not have to. In contrast, D. Kiraly (2000) seems to rely on the idea of linear passage from dependence to autonomy: once a learner becomes autonomous, he/she tends to replicate the same learning transformation by analogy in other domains of learning. G. Grow's (1991) view of learning is more flexible and sees autonomy as more context-dependent.[56] G. Grow's views can be useful for T&I educators in addressing classroom situations where students fail to join the empowering narrative and insist on remaining dependent learners. Being aware of this selective nature of autonomy, T&I educators can develop more effective strategies of empowering such students.

A corollary of G. Grow's approach to autonomy is his preference for context-dependent negotiating of the control over learning in the classroom (Grow 1991: 133), rather than for the linear, gradual passing of control over learning to students – as advocated by D. Kiraly (2000). We find our own stance on this matter closer to G. Grow's. For us, the T&I classroom is a space for power and sense negotiations, not for unidirectional relinquishing of control. This constant negotiation is part of what we call *sharing* the classroom between the students and the teacher. The need for the teacher to stay in negotiated control manifests itself specifically in educational assessment. It is the teacher's pivotal role in assessment that leads us to assume that the idea of the consequent relinquishing of control over learning to the students in the T&I classroom, as proposed by D. Kiraly (2000), can be disempowering for the teacher as facilitator and for the learner. This problem is discussed in further detail in Chapter 7.

In this section we attempted to discuss the similarities and contrasts between the viewpoints on learner autonomy expressed by P. Candy (1987), G. Grow (1991) and D. Kiraly (2000). Yet, the major objective was to show the complex nature of the concept as such. Our discussion has revealed that learner/teacher autonomy is not *programmable* as an explicit educational objective. Neither can it be proclaimed as an obligatory educational policy for T&I curriculum. Learner/teacher autonomy is achievable in the process of shared negotiation of control

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56 We need to remark here that in his later works D. Kiraly adopts a far more context-dependent, situated or situational approach to learning, which is also evident in the translation projects he presents in his contributions. See *e.g.* D. Kiraly (2006, 2009, 2013a, 2013b).

over learning in the T&I classroom. Autonomy is not an absolute value. A learner and a teacher can become autonomous through their working on the educational tasks together.

2. G. Grow's (1991) Stage 4 and the concept of heutagogy by S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000)

According to G. Grow (1991: 134), Stage 4 learners "set their own goals and standards – with or without help from experts." Thus, in Stage 4, learning may take place without a teacher being directly involved in the learning process. Of course, G. Grow's Stage 4 does not preclude teacher-supported learning. At the same time, he intriguingly declares that "the ultimate task of a Stage 4 teacher is to become unnecessary" (Grow 1991: 136). This statement by G. Grow evokes two questions on our side. Firstly, is Stage 4 learning possible within the confines of the formal T&I curricular regime? The second question relates to the first one: is it indeed possible to think about learning in T&I educational and professional context as *teacherless* (unfacilitated)?

On the one hand, the postulated ultimate *disappearance* of the teacher from the didactic system is a natural consequence of students' graduating from institutions of formal education and of their transition to the profession. From now on, they will have to learn without the teacher – in a classical didactic sense. The task of preparing the T&I students for autonomous functioning in all aspects of life after graduation is a major tenet of any empowerment-oriented approach to T&I education. In this sense, Stage 4 learning can be an attractive perspective for T&I educators.

On the other hand, in a later, online comment to his (1991) article, G. Grow observes that "[f]ully self-directed learning is not possible in an institutional setting," yet he adds that making people ready to learn as Stage 4 learners is "the single most important outcome of formal education" (Grow 1991, expanded online edition). Consequently, if Stage 4 learning is a question of the future after graduation, the curriculum can confine itself to Stages 1 to 3 – a stance that corresponds directly to D. Kiraly's (2000) views on the matter. In that case, the help of the facilitator is indispensable.

Also in our opinion, learning – as we understand it in the T&I educational context – will always depend on the facilitator. At the same time, it is worth observing that in an approach to education like ours, which employs the idea of *multiple voices* (*cf.* González Davies 2004) and of *sharing* the classroom space, the role of the facilitator can be played by other protagonists of the classroom interaction than the classical teacher: peer students, experts, clients, future employers, *etc.* What is more, in our opinion, when a learner reaches Stage 4, and becomes *autodidact* – as called by D. Kiraly (2000) or P. Candy (1987) – he/she is likely to simultaneously perform in the roles of the learner and of the learning facilitator. Planning one's own learning environment (*e.g.* finding quality time, deciding on learning resources) and reflecting on the process (*e.g.* self-assessment, decisions about further learning) can be called a form of becoming *one's own teacher*.

Taking all the above into account, we are ready to argue that the role of the teacher in Stage 4 learning is far more important than G. Grow (1991) is ready to recognize. In view of the fact that the role of the teacher can be played by the learner him/herself, the idea of *teacherless* learning seems generally unconvincing. Also the social context in which individual learning or work takes place can be said to perform as scaffolding, facilitating learning or problem solving. For example, a simple remark by a colleague about a new online dictionary worth trying for translation purposes can be an effective case of learning facilitation (teaching), even though the role is played incidentally (non-formally) by the colleague in question.

However, our discussion above leads us to a kind of paradox: to perform successfully as translators/interpreters, students-graduates need to become Stage 4 learners, yet formal T&I education can hardly cater for this need. In our view, this paradox needs to be solved if T&I education is to fulfil its ambitions of preparing young people for the challenges of their T&I careers. This is why later in this monograph we try to investigate possibilities of solving the problem of Stage 4 learning in T&I education.

Let us observe that G. Grow's (1991) conception of Stage 4 learning partly results from his critical appraisal of the educational practices he experienced as an academic teacher. This criticism manifests itself in a critical remark already quoted above, where G. Grow accuses current educational institutions of doing "more to perpetuate dependency than to create self-direction" (Grow 1991: 127). In this sense, G. Grow can be

read as suggesting that more should be done within the domain of formal education (Stages 1–3) to ensure the students/graduates ultimate transition to Stage 4 learning. A similar, radically critical view of contemporary educational practices pervades the paper by S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000), presenting an educational conception which they call *heutagogy*. This concept is introduced by S. Hase, C. Kenyon in contrast to M. Knowles' concept of *andragogy* (see Chapter 4 above). Although S. Hase, C. Kenyon express their acknowledgement of M. Knowles' notion of adult and self-directed learning, they call for a more radical shift in thinking about contemporary education, or to be precise, for a transition towards autonomous self-education. The quotation below shows how they justify their claims and how they define heutagogy.

> While andragogy (Knowles, 1970) provided many useful approaches for improving educational methodology, and indeed has been accepted almost universally, it still has connotations of a teacher-learner relationship. It may be argued that the rapid rate of change in society, and the so-called information explosion, suggest that we should now be looking at an educational approach where it is the learner himself who determines what and how learning should take place. Heutagogy, the study of self-determined learning, may be viewed as a natural progression from earlier educational methodologies – in particular from capability development - and may well provide the optimal approach to learning in the twenty-first century. (Hase, Kenyon 2000: 2)

It is also interesting to note how the two authors identify the educational challenges of the present and the future.

> There is, however, another revolution taking place in educational circles that appears to go one step beyond andragogy, to a new set of principles and practices that may have application across the whole spectrum of the education and learning lifespan. This revolution recognises the changed world in which we live. A world in which: information is readily and easily accessible; where change is so rapid that traditional methods of training and education are totally inadequate; discipline based knowledge is inappropriate to prepare for living in modern communities and workplaces; learning is increasingly aligned with what we do; modern organisational structures require flexible learning practices; and there is a need for immediacy of learning. In response to this environment there have emerged some innovative approaches that address the deficiencies of the pedagogical and andragogical methods. (Hase, Kenyon 2000: 2)

The quotations above suffice to show that S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000) call for a radical, revolutionary re-evaluation of what they see as contemporary educational practices. Although the list of arguments they give to support their ideas is long and each of these could be subject to analysis, we only confine ourselves to discussing a small selection of their thoughts and their consequences.[57]

Firstly, we point out the strong intention of the quoted authors to eliminate "connotations of a teacher-learner relationship" (Hase, Kenyon 2000: 2) from adult education, since teacher-based methods – "traditional methods of training and education" (Hase, Kenyon 2000: 2) – do not match the challenges posed by present-day and future global context of education and life. The argument posed against teacher-mediated learning is that it is often "too slow" to be effective in opening learners to the knowledge they need immediately. The concept of *immediacy of learning* is used by S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000) to show that the "distance" between education, professional work, and active individual and social life has almost disappeared. However radical this stance may seem, it *does* sound pertinent for the context of T&I education and particularly for professional T&I performance. The ability to make immediate (time-constrained), yet accountable translation or interpreting-related decisions – perhaps falling within the realm of strategic competence in PACTE's terms or translation provision competence in the EMT model (see Chapter 1 for details) – is indeed a strategic translator's/interpreter's resource. The notion of immediacy of learning also corresponds well with the skills of reducing (negotiating) the *cost/time* of knowledge construction. This economizing (mini–max) strategy can help a translator decide on a collaborative solution to certain problems, or it may motivate him/her to make a quick, autonomous translation/interpreting decision. In our view, the concept of immediacy of learning further highlights a need to think about the T&I classroom in anthropocentric terms, as it

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57 Examples of educational use of heutagogy can be found *e.g.* in L. Blaschke (2012) or E. Czerka (2009). S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2007) brings the authors' comments on the first version of the notion of heutagogy, shows how it corresponds to other vital educational ideas or theories (systems theory, complexity theory, action research, *etc.*). The use of complexity theory in T&I education is discussed *e.g.* in D. Kiraly (2006). Worth highlighting in this context is I. Horváth (2007) view of learner autonomy and her concept of self-access that seems to bear at least a partial semblance of the approach by S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000).

shows that a contemporary T&I professional must be equipped with skills of *immediate* knowledge construction. Moreover, this notion also shows a serious deficiency of an objectivist and content-oriented instruction, since it is likely to make knowledge more distant to the learner, rather than making it more immediately available.

Although S. Hase, C. Kenyon's (2000) heutagogy is by principle learning without a teacher, we would like to consider a potential, less radical interpretation of their approach. It seems viable to assume that heutagogy can also use educators as effective learning facilitators, as long as they help their students reduce the *distance to knowledge*. We adopt this – potential – reading also in the light of our previous speculations concerning the role of the teacher in G. Grow's (1991) Stage 4 learning. We have observed there that whether learning facilitation is performed by a person other than the learner, or the learner–teacher functions overlap as performed by one person, the role of education facilitator seems inseparable from learning – at least as thinkable for the T&I educational and professional context.

Even though the radicalism of S. Hase, C. Kenyon's (2000) argumentation helps highlight the deficiencies of educational practices that tend to overestimate the role of formal education in learning, it perhaps ignores some of the problems signalled by G. Grow (1991) and diminishes the role of a collaborative classroom as envisaged by D. Kiraly (2000). Despite the fact that his Stage 4 is a radical educational proposal too – especially as seen in contrast to D. Kiraly's (2000) choice of Stage 3 as ultimate for T&I education – G. Grow (1991) remains far more open to the presence of the teacher in the learning process than S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000). Despite his claims about a limited role of the teacher in learning, G. Grow (1991) does not explicitly speak of the teacher's educational actions as ineffective almost by definition. Also, S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000) seem to ignore the regularities governing autonomous learning – as pointed out by G. Grow (1991). Unless heutagogy is ready to embrace the repetitive nature of human search for learning autonomy, it cannot be as universal an educational principle as its authors would like it to be. On the other hand, when it embraces the fact that autonomy is changing and context-dependent, it will have to admit the inevitable role of the learning facilitator – at least at some stages and in some forms.

To sum up, we largely subscribe to the critical assessment of contemporary educational practices that make S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000) postulate the idea of heutagogy. Similarly, we find their idea of immediacy of learning instrumental in showing yet another disadvantage of objectivist thinking and acting in T&I education. Still, we are not convinced if heutagogy is a universal educational solution, as envisaged by S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000).

Irrespective of the degree of radicalism of their views concerning learner's autonomy, G. Grow (1991) and S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000) rightly point out certain problems that contemporary education in general, including T&I education, has to solve. Firstly, T&I education is doomed to ineffectiveness, unless it is strategically oriented towards students' reaching the self-educational stage. Yet, achieving this stage cannot mean that students and future professionals will not need to participate in more or less institutionalized, or otherwise facilitated (teacher-mediated) modes of learning. Following G. Grow's (1991) argument, we have to assume that becoming a heutagogical learner cannot prevent students' regression to more dependent stages of learning, even though their general orientation is that towards learning autonomy.

An important aspect of S. Hase, C. Kenyon's (2000) heutagogical conception is that it tries to change the optics of educational reflection: from a close-ended position where the main decisions defining the programmes, objectives and procedures are taken by the representatives of the educational institutions (*cf.* Mourshed *et al.* 2014) towards an open-ended stance, also catering for the needs of the learner and his/her relationship with the world where he/she is preparing to function after graduation. This view is in harmony with the idea of *multiple voices* and of the T&I classroom as a *shared* space for all the stakeholders of the educational process, which we advocate hereby.

It has already been remarked here that G. Grow (1991) finds Stage 4 learning virtually impossible to implement in the formal education classroom format. S. Hase, C. Kenyon's (2000) call for educational heutatogy as emancipating from the constraints of formal education can also be interpreted in terms of distrust in the potential of the classical curricular approach.

> Our education systems and particularly post compulsory education need to develop people [...] who can be proactive rather than simply reactive

> in their thinking, and who can be more involved citizens. This will only
> occur by changing the way in which we help people learn. There is a need
> to go beyond the possible self-interest of the academic and the teacher...
> (Hase, Kenyon 2000: 7)

Even though S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000) do not question the formal curriculum overtly, their statements are radical enough to suggest a significant change that they expect contemporary curricular education to undergo. If learning is to prevail over teaching, and if "everyday, unorganized experiences and the process of reflection" (Hase, Kenyon 2000: 4) are to be educational hallmarks, *deformalization* – or in I. Illich's (1971) words, deschooling – of (T&I) education must take place.

As signalled above, we find these two viewpoints impossible to ignore by T&I educators. If professional translators are to be expected to work in a highly autonomous mode, and if that degree of autonomy is not presupposed in T&I training programmes, T&I education needs to look for solutions that expand the formal curricular perspective on learning in order to encourage the students' transition to Stage 4 learning.

Notwithstanding the above, we admit that contemporary educational practice, including T&I education, has already recognized a need to negotiate between the formal and the non-formal aspects of education. Internships and student practices, so frequently found in current translation training programmes, are a way of acknowledging the limits of professional education "locked up" at the university. The huge potential that such educational initiatives offer still needs recognition in some T&I education environments that we are familiar with. On the basis of our own educational experience – yet being aware of its limits – we can pinpoint a major problem with how curriculum designers plan internships or student translation practices. In most programmes we are familiar with, internships are regarded to be an additional educational component, that is one for which the university educators take only partial control. It is formally recognized by the university and its partners, but is hardly ever used as a channel for communication between them. Such communication practices could help improve the cooperation between the partners, allow introducing a larger variety of internship programmes on the basis of best practices and offer research opportunities for the university staff, *e.g.* on the effectiveness of the internships as seen from all the relevant perspectives.

Also, when looking at the idea of internships or student practice programmes, we have observed that they are hardly ever regarded as a source of knowledge used to inform the educational theory and practice implemented in the formal curriculum itself.

In the perspective on education we attempt to develop in this monograph, with an emphasis on the notion of *sharing* the educational space by all the stakeholders of the educational process, internships and student practices need to be more strongly connected with the formal curricular T&I training. In fact, in the latter part of this monograph, we embark on a perspective on T&I education in which formal curriculum is not only accompanied by, but very closely integrated with a non-formal educational component. Under our approach, the formal and the non-formal educational formats are conceived of as two inseparable parts of T&I curriculum. The formal and the non-formal components are in a systemic interrelation: they influence and support one another. Before we are ready to present our own proposals, we need to investigate the notion of non-formal learning as discussed by education theorists.

3. Formal and non-formal learning

One of the pivotal assumptions made in this monograph is that learning is not caused by teaching. This assumption is also accepted by numerous researchers of learning and education. Some of them try to work out educational practices that can facilitate learning, which often also entails reducing the role of formal education in such types of significant learning as professional training. Other scholars strive to show that teaching and learning can be related effectively, yet learning as autonomous knowledge construction should be seen as primary to learning facilitated (induced) by classical teaching. Some such researchers postulate that learning can take place in multiple environments, institutional education being only one of them. This is why they argue in favour of a distinction between formal learning, as contrasted with non-formal and/or informal learning. P. Coombs *et al.* (1973) were among the first researchers who defined the three types of learning as distinct but related. The relation may be presented graphically in the following way:
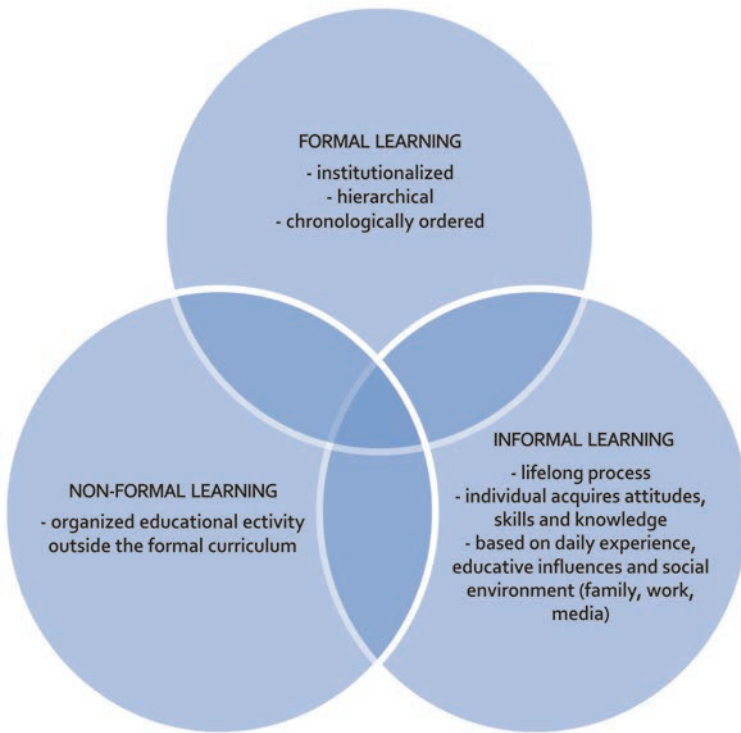
Figure 5. Formal, informal and non-formal learning (on the basis of Coombs *et al.* 1973)

As may be inferred from Figure 5, formal and non-formal learning share the characteristics of being organized and planned, although with a different extent of institutionalization. Informal learning, in contrast, is devoid of direct institutional influences, but they can also be used to facilitate informal learning, listed among a wide range of experiences that make people construct knowledge, skills and attitudes. While the adjectives *formal* and *non-formal* are used to name forms of education, *informal learning* is perhaps best understood as a learning style. This latter concept puts learning and the learner in the spotlight, leaving the related educational process in the background. This is why, for the purposes of this monograph, we simplify the tripartite division presented above and substitute it with a dichotomy between the formal and the non-formal educational frameworks. We simultaneously assume that the informal aspect mentioned above is represented in both the formal and the non-formal approach to education.

Our analysis of the research in the field[58] made us adopt the following criteria for distinguishing between the formal and non-formal education:

Table 8. Principles of formal and informal/non-formal education

Formal education	Informal/non-formal education
organized content	incidental learning
planned and evaluated results	open-ended
taught	self-taught

The criteria listed in the table above represent the extremes on the scale of contrasts between the formal and the non-formal educational frameworks. Although most researchers *do* distinguish between the two types of learning and education, the main idea behind their research is not to separate one from the other, but rather to seek synergy effects.

4. M. Eraut's concepts of non-formal learning and tacit knowledge

One of the most prominent researchers to adopt a division into formal and non-formal learning and education is M. Eraut (2000, 2009). He first of all postulates that there are different kinds of knowledge, which in consequence translates onto different types of learning. For M. Eraut (2000), knowledge can be represented in a *codified* or a *personal* form.[59]

> *Codified knowledge*, also referred to as public knowledge or propositional knowledge, is (1) subject to quality control by editors, peer review and debate and (2) given status by incorporation into educational programmes, examinations and courses. It includes propositions about skilled behaviour, but not skills or 'knowing how'. (Eraut 2000: 113–114)

Codified knowledge is defined above in relation to its professional and educational status. In terms of a formal curriculum, the notion of

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58 See *e.g.* P. Fordham (1993), T. Jeffs, M. Smith (eds.) (1990) or D. Livingstone (2001).

59 It must be noted here that we do not read M. Eraut's (2000) distinction between types of knowledge as epistemological. For us, M. Eraut's categories are useful metaphors which he employs in order to distinguish between ways in which people learn.

codified knowledge perhaps corresponds best with the concept of edu-
cational content: knowledge understood as texts and tasks that are part
of classroom interaction. In this sense, codified knowledge also seems
related with B. Joyce's *et al.* (1992) notion of instructional, explicit edu-
cational effects (see Chapter 3 above). For M. Eraut (2000: 114), this kind
of knowledge is "identified by its source and epistemological status," and
is "explicit by definition." It is interesting to note that M. Eraut (2000) ex-
cludes skills and procedural knowledge from the scope of his definition.
These components are representative of the latter type of knowledge, as
defined below.

> *Personal knowledge* is defined as the cognitive resource which a person
> brings to a situation that enables them to think and perform. This in-
> corporates codified knowledge in its personalised form, together with
> procedural knowledge and process knowledge, experiential knowledge
> and impressions in episodic memory. Skills are part of this knowledge,
> thus allowing representations of competence, capability or expertise in
> which the use of skills and propositional knowledge are closely inte-
> grated. (Eraut 2000: 114)

Personal knowledge is a cognitive resource that integrates the codified
knowledge as (re-)constructed by a particular person, including the re-
lated skills and situational know-how. It is identified by "the context
and manner of its use" (Eraut 2000: 114). Personal knowledge is a re-
sult of the learner's interaction with the explicit educational content.
This interaction always leads to the explicit and tacit learning results.
The tacit personal knowledge is developed through informal/non-
formal learning.

> Informal learning is often treated as a residual category to describe
> any kind of learning which does not take place within, or follow from,
> a formally organised learning programme or event. However, for those
> of us who believe that most human learning does not occur in formal
> contexts, the utility of such a catch-all label is not very great. Moreover
> the term 'informal' is associated with so many other features of a situa-
> tion – dress, discourse, behaviour, diminution of social differences, etc.
> – that its colloquial application as a descriptor of learning contexts may
> have little to do with learning per se. To avoid such confusion, we prefer
> to use the term 'non-formal learning' as the contrast to formal learning,
> and to make further distinctions within that heading. (Eraut 2000: 114)

According to M. Eraut (2000), non-formal learning manifest itself in three different types of learning processes, which can be further differentiated according to the time when the stimulus for learning occurs.

Table 9. M. Eraut's typology of non-formal learning processes (2000: 116)

Time of Stimulus	Implicit Learning	Reactive Learning	Deliberative Learning
Past Episode(s)	Implicit linkage of past memories with current experience	Brief *near-spontaneous reflection* on past episodes, communications, events, experiences	*Review* of past actions, communications, events, experiences; More systematic Reflection
Current Experience	A selection from experience enters the memory	*Incidental* noting of facts, opinions, impressions, ideas; *Recognition of* learning opportunities	*Engagement* in decision-making, problem-solving, planned informal learning
Future Behaviour	Unconscious effects of previous experiences	Being prepared for *emergent* learning opportunities	*Planned* learning goals; *Planned* learning opportunities

The typology suggested by M. Eraut (2000) depicts non-formal learning as a complex knowledge construction phenomenon. One dimension of M. Eraut's typology shows that non-formal learning can be a matter of degree, since it depends on the degree of the learner's awareness of his/her learning process. The other, temporal dimension in M. Eraut's typology shows how non-formal learning can change in time. In consequence, one can observe how the learner can proceed from the implicit linkage of past and present experiences to planning learning goals and opportunities.

Despite his strong focus on non-formal aspects of learning and education, M. Eraut (2000) cannot be regarded as a critic of a formal curriculum. Instead, he is a promoter of the idea that the mission of an educational system with a professional focus is to guide people towards their personal knowledge. Education is not to *provide knowledge* – make learners understand or memorize educational content. On the contrary, its ultimate goal is to equip learners with resources

"to think and perform" (Eraut 2000: 114). To achieve that goal, education needs to embrace the idea of non-formal learning as useful for its purposes.

As hinted above, M. Eraut (2000) is interested in how to make education effective in preparing people for professional performance. In his view, such effective educational programmes must be shaped in accordance with how people learn when working, and not based on the educators' views on what they think learners need.

> Until we understand how professionals actually learn as they go about their everyday work we cannot fully comprehend what we need to do to help students for the professional environments they will work in. (Eraut 2009: 1)

It is inferable from M. Eraut's observations quoted above that, if an academic programme aspires to be authentically professionally-oriented, it should reconsider its priorities. M. Eraut redefines the frame of *significance* (*cf.* Rogers 1951) for programmes like the ones in T&I education. His frame is built primarily on the principles of professional practice, while educators' ideas or ideals come second.

M. Eraut (2009: 6) defines four principles of professional practice – actions that a professional is engaged in as part of his/her performance: (a) assessing clients and client-related interactions; (b) deciding what to do in the context of (a); (c) pursuing a course of action, as agreed with clients and/or collaborators; (d) meta-cognitive monitoring of the actions and their results. M. Eraut (2009) observes that if a professional's performance is to meet the above criteria, it is not enough for him/her to have the explicit knowledge of these criteria (*cf.* the PACTE model). He/she needs the implicit knowledge to *tell* him/her what to do in a particular professional situation. As M. Eraut critically pinpoints, the prevalent tendency in the research and practice of competence-based professional education is to "assume that competence and/or its attributes or components are generalizable skills, where there is little evidence to support this claim" (Eraut 2009: 2) (*cf.* the PACTE model – as we tend to interpret it in Chapter 1 and 2 above). In contrast to such approaches, M. Eraut points out a need for contextualizing educational approaches to competence and skill development – an appeal which goes hand in hand with voices like M. González Davies (2004), D. Kiraly (2000), C. Nord (1996) or J. Vienne (2000) in the field of T&I education.

The contextualization, or situating, of professional learning is needed, since, according to M. Eraut (2009), the way in which people put their competences to practice is changeable and extremely context-dependent. To be able to successfully perform as a professional, one needs to develop three types of skills: (a) his/her understanding of what to do and how to do it in a given situation; (b) a more and more intuitive decision-making style; (c) and routine procedures of profession-related problem-solving (Eraut 2009: 3). These three aspects of professional performance are, according to M. Eraut (2009: 3), the different forms in which tacit knowledge manifests itself.

M. Eraut presents two essential advantages of tacit knowledge. Firstly, he defines tacit knowledge as a precondition for a transgression from the state of being competent towards being proficient (Eraut 2009: 4). Secondly, according to M. Eraut, the knowledge of handling relations with people (colleagues and clients) is also to a large extent a tacit type of knowledge:

> One of the most important features of any workplace or community context is the people with whom one interacts - colleagues, friends, customers, clients, acquaintances. Yet much knowledge of other people is tacit: although one might gossip about them, one does not often have to put knowledge of people into words unless it is a specific part of one's job, and one might find it difficult to do so. Yet such knowledge provides the basis of unhesitating daily interactions with others. Getting to know other people typically involves the absorption of a great deal of incidental information, acquired by being a participant observer on occasions when both were present. […] Typically you learn more about the people you meet than you are able to explain, and some of that knowledge may be so provisional that you are reluctant to make it explicit. Yet you still take that knowledge into account when you interact with that person, because you are unlikely to stop and think unless there is something problematic about the occasion. What influences your behaviour is your aggregated knowledge of that person and that aggregation is usually a largely tacit process to which memories of incidents, encounters and episodes contribute in ways you cannot tell. Such knowledge is unlikely, therefore, to be under one's critical control. (Eraut 2009: 9)

To sum up, M. Eraut's (2000, 2009) contributions can be used as an argument in favour of introducing non-formal educational elements. The non-formal educational initiatives can be planned to cater

for the development of tacit knowledge and experience, unavailable within the confines of an exclusively formal T&I curriculum. Apart from the benefits for students as future professionals, the introduction of non-formal aspects into a T&I curriculum can also help improve the curriculum itself. For example, by introducing a non-formal component into a T&I curriculum, its designers can provide students, teachers and other stakeholders with a space where assessment can be more a matter of task-related dialogue than an objectivist evaluative judgement. The non-formal educational context can help all the stakeholders grasp the idea of assessment as part of the dynamic, task-oriented learning interaction. Its communicative value reaches further than the statement of pass/failure, reward/punishment. It is a negotiated construction of understanding of what is expected in terms of quality – rather than in terms of getting a signature or a certificate. In our view, such an approach can help a formal T&I curriculum cater for "unplanned" educational results (*cf.* Joyce *et al.* 1992).

5. S. Billett's pedagogy for the workplace

There is yet another perspective worth presenting in the context of our discussion, which questions the divide into formal and non-formal learning as based on false premises. This view is represented by S. Billett (2001, 2010). Making reference to the constructivist perspective on knowledge construction, S. Billett (2001: 30) observes that learning is fundamental for human functioning, and that it is "ongoing and unavoidable as we think and act. It seems we can no more consciously avoid learning than we can breathing." This is why he does not favour approaching learning as divided into a formal or non-formal kind. His criticism of the divide also stems from his observations of how people perform as a professional. S. Billett (2001) observes that the multitude of factors influencing human learning is such that dividing learning into any category like formal vs. incidental or informal hardly makes sense.

> Such is the complexity of these factors and their contributions to learning that to describe them as incidental or informal is both misleading and imprecise. They are structured and central to doing, knowing and learning. (Billett 2001: 36)

Learning understood as an integral part of human daily experience is the first out of six premises on which S. Billett builds his *pedagogy for the workplace* (Billett 2001: 6). The second premise is that workplace pedagogy should be granted an equal status and recognition with other pedagogical approaches.

> Learning and working are interdependent. Work practices provide and structure activities and guidance in ways that influence the learning of the knowledge required for performance at work. These experiences are not informal or unstructured, as is often contended; instead, they are structured by the requirements of work practice rather than the practice of educational institutions. The types of activities individuals engage in and the guidance they access are central to learning the knowledge required for work. Workplace experiences are often of a kind that is unlikely to be replicated in educational institutions or through substitute means. The knowledge constructed in workplaces is likely to be different from that constructed in the classroom, rather than being inherently inferior. This is because the activities individuals engage in, and the kinds of guidance and support that contribute to learning, are different. Each of these settings has goals and activities that are the product of their institutional practices. In particular, workplace learning experiences are likely to be authentic in terms of the goal-directed activity of the workplace. To reiterate, the contributions of the workplace to learning are rich, complex and probably difficult to avoid. They are certainly neither incidental nor ad hoc. They are central to the workplace itself. The key concern is for these contributions to be directed towards developing transferable vocational knowledge that is purposeful for the individual and the enterprise in which they are employed. (Billett 2001: 39)

The main justification the S. Billett uses to support the claim to put his approach on a par with other pedagogies is that learning experiences in a workplace can never be fully simulated (situated) in the context of institutionalized education. However, this point does not mean that S. Billett does not see it worthwhile to enhance formal educational programmes to help prepare young people for successful professional performance.

In his third premise, S. Billett (2001: 7) admits that "learning simply by 'just doing it'" is not a universal or the only principle governing learning in a workplace. He makes it clear that no professional learning can take place in a social or organizational vacuum:

> There are clear limitations to learning in workplaces as part of everyday work. These are more obvious when access to appropriate guidance and support is lacking. […] There are also consequences for individuals' learning when access to sources of understanding and guidance is limited or simply unavailable. Skilled workers have to respond to new tasks in the workplace and transfer their vocational practice to other situations. Consequently, workplace learning experiences need to be structured to develop this capacity in workers. (Billett 2001: 7)

Premise number four shows S. Billett's deep understanding of how much professional success depends on negotiating one's presence, voice and performance in the social context of work. He calls workplaces *contested terrain* (Billett 2001: 7), where the whole spectrum of values, interests, needs and relationships coincide to influence how one performs – to a large extent irrespectively of one's competence profile.

> Experts have the capacity to categorise tasks by the means of their solution. […] Later, through negotiation, they may extend the options or be guided to discuss just one option. As a result of a rich repertoire of experiences in their vocation, the breadth and organisation of experts' knowledge permits this categorisation of problems by their means of resolution. […] These experiences assist the practitioner to select the most viable or appropriate course of action for the workplace task. (Billett 2001: 56, sources quoted in the original text omitted)

S. Billett's (2001) illustration of how professional performance depends on one's situational understanding highlights a need for the skills of negotiating terrain. This idea of negotiating space coincides with the notion of *sharing* the T&I classroom employed in this monograph.

Also worth emphasising in the context of the present discussion is the role which S. Billett assigns to self-monitoring.

> Experts can also effectively monitor the task as it is being performed, and use that monitoring to assist in the task's successful completion. This monitoring comprises the expert testing and refining of their selected responses to a problem. (Billett 2001: 57)

S. Billett's viewpoint harmonizes with our anthropocentric profiling of learning and professional performance of translators and interpreters. It also corroborates with such proposals in the field of T&I education like M. González Davies (2004), D. Kiraly (2000) or B. Moser-Mercer (2008).

S. Billett's (2001) fifth premise exhibits his aspirations for enriching educational professional curricula with experiences derived from workplace learning. He makes reference to the concept of apprenticeship, also evoked by M. González Davies (2004) and D. Kiraly (2000) in the context of T&I education.

> Finally, the ideas in this book are not meant to deny the important contribution to the development of vocational knowledge provided by educational institutions. Perhaps the most desirable form of initial preparation for the vocations and their further development is through the kinds of integrated experiences enjoyed by apprentices. This is most potent when the contributions of the school, college or university-based and workplace-based components are complementary. It is anticipated that the ideas presented in this book may be used in such situations to enrich the on-the-job preparation for integrated programs such as those enjoyed by the trades and professions in many countries. (Billett 2001: 7–8)

To achieve the objective mentioned in the quotation above, educators need to abandon such labels for learning as formal, informal or non-formal as misleading rather than explanatory.

> It is imprecise to refer to workplaces as 'informal' learning settings. Workplace experiences are likely to be structured by the enterprise's work practices (i.e. its goals and procedures), just as students' experiences in educational institutions are. The key difference lies in what is 'formalised'. Also, teaching and rich learning are not always synonymous, as transferable learning can occur without the presence of teachers. The absence of teachers does not of itself condemn learning outcomes to be weak and concrete. Learning can be independent and interdependent, with the latter probably best able to be achieved through guidance rather than direct teaching. It is also inaccurate to characterise workplace learning as concrete. Learning in any environment will be more or less transferable, depending on the quality of learning processes experienced. Therefore, the same claims about the structure, adaptability and robustness of outcomes can be made of workplaces as of educational institutions. (Billett 2001: 21)

Taking into account all the above observations, we would like to adopt S. Billett's (2001) integrative view of education, work, education for work and education in the workplace as inspiration for what we call a non-formal curricular component for T&I education, which we present later

in this monograph. S. Billett's ideas concerning the relation between learning, education and work prove that he supports lifelong learning and holistic education. Looking at learning in an integrated way, he seeks opportunities for creating a curriculum for workplace that will use non-formal learning experiences in harmony with formal educational efforts. This harmony is intended to:

> maximise what is provided freely through these [everyday – K. K.] expe-riences and augment them by interventions that extend those contribu-tions while inhibiting or curtailing factors that obstruct the development of vocational expertise. (Billett 2001: 103)

In our view, our proposal of a *shared* academic T&I curriculum, inviting the voices of all the stakeholders of learning and work, can bring positive effects both to the Academia and to workplaces (organizations), for it can help shape their educational practices and curricula. In this way our approach could also become truly lifelong and holistic.

Conclusions

In this chapter, we have continued our explorations in the field of theory of education. One aim was to seek ideas that could inform the T&I edu-cational debate in general. Another was to find support for the ideas that underlie our own views of T&I education, such as a need for *sharing* the T&I classroom and curriculum by all those who can benefit from it. A pivotal idea of the first part of this chapter is autonomy, its educational understanding and use. G. Grow (1991) is a study that helps us realize that autonomy is a more complex issue that it may seem at first. The re-searchers discussed hereby regard learning and learner's autonomy as the foundation of any educational activity. Autonomy is also a central value for our approach, with its anthropocentric epistemology high-lighted so often throughout this text. Yet, G. Grow's (1991) observations make it clear that pathways to autonomy are neither simple nor irrevers-ible. Hence, inspiring students, teachers and all the other stakeholders to be autonomous learners and professionals is a never-ending process.

Another intricacy connected with educational and professional autonomy is that it cannot be understood in terms of isolation of either learning or work. Individual work is always embedded in a wider social

context. The point is not to free an individual from the confines of formal education, but to build *e.g.* T&I educational frameworks in such a way that they truly support the individuals in their growth, rather than being an obstacle on their way to knowledge (*cf.* the concept of *immediacy of learning* in Hase, Kenyon 2000). In fact, observations in the field of workplace education reveal that autonomy is only possible when learners are granted guidance and support (Billett 2001, 2010), and when they have a chance to build relations that help them construct their personal *tacit knowledge* of their workplace (Eraut 2001, 2009).

A motif that is present in most – if not all – the studies discussed in this chapter is that the formal curriculum, like the one in T&I education, is not enough to do justice to the educational needs of the present-day adult or young adult learner, aspiring to become a successful professional. G. Grow (1991) believes that autonomous learning is never fully realizable within the confines of the formal curriculum. Other researchers argue that the sooner learning becomes less formalized, non-formal or self-directed (informal), the better for the learners, educators and the society at large (Eraut 2000, Hase, Kenyon 2000, Jeffs, Smith (eds.) 1990). Yet others opt for abandoning the divide into the formal and the non-formal aspects of learning and education, in order to integrate learning and working (practice) as principally inseparable processes (Billett 2001, 2010).

The final note to make here is that studies like the ones by M. Eraut or S. Billett, and a host of others we have decided to put outside the scope of the discussion in this monograph,[60] prove that it is no longer enough for professional academic education, including T&I academic courses, to think in terms of helping students in their transition from education to the market, or, to put it in other words, to make graduates employable. Contemporary professional education needs to have a deeper look to the future of a learning person and cooperate with various

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60 Among these contributions, the following seem to be invaluable food for thought on issues of relating education and professional performance in a *shared* (open to negotiating the voices and needs of all the stakeholders) way: M. Arthur *et al.* (1989); S. Billett (2011); S. Billett *et al.* (2006); R. Catts *et al.* (eds.) (2011); D. Livingstone (2001, 2006). A separate mention is dedicated to the website of the Surrey Centre for Excellence in Professional Training and Education (SCEPTrE) and the numerous resources, such as publications, recorded lectures and presentations available there. N. Jackson, R. Law (eds.) (2010) is an example of a valuable collection of contributions in the field.

workplace partners over a shared curriculum of negotiated values, objectives and tasks. This kind of holistic curriculum needs to cover the longest possible educational horizon (life-long learning), equipping the student/graduate with skills needed for a transition from a novice (competence) to a professional (expertise) in all the relevant aspects of his/her career performance.

Data research in support of anthropocentric and holistic T&I education

In this monograph, we suggest that T&I education needs to be more consistent in applying social constructivist ideas. Although variations of social constructivist thought seem to be generally accepted in T&I educational discourse, some concepts and conceptions proposed in the literature of the subject show that this wide acceptance rather concerns the methodological level, less so the epistemological one. This is why, in our monograph we have proposed an anthropocentric epistemological foundation for T&I education. Our approach also calls for a revision of the roles played by the T&I classroom protagonists. Also, we suggest that the concept of educational content be substituted in T&I educational debate and practice with a more relational and more dynamic concept of educational task. We have sought support for our views and proposals in a selection of theories of knowledge, learning, education, adult education and workplace learning, also including some related contributions in the field of T&I education.

An idea that recurs in the majority of the works discussed above is that contemporary effective professional education needs to rely on a holistic approach to training and curriculum. Drawing upon the observations made by the researchers investigated in the previous chapters, we are ready to argue that a holistic (T&I) curriculum can be defined by means of the three following criteria:

a) a holistic curriculum covers not only the moment when a graduate finds a job, but is designed to equip students with knowledge and skills of career making after finding that job (or after starting any other kind of professional activity);

b) to attain the former objective, a holistic curriculum needs to re-sign from monopolistic narratives in education. This monopoly needs to be substituted with an authentic communicative partici-pation of *multiple voices* (González Davies 2004) of all the stake-holders of the (T&I) educational process;

c) the participation of *multiple voices* and their *sharing* the (T&I) educational space can be educationally effective when the social constructivist (anthropocentric, relational) view on the nature of learning is respected in educational reflection and practices.

In this chapter, we attempt to seek empirical support for the claim that a holistic curriculum as described above can be an advantageous educational tool when applied to the field of T&I education. To do so, we choose four research reports that address a variety of aspects of the complex relationship between education and work.

1. Openness to multiple voices in designing and implementing T&I educational programmes

The first of these reports is a general diagnosis of the scale of youth unemployment in a selection of European countries, produced by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014). The report is entitled *Education to Employment: Getting Europe's Youth into Work*, and the main research questions that the authors raise are as follows:

1. Is the scale of the youth-unemployment problem in Europe a result of lack of jobs, lack of skills, or lack of coordination?
2. What are the obstacles that youth face on their journey from education to employment?
3. Which groups of youth and employers in Europe are struggling the most?
4. What can be done to address the problem? (Mourshed *et al.* 2014: 8)[61]

The research gathered 5300 European youth, 2600 employers and 700 educational institutions offering postsecondary level professional or

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61 The discrepancies between education and job market have also been extensively studied by D. Livingstone (*e.g.* 1999, 2006). The latter work is a critique of research-ers and policy makers, who manipulate the system of education without taking a broader perspective on work and work reform.

vocational education from eight EU countries: France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

A gap between the growing number of European youth looking for employment and the shortage of skills that the employers report is among the general findings of the report.

> In the survey of the eight EU countries, one-third of employers said that lack of skills is causing major business problems, in the form of cost, quality or time […]. 27 percent of employers reported that a lack of skills was a major reason they did not fill vacancies. (Mourshed *et al.* 2014: 9)

The authors of the report attempt to identify reasons for this state of affairs. The first point they make concerns the failure of employers, education providers and young people to seek ways of mutual understanding.

> A critical reason for youth not getting the skills employers need is that education providers, young people, and employers do not understand one another […]. In our 2012 global report[62], *Education to Employment: Designing a System that Works*, we concluded that providers, employers, and young people operated in "parallel universes". In Europe, we found the same phenomenon, but to an even greater extent. For example, 74 percent of education providers were confident that their graduates were prepared for work, yet only 38 percent of youth and 35 percent of employers agreed. (Mourshed *et al.* 2014: 9)

The observed state of affairs make the authors conclude that the three stakeholders of the interaction between education and the market function in "parallel universes" (see quotation above), instead of *sharing* reflection and *working out* practices *together*. This lack of cooperation is very well evidenced by the data quoted above. The research results show a huge disproportion between how the researched educational institutions, graduates and employers evaluate the value of their professional education. The evaluation by educators is twice as high as that of the other stakeholders.

The observations made in the report illustrate the phenomenon we named a monopolistic narrative in professional education, or – taken more broadly – in the area of Education to Employment (E2E), as

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62 See M. Mourshed *et al.* (2012).

the authors call it. Students tend to be monopolistic in their expectations that academic studies should give them work. Employers expect the curricula to be recipes for a highly qualified staff. Finally, the exaggerated sense of satisfaction with the professional programmes offered by educators also manifests the way of narrating about the world with only one voice.

In the light of the observations quoted above, a need for academic curriculum designers and teachers to invite *multiple voices* to their programmes and classrooms seems undisputable and urgent, even though it is hard to say to what extent the data in the report by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) are directly applicable to E2E in the field of translation and interpreting in Europe. However, the data collected by K. Klimkowska (2013) show that a considerable number of the Polish students of translation/interpreting experience lack of confidence in their T&I skills and they have doubts about their being well-prepared for successful career-making. The main concept researched in K. Klimkowska (2013) is professional success in the T&I industry as perceived by 436 students of MA translation/interpreting courses. These students represented all full-time MA programmes in T&I offered in Poland about 2012/13.[63]

One of the research questions in K. Klimkowska (2013) concerned the obstacles that the students predict on their way to professional success. Table 10 below shows these questions and the answers given by the respondents.

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63 The research pool consisted of 436 students of all – to the best of the author's knowledge – full-time MA courses translation/interpreting offered around Poland in the academic year 2012–2013. The majority of MA courses in Poland take two years to complete, and the majority of subjects (56.88%) recruited from the first year. The majority of the students were female (81.4%), and the average age in the respondent group was 23.7. The majority of students planned to specialize in English <> Polish translation/interpreting (80.28), with German being second (27.06), French scoring third (13.30), followed by Spanish (11.93) and Russian (8.72) on the list of 18 languages. 58.49% of the subjects planned their T&I career in B language only, 34.63% in A-B-C combination. 30 students out of 436 specialized in more than two languages (6.88% of the total). It is also worth noting that the majority of the subjects assessed their language skills as high and very high (82.79%), and 76.15% declared to have advanced and highly advanced translation competence. For more detail, see K. Klimkowska (2013: 222–227).

Table 10. Obstacles predicted by respondents on their way to professional success as translators/interpreters (Klimkowska 2013: 282)

		Definitely not predicted		Rather not predicted		Rather predicted		Definitely predicted	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1.	Level of T&I related competences	28	6.42	140	32.11	232	53.21	36	8.26
2.	Problems in decision-making	30	6.88	176	40.37	205	47.02	25	5.73
3.	Lack of self-organization, flawed time management	71	16.28	181	41.51	150	34.40	34	7.79
4.	Fears of failure as a professional	39	8.94	140	32.11	224	51.38	33	7.57
5.	Work-related stress	25	5.74	100	22.94	259	59.40	52	11.93
6.	Lack of self-confidence	73	16.74	159	36.47	158	36.24	46	10.55
7.	Insufficient talents and aptitudes	64	14.68	192	44.04	157	36.01	23	5.28
8.	Lack of offers on the local market	27	6.19	98	22.48	230	52.75	81	18.58
9.	Fierce competition on the T&I market	18	4.13	44	10.09	278	63.76	96	22.02
10.	Lack of contacts	32	7.34	112	25.69	223	51.15	69	15.83
11.	Lack of family support	167	38.30	167	38.30	80	18.35	22	5.05
12.	Economic crisis	35	8.028	173	39.68	196	44.95	32	7.34
13.	Other, undefined	19	4.36	8	1.83	15	3.44	8	1.83

The questions in Table 10 can be divided into two groups. The first seven questions concern intrinsic factors influencing predicted professional functioning of the researched students. The latter six pertain to extrinsic factors. Let us focus on the intrinsic list first.

Questions number 1 and 2 pertain to the crucial aspects of professional functioning of a translator/interpreter. They can be called a core competence for the professional functioning of a translator/interpreter. K. Klimkowska's (2013) research reveals that the majority of the students predict that the level of their T&I-related (61.47%)

and decision-making (52.57%) skills can lead to problems in their professional functioning.

Questions number 3, 4 and 5 concern factors that are strategic for the professional functioning of a translator/interpreter, too. Almost half of the researched students (42.9%) find it likely to encounter problems in their professional performance due to flawed organization of work and faulty time management. More than a half of them (58.95%) are afraid of professional failure, while 71.33% predict that stress can be an obstacle to their becoming successful translators/interpreters.

These results seem consistent with the students' answers to question number 6. 46.79% of the respondents admit that their successful professional functioning can be endangered by their limited self-confidence. These envisaged problems can be interpreted as an indirect acknowledgement on the part of 36.24% of the students that their level of self-confidence is limited. Another 10.55% can be said to have no professional self-confidence at all. It is worth highlighting here that the students' predictions as regards their self-confidence correspond almost directly to what they think about their talents and aptitudes, as evidenced by the relative similitude of answers to questions 6 and 7.

The data presented above call for a handful of general comments. Firstly, in a fashion parallel to M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014), we are ready to claim that the educational programmes for translators/interpreters in Poland do not function well as far as their preparing students for the E2E transition is concerned. An alarmingly large number of the researched students are not sure of their crucial skills and aptitudes. A large number of them are not sure if the skills of organizing one's translator/interpreter workshop are sufficient for the demands of their career. The extent to which students are afraid of professional failure and the impact of work-related stress can be interpreted as the lack of effective education in motivation building and stress management. Self-confidence is likely to be a problem for slightly less than half of the researched students, which is a serious indication that Polish T&I education does not sufficiently support the autonomy of the students' skill development.

We admit that our interpretation of the figures presented above needs to take into account that the researched students were asked about knowledge and skills in the context of their future professional application. It can be true that in this context, their answers include

exaggerated fears and presupposed dangers relating to a mode of functioning that they may be unfamiliar with. Nevertheless, such high percentage of the students displaying their uncertainty of being able to perform as professionals testifies to a considerable degree of ineffectiveness of T&I education in Poland in the area of E2E transition. One could expect effective E2E programmes to considerably reduce the fear and uncertainty relating to professional performance of the students by means of situating training (integrating learning and work), internships, or non-formal educational initiatives.

Let us now briefly discuss the remaining six questions in Table 10 above. They address extrinsic obstacles that can influence the students' performance and professional success. It is easily noticeable that apart from the lack of family support, the other factors are perceived by the majority of the researched students as problems that are very likely to occur in their careers. One could claim that these factors represent *real* threats that young people face when entering the market, and so the fact that the students realize the potential impact of these factors on their professional performance can count as their asset. Yet, one could also ask if the students' fears of how much their careers are likely to be influenced by the external world do not mirror the deficits observable in the data concerning the intrinsic factors. For example, when students foresee certain problems in their effective professional performance due to weak contact database (question number 10) – and this is the case with the majority of the researched students (66.98%) – one could ask if these students realize that making and managing contacts is pack and parcel of their business and a skill of its own. Hence, the category *lack of contacts* most probably exhibits yet another skill gap described above, rather than the students' recognition of the actual situation on the market.

A similar argument can be used for the research category *economic crisis*, which is regarded as a relatively serious obstacle by 44.95% of subjects, and as a grave problem for 7.34%. We do not want to disregard the role of how global economy relates to the employability and careers of particular translators or interpreters. On the other hand, we would expect effective E2E programmes to help students observe the fluctuations on the local and global markets, so that they can make better-informed choices about their careers and specializations. Such E2E programmes

should help reduce students' fears about the influence of the global economic situation on their individual functioning.

Our findings, inspired by the data in K. Klimkowska (2013), corroborate with the observations made by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014), who observe that educational systems fail to help students build the right skills – as reported by employers:

> too many students are not mastering the basics, with businesses reporting a particular shortage of "soft" skills such as spoken communications and also problems with work ethic. (Mourshed *et al.* 2014: 10)

In fact, the list of "soft" skills that the employers do not get is longer, and it contains teamwork, problem solving and analysis (Mourshed *et al.* 2014: 45). Let us add here that one of the missing "hard" skills, as pointed out by the employers questioned by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014), is hands-on experience, which seems to relate directly to the problems in situating learning and integrating learning and work, as inferable also from the data in K. Klimkowska (2013) discussed above. These data also corroborate with research by M. Eraut and S. Billett discussed in the previous chapter.

The data presented in this section allow us to conclude that the European system of education have not yet developed a satisfactory system of supporting students' transition from education to work. More importantly, we conclude that present-day T&I programmes in Poland fail to give the students a chance to prepare adequately for the challenges of career making. In our view, this state of affairs needs an urgent change. Managing the skill gap discussed above is most probably an insoluble problem unless curriculum designers are open to the multiple voices in T&I classrooms and curricula – a prerequisite of effective situated professional learning. In this way, an academic monopolistic educational narrative can transform into a holistic one.

2. Education to Employment (E2E) vs. Education for Career (E4C)

As a data-based report, M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) makes use of a series of variables that are well-recognized in sociological and economic discourse, like cost of education, employment, unemployment and so on. These authors discuss the problems of the E2E transition in terms of

measurable values and indicators. We generally find this methodology justified in view of the report's objectives. It works well as long as the authors attempt to diagnose the *status quo* of E2E transition in Europe. However, the limits of this methodology are exposed when the authors proceed to formulate their recommendations for improvement. It turns out that the variables that served well in diagnosing the phenomena under analysis in statistic terms do not easily translate into straightforward solutions that could improve the situation. We discuss this problem in detail in section 3 below. Here, we would only like to discuss the concept of employability to show the pros and cons of its use in the debate on effective professional education, including T&I education.

As noted above, we do not question the use of the notion of employability as a socio-economic parameter. However, when by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) formulate the concept of *Education to Employment*, they seem to understand employment as an educational objective of its own.[64] As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, in this monograph, we intend to follow the viewpoint of authors like M. Eraut or S. Billett, who claim that the scope of collaboration between students, educators and employers should be expanded to cover career, and not just employment. If an educational institution and its curriculum only focus on students' employment, it is likely to ignore the skills that are needed for effective professional performance and growth of a graduate after employment. An educational institution that focuses on employment can be said to narrow the degree of responsibility for its educational effectiveness to that very moment when a student can display a university degree or certificate and be accepted for a job. We tend to believe that this narrowed responsibility manifests itself in the unrealistically positive evaluation of the adequacy of professional training offered by European education providers reported by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014: 9). Taking all the above into account, we suggest substituting the concept of *Education to Employment* (E2E) with *Education for Career* (E4C). The latter concept implies

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64 Employability is also used as a vital parameter for development of the EMT programme, discussed in EMT (2012). At the same time, it needs to be acknowledged that the list of recommendations that EMT expert group gives in this area can be said to relate more to our E4C conception, rather than E2E by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014). EMT (2012: 2) recommends, among others, to "[i]nitiate contacts with employers and invite professionals to teach at translation programmes and assess students' work."

that the educational horizon does not end at employment but seeks to equip graduates for career making.[65]

It must be acknowledged that M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) show their recognition of the fact that the debate in the E2E area needs to look further than finding a job by a graduate. They formulate a claim that if European Union's measures to help youth find work are to be systemically effective, they must help the youth develop career strategies (Mourshed *et al.* 2014: 5). Yet, this introductory remark is not matched by relevant recommendations that could not only improve graduate employment figures, but, more importantly, could enhance their career resources.

The data that we are going to discuss next exhibits a need for such an enhancement. We refer to two studies by K. Klimkowska, in which she attempts to diagnose the level of career resources possessed by a selection of Polish students of translation/interpreting. The first study (Klimkowska 2014) concerns the notion of entrepreneurship, understood as a personality trait, or a set of such traits. The second (Klimkowska in print) deals with the students' readiness for transition from education to career.

In her first examination, K. Klimkowska asked 68 MA students of Applied Linguistics[66] about their opinion of the value of entrepreneurial traits and skills in the T&I profession, how they assess their own entrepreneurial resources, and to what extent they find their academic education helpful in developing these resources. As for the students' opinions on the value of entrepreneurship, K. Klimkowska's (2014) research proves that they recognize the importance of this aspect of professional functioning of a translator/interpreter. This is shown in Table 11 below.

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65 This viewpoint corresponds directly to A. Tough's ([1971] 1979: 35) idea of "Preparing for occupation, and then keeping up."

66 The research pool consisted of 68 students of the 1st and the 2nd year of the full-time course in Applied Linguistics, with their major in translation. The students represented the following language combinations: English-German, English-French, English-Russian and German-English. The students of the 2nd year formed the majority (48 out of 68) of respondents in this survey. The gender division was: 56 female and 12 male students in the age bracket 22–25. For more detail, see K. Klimkowska (2014).

Table 11. The students' opinions about the value of entrepreneurial traits in the T&I profession (Klimkowska 2014: 20)

	Are entrepreneurial traits important in the translation profession?	
	N	%
Definitely yes	48	70.59
Rather yes	15	22.09
Difficult to say	3	4.41
Rather not	2	2.94
Definitely not	0	0.00
Total	**68**	**100.00**

92.68% of the respondents include entrepreneurship on the list of traits and skills they need to possess as translators/interpreters. This majority of positive answers stay in contrast to the results presented in the next table, where the students are asked if, in their opinion, their translation courses help them develop entrepreneurial traits.

Table 12. The students' opinions about translation courses being helpful in developing their entrepreneurial traits (Klimkowska 2014: 20)

	Do majors in translation develop entrepreneurial traits in students?	
	N	%
Definitely yes	4	5.88
Rather yes	34	50.00
Difficult to say	28	41.18
Rather not	2	2.94
Definitely not	0	0.00
Total	**68**	**100.00**

Although the majority of respondents (55.88%) acknowledge that their T&I education helps them develop their entrepreneurial skills, as much as 41.18% are not sure about it, and 2 students out of 68 (2.94% of the pool) admit that they do not find their T&I courses helpful in this respect.

The third important question asked in K. Klimkowska (2014) is if the students consider themselves entrepreneurial persons. In the table

below, this question is accompanied by two additional questions: if the students work during their studies, and if they undertake any other developmental activities apart from their T&I academic course. These activities could include other academic studies, alternative forms of education, hobbies, membership in organizations or associations, *etc.*

Table 13. The student's opinions about their own entrepreneurial traits (Klimkowska 2014: 21)

	Do you consider yourself an entrepreneurial person?		Do/Did you work when during your studies?		Are you active outside your basic university classes?	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Definitely yes	3	4.41	18	26.47	7	10.29
Rather yes	24	35.29	19	27.94	16	23.53
Difficult to say	27	39.71	3	4.41	21	30.88
Rather not	14	20.59	20	29.41	24	35.29
Definitely not	0	0.00	8	11.76	0	0.00
Total	**68**	**100.00**	**68**	**100.00**	**68**	**100.00**

The answers to the main question bring further information about the students' entrepreneurial resources. Even though 55.88% of the students acknowledge that their translation courses help them develop entrepreneurship (Table 12), only 39.70% regard themselves as being entrepreneurial. To make matters worse, the percentage of researched students who find it difficult to say if they are equipped with entrepreneurial resources or not is relatively high, accounting for 39.71% of the pool. On top of that, there is a group of students whose answer to the question at hand was 'rather not,' and who constitute another 20.59% of the subjects. The degree of indecisiveness and of negative self-evaluation as regards the possessed traits of entrepreneurial functioning is thought-provoking.

    As hinted above, the answers to the main research question in K. Klimkowska (2014) are presented in the context of two supplementary questions, shedding more light onto the nature of the students' opinions on their entrepreneurship. The first additional question (central columns in Table 13) concerns students' engagement in work

during their academic studies (also including their BA programmes). Since the question made an overt reference to *work*, it was natural to expect the respondents' answers to be dichotomous, representing only two possible options: *definitely yes* or *definitely no*. Surprisingly enough, the students seem to have read the five-point scale used in the questionnaire as an invitation to evaluate the *degree of professionalism* of their activities. Thus, apart from the expected *definitely yes* (18 subjects, 26.47% of the total of 68 students) and *definitely no* (8, 11.76%) answers, there are also 19 *rather yes* (27.94%) and 20 *rather no* answers (29.41%).

In our view, the distribution of answers to the question at hand is an indication that the researched students hesitate if the work they do during studies can be called a professional activity. It seems that the researched students display a degree of disbelief if the activities they engage into is *professional enough* to classify as the *definitely yes* answer. On the one hand, these answers can mean that the students have high professional expectations and ambitions, which make them regard the periodical student work as lower on the scale of professions which they aspire to. On the other hand, the students could be expected to realize that any working experience they have is positive and worthy of being classified as *definitely yes*, irrespective of how much it empowers them for the challenges of their future T&I careers. In this sense, we are prone to read the students' answers in terms of lacking self-confidence.

The assumption that the researched students can experience limited self-confidence as regards their future professional performance can also be supported by a gap between the results for the main (left-hand column) and for the first additional (central column) question. It can be observed that the majority of the students work when studying (54.41% as a sum of the *definitely yes* and *rather yes* answers in the central column). However, the data in the left-hand column show that this experience has only empowered entrepreneurial skills of less than 40% of the students (39.70%). Also noticeable is the relatively high percentage of students who admitted having no prior working experience (41.17%) that could inspire such entrepreneurial traits.

As for the second additional question (right-hand column in Table 13), let us observe that the number of students engaging into developmental activities other than academic courses is relatively low (23 out

of 68 students; 33.82% of the group). A lot of students (21, 30.88%) were unable to say if they were engaged into a developmental activity outside their academic programme, which can be interpreted as their inability to decide if the activity they are involved in is *developmental enough* to count within the *rather yes* or *definitely yes* categories – in a way parallel to the answers reported in the central column in Table 13.

In our opinion, the data in Table 13 show that a need for entrepreneurial education among students like the ones questioned by K. Klimkowska (2014) is huge. The educational challenge we can infer from these data does not only consist in influencing the students whose self-assessment as regards entrepreneurial resources is negative (answers *rather no* or *definitely no*). Equally challenging is the group of the undecided students. The fact that 27% of the students were not able to decide if they do or do not have entrepreneurial traits can be unmistakably interpreted as caused by insufficient education as regards translation/interpreting as a profession.

Even though half of the researched students work during studies, and one-third of them engage into some developmental activities other than studying, these facts fail to influence positively the students' readiness to function as entrepreneurs. In our view, these data show a need for T&I educators to put more emphasis on helping students integrate all kinds of experiences they have into their holistic set of career resources.

Consequently, we want to use the data presented in K. Klimkowska (2014) to support our claim that a T&I curriculum can be more efficient in fulfilling its promise of adequate professional training of students when it caters for the development of such anthropocentrically-profiled skills like entrepreneurship, rather than predominantly focusing on extrinsic factors like employment or employability. In fact, if education is to influence employability in the long term perspective, it cannot ignore entrepreneurial resources. Translators and interpreters work as employees but also as freelancers, which makes the role of their entrepreneurial traits even more critical to their careers.

Let us use one more research report by K. Klimkowska to argue that the T&I educational horizon should be defined in a life-long perspective, related to the notion of career, rather than in a short time-span optics, represented by the notion of graduate employability. K. Klimkowska (in print) asked 109 MA students of Applied Linguistics specializing in

translation/interpreting[67] about their professional plans and measures they take to make these plans come true. The table below exhibits the forms of professional activity that the researched students plan to engage into.

Table 14. The students' plans concerning form of employment and type of professional activity (Klimkowska in print)

		N	%
1.	Starting one's own translation (single-person) business and working for many clients	29	26.61
2.	Starting one's own translation (single-person) business and mostly working for one strategic client	3	2.75
3.	Running one's own translation agency	5	4.59
4.	Employment in a translation agency and accepting various types of translation/interpreting	27	24.77
5.	Running one's own business in a different industry, with translation/interpreting as an additional source of income	10	9.17
6.	Employment in a different industry, with translation/interpreting as an additional source of income	11	10.09
7.	No clear professional plans or expectations	24	22.02
	Total	**109**	**100.00**

From the point of view of M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014), 77.98% of the students questioned by K. Klimkowska (in print) can be called *employment ready*. They are able to clearly state what they want to do after graduation. 22.02% of students who have no clear professional plans or expectations is not a good result – neither in terms of *employability*, nor in terms of *career potential*. Yet, we can assume that the students' choice of this answer could be influenced by factors other than genuine indecision or actual lack of plans for the future. It is possible, for example, that some of the students plan to continue their education (other MA or postgraduate

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67 The research pool included 109 students of the 1st and 2nd year of MA courses in Applied Linguistics at UMCS (specializations: English-German, English-French, English-Russian, and German-English). All the subjects declared their intention to work as translators/interpreters. The majority of subjects were women – 88.99% – which is owing to the prevalent tendency noticeable for most academic courses in humanities. The subjects were in the 22–25 age bracket. For more detail, see K. Klimkowska (in print).

courses or Ph.D. studies) – an option which they were unable to choose in the questionnaire. It can also be the case that during the MA course in translation/interpreting, some students realized that they do not want to follow a T&I-related career path, neither as employees nor freelancers. Although category number 6 partly allowed them to express such a change of interest, some students could decide on category number 7 on a no-better-choice basis.

All in all, from the perspective of employability, the data in Table 14 look generally optimistic. The majority of the students have plans for their E2E/E4C transition. However, when we analyse the data in the next table, the picture becomes more complex and less of an educational success story.

Table 15. The students' plans for professional development (Klimkowska in print)

	Plans for professional development			
	For one year		For three years	
	N	%	N	%
Definitely not	8	7.34	11	10.09
Rather not	28	25.69	29	26.61
Hard to say	36	33.03	49	44.95
Rather yes	23	21.10	16	14.68
Definitely yes	14	12.84	9	8.26
Total	**109**	**100.00**	**109**	**100.00**

The questions in Table 15 are intended to determine if the professional activities that the students intend to engage into – as they declared in Table 14 above – are accompanied by their efforts to turn these plans into facts of life. When asked about planned, concrete actions that can endorse their professional development, 36 out of 109 students (33.03%) stated that either they definitely do not have any such concrete plans (8 students), or they rather tend not to have ones (28 students). Another 36 students (33.03%) were unable to decide if they have any such plans. Only about one third of the subjects declared their authentic readiness to engage in concrete actions to enhance their career potential (37 students, 33.94% of the pool).

The final batch of data to be quoted from K. Klimkowska (in print) addresses the students' opinions about their procedural knowledge enabling their effective transition to the T&I market.

Table 16. The students' procedural knowledge needed for successful transition to the T&I market (Klimkowska in print)

Do you have the know-how of how to enter the T&I market?	N	%
I definitely have the know-how	13	11.93
I rather have the know-how	18	16.51
Hard to say	52	47.71
I rather do not have the know-how	12	11.01
I definitely do not have the know-how	5	4.59
Total	**109**	**100.00**

Although they tend to make extensive plans for their near professional future (Table 14), the majority of the researched students admit having problems with procedural knowledge needed for successful E2E/E4C transition. About one third of the students (28.44%) evaluated their transition know-how as *definitely high* (11.93%) and *rather high* (16.51%). The figures for the students' answer *hard to say* are anything but alarming. This answer was chosen by almost half of the respondent group (47.71%) and it testifies to significant deficiencies in the subjects' career resources. To make matters worse, another group of students admitted having limited (11.01%) or no procedural knowledge (4.59%) of how to manage their E2E/E4C transition. Taken together, the percentage of the students in the three groups that display serious deficiencies in the market transition knowledge and skills reaches 63.22.

Our analysis of the data presented in the three tables above are intended to prove the validity of the claim we make in this section that it is career potential (intrinsic aspect) and career demands (extrinsic conditioning on the potential), rather than employability, that should be pinpointed as the major educational objective in professional education, including T&I training. This is what we mean by the statement that T&I curricula should set its objectives as reaching beyond the point of employment. In consequence, this also means that T&I academic curricula need to provide more favourable conditions for the social construction of knowledge and skills that can help students succeed as

T&I professionals in the long-term perspective. Let us observe again that we do not refute the notion of employability as researched by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) within the framework they defined for their report. In other words, we do not either denounce their findings (figures), nor want to depreciate its descriptive, diagnostic value. We are rather concerned with how to interpret the data in M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) so as to make them educationally operational and advantageous.

3. The anthropocentric, social constructivist background for E4C education

The aim of this section is to use empirical material to support one of the most fundamental claims made in this monograph, that T&I education can increase its effectiveness when built on the premises of the anthropocentric, social constructivist approach to learning. We do not wish to claim that adopting the view promoted in this monograph can by itself constitute a perfect or even a self-sufficient remedy for the problems unveiled by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) and K. Klimkowska (2013, 2014, in print). However, without this stance, other remedies are unlikely to succeed.

In the first of the reports mentioned above, we can find a handful of recommendations intended by the authors to improve the efficiency of the present-day E2E transition processes.

> In an increasingly competitive global labour market, all the players need to raise their game. Students need to accept responsibility for their careers from an early stage; that means learning the basics of the qualifications, pay, conditions, and prospects for the professions they are considering. Education providers should accept their own share of responsibility, and make a point of understanding what employment rates are for their students after graduation, and take action to increase them. Governments, in fact, could require that information. As for employers, they ought to get involved long before the hiring stage, supporting educators in curriculum and practical training design, providing internships and work placements to students, and working with other companies to create industrywide partnerships to develop standard industry curricula and reach scale in hiring and training functions. (Mourshed *et al.* 2014: 83)

In general, the recommendations quoted above go hand in hand with our views presented in this monograph. We find most of these recommendations worth implementing, or even regard them as urgently needed for T&I education, especially in the Polish context. This holds good, for instance, for the idea of helping the stakeholders meet and talk. Similarly to M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014), we also highlight the advantages of making T&I educational formats more flexible – *e.g.* by opening to non-formal learning – and we pinpoint the need for seeking better balance between learning and work as a curricular problem. Yet, in our view, all these and other recommendations listed in M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) can only be effective on condition they are translated from the level of extrinsically-defined, top–down procedures to be implemented as policies defined by ministries, university officials or even curriculum designers into intrinsically (re-)constructed instruments that all the stakeholders find useful. The data extracted from all the research reports quoted above make it evident for us that without an epistemological turn in E2E, the measures suggested by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) are very unlikely to change the present system of relations between students, teachers, employers and the rest of the society.

Hence, a conceptual shift from E2E into E4C, which we proposed in the previous section, implies an epistemological and a methodological change: from trying to satisfy statistic indices of how successful an educational policy is in bringing new *human resources* to the market, or solving the social problem of youth unemployment towards helping real young people make their learning *significant* for career and life.

Another conceptual shift we would like to suggest here is that from *market demands* to *career demands*. The concept of *market demands* signals the power and demands on the part of some ill-defined groups or individuals who expect graduates-novices to comply with demands, norms or standards. Such practices are based on extrinsic motivational factors and extrinsic frames of significance. The concept of career demands is an anthropocentric concept, relating to a person who develops his/her personal knowledge to think and act out of intrinsic motivation, stemming from the learnt ability to negotiate the extrinsic stimuli from the workplace environment, choose the optimal strategy for action and monitor its results in order to regulate such actions in the future. In other words, the concept of *career demands* is part of the educational narrative

about equipping students with knowledge and skills to empower their navigating around the professional world out of intrinsic motivation, constructed with the help of extrinsic stimuli.

The substitution we hereby suggest also signals a need for a revision of T&I educational reflection and practices. Apart from seeking confirmation if our curriculum (= list of competences to master) is comprehensive enough to give students credits and credentials, T&I curriculum designers need to ask themselves if they truly help students learn through practice – in the sense discussed above. A non-formal curricular component, which we propose in the next chapter, could be a bridge between the worlds of education and work, a *shared* space where the students, the university and the professionals are given their voice and their power to act together.

To give that voice and power to the stakeholders, we need to put professional education and workplace experience on a par with the educational (institutional) agenda. This need is also noted by S. Billett (2010), as quoted below.

> [O]ften, in both initial occupational preparation and professional development, practice-based experiences are seen as an adjunct to an educational provision that is organised and structured in colleges or universities or through programmes offered by professional bodies and other agencies, rather than experiences that are both legitimate and effective in their own right. Such is the association between effective learning and educational institutions that these kinds of experiences are often seen as being both posterior and inferior to those provided through educational institutions and programmes. However, it is important that the qualities, processes, and outcomes of learning through practice be appraised: understood, utilised, and evaluated on their own terms, rather than as being positioned as merely augmenting those provided by educational institutions. This appraisal is important because much of what is assumed to constitute effective learning experiences - processes that enrich the outcomes of that learning, including conceptions of curriculum and pedagogy - is premised on the norms and practices of educational institutions. Yet, these premises may be quite unhelpful and/or inappropriate for understanding the processes and outcomes of learning occurring through experiences outside of those institutions, and the development of curriculum models and pedagogies suited to practice settings. Hence, a fresh view and appraisal of what we know about practice settings, their

> contributions, and how these might be progressed to secure effective
> outcomes for learners is now required. (Billett 2010: 1–2)

In consequence, in its efforts to become more and more effective in preparing students for successful professional performance, T&I education can be better off following S. Billett's recommendation "to explore ways in which learning through practice can be conceptualised, enacted, and appraised through a consideration of the kinds of traditions, purposes, and processes that support this learning, and the curriculum models and pedagogic practices used to support these purposes" (2010: 2). His words can be used as a way of explanation of the notion of sharing the educational space, which is central to our argumentation in this work.

Also, when we look at the problems diagnosed in the research undertaken by K. Klimkowska (2013, 2014, in print), which pertains directly to T&I education, we can see that the educational needs exhibited by the students she researched can hardly find an ultimate solution by an application of any of the extrinsically-defined measures, like the ones listed in M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014). These can of course be advantageous and desirable to the extent to which they provide scaffolding for the anthropocentric, transformative, significant, situated and thus empowering learning experience. They can help change the T&I classroom into an environment where students can develop their self-confidence and self-regulation, their entrepreneurship and time-management skills. This kind of T&I classroom is a space where the students (and the other stakeholders) can grow to understand that education, work and life go together and cannot be antagonised (*e.g.* "first you learn, then you work").

Let us illustrate the point made above by referring to a question that the T&I students we work with often ask during our educational encounters: which domains of specialist knowledge are the most *profitable* for translators/interpreters today. Following the way of thinking adopted in M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014), we could try to examine relevant variables to assess *profitability* of investing in this or that domain of translation, and we admit that this kind of knowledge would be an invaluable information asset that could or even should influence educational choices. However, when answering this question we do our best to help students reframe their way of thinking and asking about the matter at hand. The problem we see behind the students' question is that they expect us to answer it

with the use of extrinsic factors that will motivate their future actions ("I advise you to learn medicine, law or nuclear physics…"). We could say that these students function within a narrative in which they want to determine which is a/the *perfect*, *universally ideal* and *the most profitable* market niche, which could *guarantee* their success as professionals.

We believe that the example presented above shows one of the gravest misinterpretations and misuse of data in reports like M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014). The way our students ask the question we quoted above suggests they could fall into a trap of relying on statistically reduced information for their strategic professional choices, as they read it as sufficient type of information they require for their decisions. This is why we inspire students to ask also other questions, which would take into account the intrinsic conditioning of their professional choices. For example:

- Am I interested enough in domain A or B to make it part of my working experience? Is my interest authentic?
- Is *profitability* a dynamic, negotiable value between my needs and interests and the needs of the real clients I meet on my way? Or is it a statistic indicator that can be followed blindly for its being objectively anchored in data?
- Is there such thing as *objectively best* specialization domains? And are they the *best* only by virtue of the promising statistic figures behind them?
- Even more practically, is it better for me to invest in domain A, because it has *good statistics* (*e.g.* high demand figures and good rates), or is it better to invest in domain B, which has *poor statistics*, but I have a real chance of finding a client working in that domain and this can keep my business operational?
- Should I work with a client I have right now, even though his industry is not within the scope of my interest? Should I learn more to see if I can invest more resources to make that business relationship strategic?

Thus, instead of trying to fetch universal answers based on *true data* – as statistic reports are too often believed to do – we try to transform our students' approach to the issue at hand so that they are able to develop a more sophisticated system of evaluating their career choices. Our approach helps students build their entrepreneurial resources and

encourages their self-regulation. We believe the empowerment they experience when they make satisfying professional choices can add to their motivational capital for pursuing their life-long developmental trajectories.

In this chapter, we intended to show how the main line of argumentation that we adopted in this monograph can gain support from empirical studies devoted to the problems of contemporary education in its developmental, social and economic contexts. First, we decided to rely on the notion of a holistic curriculum as the manifestation of the ideas we have discussed and advocated in the previous chapters of this book. For the purposes of this chapter, we chose three premises that a curriculum should rely on to be named holistic: (a) a holistic curriculum's horizon reaches beyond graduation and finding the first job; (b) a holistic curriculum relies on an authentic communicative participation of *multiple voices* of all the stakeholders of the (T&I) educational process; (c) *sharing* the T&I educational space can be educationally effective under the social constructivist (anthropocentric, relational) view on the nature of learning. Then we tried to use the data collected in a handful of empirical reports to show a need for such a holistic curriculum as a tool to enhance the effectiveness of educational programmes, with a particular emphasis on professional T&I education. Under our interpretation, the educational needs and challenges diagnosed by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) and K. Klimkowska (2013, 2014, in print) make our own claims viable.

Consolidating literature and data research: the didactic triad revisited

This chapter has two functions. Firstly, it is meant to consolidate most of the findings of the previous chapters, devoted to our analyses of selected ideas and problems in the field of T&I didactics, anthropo-centric epistemology and (adult) education theories. Secondly, on the basis of our research in these three domains, we wish to present a series of proposals for T&I education in order to show how the inspirations from the previous chapters can be extrapolated onto thinking and acting in T&I education. Owing to the nature and the purpose of this monograph, most of our proposals are formulated on a relatively high level of generalization. At the same time, we make an effort to help the reader foresee how to implement our ideas in practice. In fact, a lot of what is presented below in this chapter reflects our own experiences with putting the ideas we talk about in this monograph into educational practice. This is why in this chapter, as well as in Chapter 8, the reader can find how we attempted to implement these ideas in two educational projects we participated in.

To realize the two objectives we have defined above, we suggest a revision of the classical narrative about the model of the didactic system. We are going to refer to this revised model as the didactic triad. This is because we want to highlight the systemic perspective of what goes on in the translation classroom. The concept of triad was used to describe the relationships obtaining in the translation classroom by C. Dollerup (1996). In a short section entitled *The ideology of teaching*, C. Dollerup states that "[t]eaching involves a triad of pupil, teacher and subject matter." She also adds that the triad is "a dynamic and

social entity" (Dollerup 1996: 21).[68] C. Dollerup's insistence on seeing the triad as dynamic and social in nature corresponds with our notion of seeing as systemic. The main feature of the systemic perspective we want to propose is that we want to view all the three components of the triadic system as equally important, irrespective of their functional diversity. Even though one may wish to analyse the triad from different angles, highlighting one of the aspects, all these considerations should never undermine the systemic equality of the three components. Taking all the above into account, we present below a handful of ideas that are to help the reader gain further insight into what we would like to be the T&I classroom dynamics (González Davies 2004). We start with the presentation of our reviewed idea of the T&I student, which is followed by a reconsidered profile of the T&I teacher, to end with the concept of the T&I task.

1. The student: the anthropocentric conception of the empowered learner

The previous chapters of this monograph present a vision of the anthropocentrically profiled learning process and of the T&I classroom that is built on anthropocentric premises. On the basis of our efforts to seek common grounds for the anthropocentric epistemology developed by F. Grucza and of social constructivist epistemology and methodology of D. Kiraly and others, we have concluded that it is possible to preserve the anthropocentric epistemological stance within a model that so strongly accents the social context of education, including collaborative knowledge construction. We have argued that this compromise is possible as long as we assume that – epistemologically speaking – learning can be faster in advantageous contexts, but it is never determined as such – epistemologically – by the presence of such a context. The fact that we learn is not social in nature, however what we learn and how, usually is.

　　Researchers like C. Rogers, G. Grow or D. Kiraly focused on the learner to such a large extent that their findings and observations would perhaps

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68　Our didactic triad also reflects the view that the T&I classroom can be regarded as a system of interpersonal communication. The triadic nature of such systems is proposed *e.g.* by T. Newcomb (1953). For elaboration of the model and comments see *e.g.* A. Hill *et al.* (2007).

suffice for a description of the T&I student we envisage in our redefined didactic triad. Hence, to a large extent the points we make below are just a reformulation of the claims made by these authors. At the same time, we want to highlight some aspects that – in our view – have not yet been given considerable attention in T&I education. For one thing, our idea of the T&I classroom abandons ideas such as *educational content / material realization* or use of *objectively effective didactic methodology* as the key classroom activity. Instead, we promote a vision in which students and teachers meet to solve realize educational tasks. In other words, we want to make a claim that T&I education is not effective primarily thanks to a well-devised list of competences that students are expected to develop, nor is it effective primarily because teachers work out effective methods of facilitating learning. T&I education can be effective when students and teachers agree to meet to work on their shared objectives together. This agreement – a more or less formalized educational contract – to make learning significant to both participants is a necessary prerequisite for educational success.

1.1. Learning as task realization

Our approach to the T&I classroom relies on the notion of student–teacher interaction as fundamental for facilitating learning. Our explorations of studies in the field of T&I education and of education in general make us assume that student–teacher relation needs to be defined in the context of the task that provides a rationale for the classroom protagonists to meet and work together. Also, the studies we have discussed in the previous chapters make us assume that when designing T&I classroom tasks and task realization processes, T&I educators can be better off asking the following questions:

   a) is our task and task realization situated?
   b) do our task realization processes seek to reduce the negative impact of operational barriers?
   c) does our task and task realization encourage autonomy (self-regulation, self-direction)?
   d) do our task realization processes take into account the assumptions of collaborative education and work?
   e) do our task and task realization take into account the assumptions of holistic education?

We assume that in the context of the discussion we have had in this monograph, the concepts employed in the list of questions above do not need further explanation. In what follows, we address the issues signalled in these questions.

1.2. Situatedness and simulation

As discussed in Chapter 1, appeals to put the T&I classroom reality as close to the professional reality as possible have been frequent in the literature of the field of T&I education. Similar appeals have also been issued by education theorists like J. Bruner, M. Knowles or C. Rogers and by researchers of workplace education like S. Billett, M. Eraut, S. Hase or C. Kenyon.

On the basis of the work of these researchers, we can conclude that situating T&I education is an indispensable educational strategy. The main argument used by the researchers is that situating offers students a chance to construct their learning as directly related with what they will be expected to do as professionals. Another argument that can be used in support of the first one is that situating is pack and parcel of translating/interpreting as text-based activity. Without situating the text as a communicative and social event, and without the ability to construct the roles played by the particular participants of the translatorial action (*cf.* Holz-Mänttäri 1984), the translator/interpreter are likely to fail to realize their translation/interpreting task as text. This failure of students to situate their translation/interpreting task can lead to phenomena like the student-professional performance gap, as discussed in Chapter 1 above.

To use C. Rogers' (1951) terms, situating learning is needed to help T&I students make their learning significant – integrated within the realm of all the developmental activities they engage in. M. Eraut's (2000) views also make it clear to us that situating must allow for the development of explicit and implicit knowledge. To make the latter available to students, situating must employ tasks that are as close to professional translation reality as possible, or even being part of that reality (*cf.* Kiraly 2000, 2009, 2012, 2013a, 2013b).

1.3. Removing the operational barrier

In Chapter 3, we have discussed a selection of authors who criticised transmissionism as T&I classroom methodology. In Chapter 4, we added other critical voices who rejected transmissionism on the grounds of education

theory. We have also proposed the concept of operational barrier as a consequence of the reliance on the flawed epistemological and hence methodological assumptions of educational transmissionism. In our view, classroom methodologies like *read and translate* described in M. González Davies (2004), or *who takes the next sentences* in C. Nord (1996) seem to engage students in translation activity, but leave them no actual influence on the result of the translation task realization. This barrier has been graphically presented in Figure 3 above, and repeated as Figure 6 below.
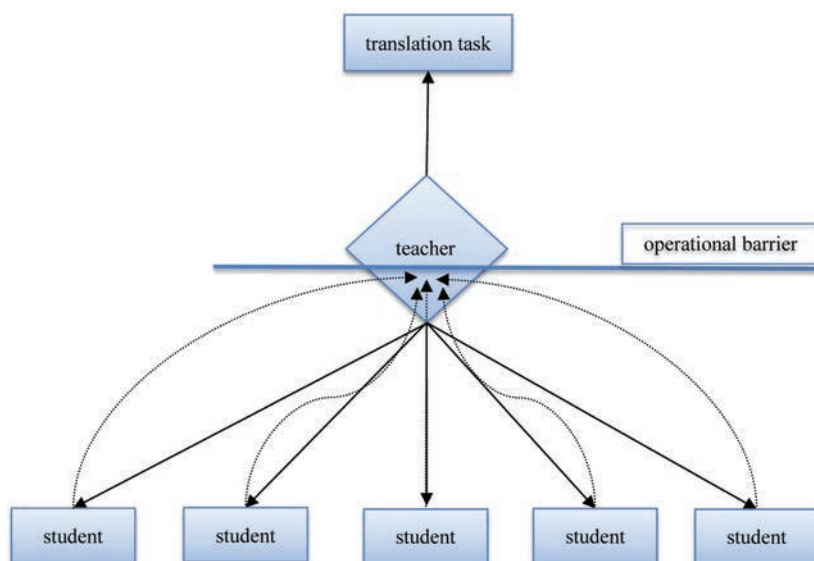
Figure 6. The transmissionist translation classroom (based on Kiraly 2000, Klaudy 1996, Nord 1996 and Pagano 1994)

The barrier has two negative effects. Firstly, it blocks the factual realization of the translation task by the students. It is the teacher who is in control of the process and result of the translation process. Hence, from the perspective of the students, the text is not a situated task, but a kind of exercise in which they participate only partly – without learning to take responsibility for the *translatorial action* in full.

Secondly, the barrier in question leads to a serious defect in classroom communication, since the students are sent a self-contradictory message that leads to their disempowerment. Being unaware of the barrier, the students *assume* that they participate in the translation process, yet

this participation can hardly empower their skill development. The students are told that they participate in a *translation class*, but what they experience is only the beginning and the end. They are not allowed to develop their own ways of navigating from the source to the target text, but they made to believe they participate in translating. Hence, seeing the task and the result, but being unable to work out their own solution, they feel powerless.

Let us put a very strong emphasis on the deep and serious nature of this kind of disempowerment. We do not want to say that the main problem behind operational barriers, like the one we discuss above, is that a particular student is prevented from attaining this or that translation task. Our focus here is on more *implicit* effects that this barrier is likely to have. For one thing, it leads to a distorted narrative about translation in the minds of the students: teacher's monopoly of voice and power, lack of situating of task realization, lack of solutions to construct one's own methods of departing from the source text and reaching the target text. Secondly, operational barriers in question lead to distorted classroom communication, which renders it impossible for the students to construct their tools of self-direction or self-regulation. They lack reliable feedback information (either from themselves or from the teacher) concerning how well they performed and what to do next.

As we have already hinted, in our view, the most serious problems evoked by operational barriers like the one we describe here is that they pertain to the implicit side of learning. That means their detrimental impact is likely to be long-term, leading *e.g.* to students' passiveness (limited intrinsic motivation), disinterest and their inability to engage into an educational contract as significant (lack of ability to construct educational reality as important for life). In view of the developmental stage that most of the students of translation/interpreting are at (young adults), it is probable to expect such barriers to evoke negative self-esteem ("I can see the original and the translation but I do not know how to proceed from the former to the latter – I must be bad at it"). Ultimately, such students can display a distorted narrative about translation as a process, tending to look for ultimate "good" translation solutions, expecting full terminological equivalence, or otherwise failing to operationalize translation as text-based, socially and culturally-embedded communicative task.

Let us also observe that the notion of operational barrier, as we employ it here, does not only concern a particular type of translation/interpreting activity taking place in a T&I classroom. Such barriers need to be avoided at all the levels of T&I curriculum: from the level of a T&I classroom to curriculum design. To do so, T&I curriculum designers need to carefully monitor the communication processes in their curriculum (plans and practices) and open the curriculum to multiple voices to help improve these communication processes.

1.4. Task realization as a tool of self-directed learning

Situated T&I task realization – one where the negative influence of operational barriers is limited – can be expected to bring about two kinds of result. One is the resultant target text. The other is the feedback information that the students get on their performance that helps them see the strong and the weak points of what they did. These two aspects of the T&I classroom are inseparable: task realization (result) and communication over the process. The role of the teacher as facilitator is to secure the two-directional flow of communication in the task realization process, as illustrated in Figure 7 below.
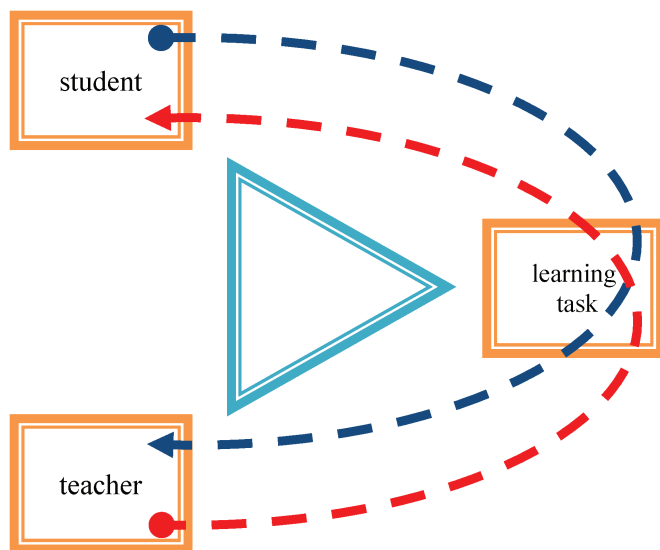
Figure 7. Bi-directional information flow in the T&I classroom

Our conception of the T&I classroom rests on the assumption that the flow of feedback information is indispensable for empowerment and growth. It is this element of the didactic system that helps students monitor their actions and decide on what they want to do next.

The general idea of streamlining information flow in the T&I classroom is neither controversial nor particularly novel. However, what we have in mind here is not communication *per se*, but its educational effects. We strive for that kind of communication strategies in the T&I educational context that can inspire students' construction of mechanisms of self-monitoring, self-assessment and self-regulated performance (*cf.* Moser-Mercer 2008). In other words, the concept of learning process can only concentrate on students' successful performance of a task. Neither can it be limited to students learning how to react positively to the teacher's feedback. Approaching learning from the anthropocentric perspective we adopt, we suggest that each learning experience must also provide the students with the tools enabling them to self-assess their performance in order to increase their control over and responsibility for learning – now and in the future.

The anthropocentric view of self-assessment[69] we have in mind is about the student developing his/her own (= self-directed) self-assessment knowledge and skills. So ultimately, learning is not about the student achieving a status where his/her self-assessment of a task performance "matches" the teacher. From the anthropocentric perspective, the ultimate goal is for the student to develop his/her own axiological framework and assessment tools that can inform them about their performance in the most reliable way. By an axiological framework we mean the student's own system of values, interests, needs, desired (and undesired) objectives and performance results as well as other factors influencing his/her T&I performance.

In consequence, we believe that T&I classroom communication strategies should help the students learn not only to perform to attain a task, but also to construct their own tasks (or re-construct the tasks assigned by the teacher as significant – as "theirs") and develop methods for their realization. If T&I educators fail to achieve that kind of

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69 The role of self-assessment gets a wider recognition in T&I education studies, as borne out by such contributions as M. Bartłomiejczyk (2007), J. Dybiec-Gajer (2011) or G. Massey, M. Ehrensberger-Dow (2013).

educational influence, we can say that the principles of situated learning are not used to the full. The role of feedback for building T&I students' self-direction is presented graphically in Figure 8 below.
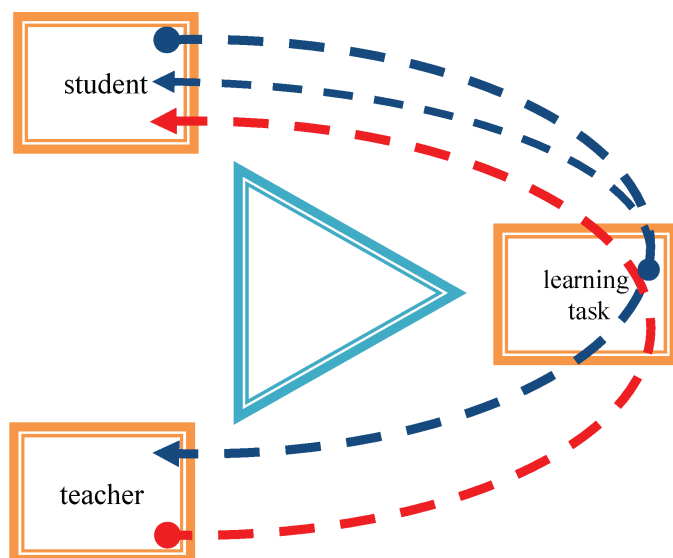
Figure 8. Three directions of information flow in the T&I classroom

To sum up our views on the fundamental importance of the role of classroom communication and feedback for situated T&I education, let us reiterate the directions of information flow presented in Figure 8 above. Firstly, apart from the teacher's feedback on the student's task realization (lower dashed line), classroom communication must allow for the student's reaction to that feedback (asking for more details, questioning feedback, *etc.*) that will, in turn, help the student develop the ability of "self-feedback" (*cf.* internal feedback in Moser-Mercer 2008: 15) for building up the his/her own skills of realistic self-assessment, which is a prerequisite for self-regulated translation/interpreting performance.

In this monograph, we strive to show that our approach to T&I education is holistic, and that unlike the learner-centred narrative in T&I education, we wish to emphasize the active role of the teacher as inseparable for effective learning experience.[70] If this is so, and if

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70 See our discussion on the notion of learner autonomy in Chapter 4 above.

the student is dependent on feedback for growth, the same must hold good for the teacher as well. As envisaged by our approach, the teacher's task is to learn to accept feedback from students and use it to confirm the effectiveness of the scaffolding he/she provides. In this sense, our approach engages the teacher in the communicative and in the learning processes. Consequently, our graphic representation of the directions of information flow in the T&I classroom changes to what is presented in Figure 9 below.
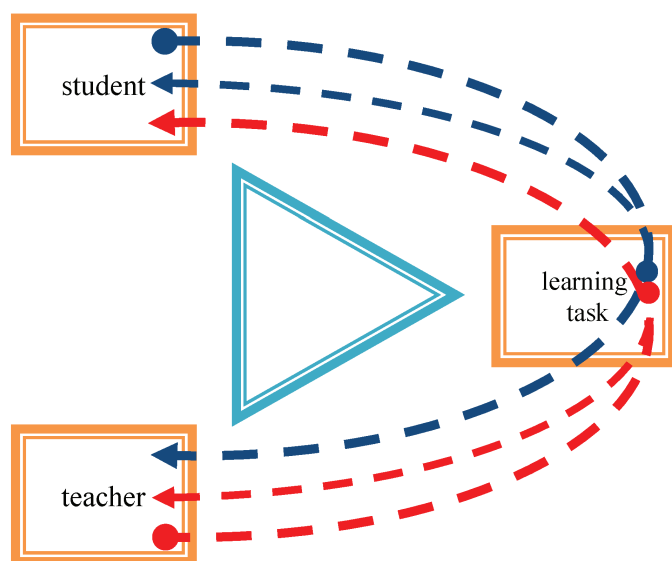
Figure 9. Four directions of information flow in the T&I classroom

In our view, the assumptions that we have elucidated above match directly B. Moser-Mercer's (2008) model of T&I education, which she anchored in the principles of performance psychology (see also Chapter 1 for our discussion on that work). Crucial for our purposes is B. Moser-Mercer's reliance on the concept of self-regulation, which she defines as follows:

> Self-regulation, the type of behavioural feedback essential to skill acqui-sition, refers to the use of processes that activate and sustain thoughts, behaviours and affects in order to attain goals (Schunk and Zimmerman 1994). It refers to the learners' ability to make adjustments in their own learning processes in response to their perception of feedback regarding

> their current status of learning. Self-regulation has three components: (1) self-observation – deliberate attention to specific aspects of one's own performance; (2) self-judgement – comparing one's current progress towards a goal with a standard (a major issue in interpreter training where unfortunately the usual standard of comparison in the classroom is the interpreting expert's performance, no matter what stage of learning the novice is at); (3) self-reaction – making evaluative responses to judgements of one's own performance. (Moser-Mercer 2008: 14–15)

Similarly to our views, B. Moser-Mercer finds feedback "essential to skill acquisition" (2008: 14). Also central to her model is the idea that skill acquisition is governed primarily by the learner, not by teaching procedures. In this sense, this model can be seen as a built on anthropocentric epistemological assumption. The anthropocentricity of skill acquisition is further emphasised by the three components of the reiterative process of the learner self-regulation: self-observation, self-judgement and self-reaction. Thus, instead of aspiring for scoring high on 'objective gradation scales,' self-regulated learners will primarily focus on developing their own system of observation, assessment and reactions to the tasks at hand. The gradation scales are educationally valid as long as they are used to encourage self-regulation. Yet, they can become an operational barrier if they fail to provide learners with feedback enabling self-regulation.

The *standard* mentioned by B. Moser-Mercer (2008), which serves as the point of reference in assessing the learner's performance, is not an idealized model (*e.g.* of competence) to be pursued by the learners as an explicit educational objective. The standard is needed to determine: (a) how a given student performed in a given task, according to the teacher; and (b) how this information can be used by the student for his further reiterations of the self-regulation process.

Point (a) stresses another advantage of the classroom being task-oriented: assessment is no longer a procedure in which the teacher refers to some 'idealized benchmark' and assigns points in accordance to it, to send the student the message about the gap between him/her and the ideal performance (*cf.* the juxtaposition of an omnibus teacher and an ignorant student in Gergen 2009). One can conclude that the light of B. Moser-Mercer's (2008) model, this information is useless, unless it can provide the student with self-regulatory feedback. The only information value of this kind of assessment is that

of behavioural information concerning gratification or punishment. As part of the teacher's message to the student, these two signals can play a positive role. Yet, when deprived of self-regulatory feedback elements, they make a painfully insufficient information supply, as long as we authentically expect students to develop their cognitive and meta-cognitive skills in translation/interpreting.

The observations made above lead us to a claim that B. Moser-Mercer's (2008) model of T&I education is a call for assessment that relies predominantly on classroom communication, in which the teacher helps the students determine their "status of learning" (Moser-Mercer 2008: 14, see the quote above) and helps the students decide upon the measures for their further growth. In our view, the quotation below can give grounds to our interpretation.

> Learners thus regulate their own learning by observing what they are able to do, then comparing what they have observed to a standard they have been offered either by way of expert modelling, tutor modelling, or other means of scaffolding […], and making judgements about the quality of their performance, in order to finally make plans regarding what to do next. (Moser-Mercer 2008: 15)

If we are right in our interpretation, we think that B. Moser-Mercer's (2008) educational proposal gives further support for our views on the flow of information in the T&I classroom. In short, we can conclude that distorted feedback blocks skill building, since it hinders the development of the students' self-regulatory processes.

Our approach to the role of the student in relation to the translation task and to his/her own development of skills has two direct corollaries. Firstly, it shows the role of the teacher as a person who enables and empowers learning, rather than being responsible for the realization of procedures traditionally called *teaching*. Secondly, the above discussion on self-regulation indicates that a substantial change in understanding educational assessment is needed. It turns out that the traditional idea of assessment as "summing up the results of learning in reference to a model/ideal" is of limited educational use, unless it is treated as a tool of students' self-observation, self-assessment and self-reaction.

From the anthropocentric point of view, self-assessment is the primary purpose of any kind of assessment performed in the classroom. The teacher's assessment of the students' skills/results is always secondary

in supporting learning experience, and should always perform the formative action, even if it contains summative information (*cf.* Race *et al.* [1996] 2005: 3). In other words, the summative and the formative aspects of assessment must be integrated in such a way as to enable and facilitate the students' self-assessment (as part of self-regulation).

B. Moser-Mercer's (2008) idea of a self-regulated learner has its strong educational, developmental appeal. What is more, the advantages of her educational approach reach further than the confines of the T&I classroom. We are of the opinion that learner's self-regulation does not only influence positively the learner's educational performance, but it also directly influences the quality of the work of the future professional translator/interpreter. The quality of the translator/interpreter work cannot be based on behavioural mapping of good practices, professional norms or standards. Translation/interpreting quality is anthropocentric, constructivist and relational. It cannot be objectively defined without being situated in the context of a given task (text), it must be constructed by the protagonists of the communicative event (text) and it depends on the negotiation of values, needs and interests of these protagonists.

Consequently, in our approach we seek the sources of the quality of the translator's/interpreter's work in this/her ability to constantly monitor (= observe, assess and act) his/her performance, rather than seeking the fulfilment of 'objective norms' of translation/interpreting. However 'objective' and detailed, these norms can only function as reference point, or the *standard* mentioned by B. Moser-Mercer (2008). Its role is to empower the training translators/interpreters to build their systems of self-regulation.

In this way, our anthropocentric vision of educational assessment, understood as teacher-supported self-assessment, reaches beyond the T&I classroom and helps build a bridge between T&I curriculum and T&I professional performance. This vision of assessment is intended to equip the T&I students with an extremely important tool of the trade. Also, it means equipping students with tools for life-long autonomous learning. The relationship between the assessment, self-assessment and translation quality[71] can also be presented graphically by means of

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71 It is interesting to observe that D. Gile ([1995] 2009: 37–49) also defines quality as emergent, dynamic and dependent on the position (role) taken in the translation (communication) system.

the same diagram we used to illustrate the roles and communication flow in the T&I didactic triad. We do so in order to stress the direct correspondence between the didactic system we propose in our monograph and its positive impact on the professional performance of students – translators/interpreters-to-be.
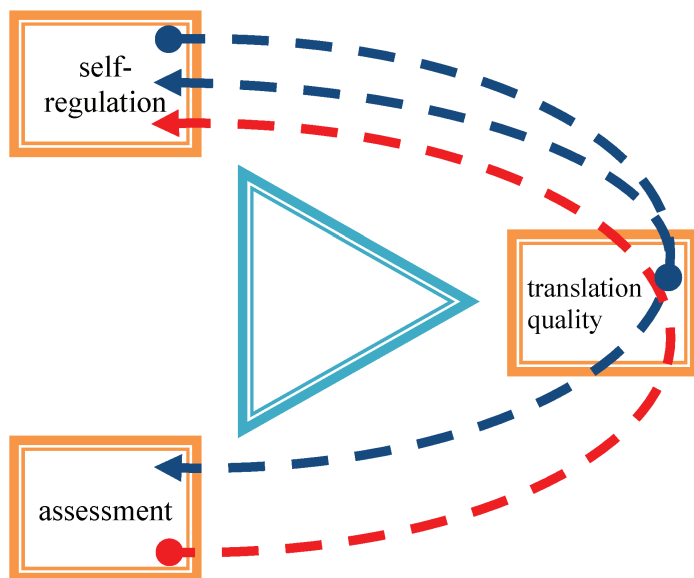
Figure 10. The influence of classroom communication on professional translation quality

Figure 10 also shows that the role of the teacher as evaluator in the didactic system is taken over by various stakeholders of the translation/interpreting service (*cf. e.g.* Holz-Mänttäri 1984, Gouadec 2007: 109). This relationship between didactic and professional assessment can influence the way teachers think and act as evaluators. This is why we devote a separate section to that matter in the latter part of this chapter (section 2.3).

1.5. Learning in social space

The anthropocentric epistemological stance on the T&I classroom we advocate in this monograph strongly supports the role of the social embedding of individual learning. To cover the relation between the individual

and the social aspects of learning, we have states that learning (the fact that we learn) is a neuro-biologically determined function of the brain, while the categories and experiences that are subject to our learning (what we learn) as well as methods that we employ to facilitate learning are strongly influenced by our environment. The degree of influence can differ from almost complete determinacy (*cf.* Grow's (1991) Stage 1 learning) to relative or weak influence (*e.g.* Stage 4 learning).

As stressed by D. Kiraly (2000), along with other researchers he quotes, the social context of knowledge construction helps students develop their skills faster, on condition they become pro-active members of a group/team and they take responsibility for negotiating senses and for accountable fulfilling of the roles they agree to play. The proactivity in question leads to crises in group/team interaction: group work and team work is hardly ever a friendly chat between colleagues. More often it is a conflict between a variety of viewpoints on the task, process organization, roles to be played, *etc.* Thus, collaborative T&I classroom is not a place where students work on a translation in harmony and in unconditional acceptance of otherness. From the point of view of the social development of students, a collaborative T&I classroom is to become a space for students to learn how to engage rationally and emotionally into interactions that can be challenging for them. It is a space where they can learn how to listen to others and how to decidedly agree or oppose them. The T&I classroom needs to become a workshop for negotiating one's viewpoint, or skilful yielding to the others' viewpoint on finding out that "they are right," or – perhaps a more likely case in the T&I professional context – that their solution is "the best of the bad job." Taking, defending and resigning from all these views and positions often evokes intense emotions, handling of which is a necessary prerequisite of one's individual growth. The skill of managing them is also a strategic social skill, in both private and professional spaces.

One cannot overestimate collaborative processes of knowledge construction in their role for preparing students for professional performance. We fully agree with authors like D. Kiraly, M. Eraut or S. Billett, who seek solutions to problems like the student–professional performance gap in the social and cultural practices of the (T&I) classroom. Collaborative T&I classroom allows building an effective environment for students to experience a variety of roles and functions

performed by the participants of contemporary translation/interpretation – as a process and as a service. Thus apart from the educational benefits of intensifying the processes of socially-embedded knowledge construction, collaborative T&I classroom can help students develop the explicit and the implicit knowledge of the roles they want to play as future specialists in the Language Service Provision industry.

For a T&I classroom to become a space of social construction of knowledge, it needs to open to the presence and participation of *multiple voices* (González Davies 2004), other than those of the students and the teachers. We have previously argued extensively in support of an approach to T&I education, curriculum and classroom organization that relies for social knowledge construction on the expanded network of voices: axiologies, interests, needs and objectives. Hence, we believe any further debate on that matter would be superfluous.

We have also argued above that the classical T&I education, confining to the formal curricular activities is likely to fail to realize the objectives of situated learning. Partly, this is owing to the developmental needs of the T&I students. According to authors like G. Grow (1991) or S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000), the classical formal curriculum can pose problems to students' development of learner autonomy, which is prerequisite for his/her development of meta-cognitive skills, indispensable for successful, self-regulated translator's/interpreter's performance (Moser-Mercer 2008). Secondly, the formal curricular framework also seems to foster *voice monopolies* of teachers and curriculum designers, as borne out by the discrepancies in the assessment of professional education by the educational institutions, their students/graduates and the employers in Europe (Mourshed *et al.* 2014). The appeal that M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) make in their report – for all the stakeholders of the educational arena to start communicating – is a call for developing shared narratives in order to integrate such areas of human activity as education, work, social participation and personal success.

The solution we suggest in our monograph is the opening of the formal curriculum to activities which are often called as non-formal, and which can function as a bridge towards a more effective E2E/E4C transition. We are of the opinion that non-formal educational initiatives can help manage social interaction between the stakeholders of the educational process more effectively than it is possible within the confines of

the formal curriculum. This is because the formal curriculum is bound to impose certain social factors that thwart the teachers' and the students' degree of engagement in collaborative, authentic, significant T&I task-realization.

For instance, unlike real social interaction, the interaction that can be planned within the framework of the formal curriculum is marked clearly for its beginning and its end – corresponding to the beginning and end of a semester or course. When faced with a challenging T&I task, the students (and often the teachers, too) can tend to adopt a survival strategy ("I somehow have to survive to the end of the semester" *cf.* Rogers' (1951) idea of 'getting by'). They are rather unlikely to manifest open-minded proactivity towards the task. Since more often than not, non-formal initiatives – as we define them (see Chapter 8) – are voluntary for the students, they have to make a decision to participate (contract), which is the first step in building their motivational capital to become proactive players in a team. In other words, the principles of the formal curriculum cause it that at least some of the students are likely to participate in at least some of the curricular classes on the *I-have-to* basis. On the other hand, their declaration to participate in any of the non-formal events requires their *I-want-to* attitude. In our view, it is the latter situation that provides better environment for introducing voices of experts – whether in their advisory or control capacity.

Finally, a truly socially-embedded classroom needs to empower the students' social and cultural participation that reaches beyond the domain of their profession. What we have in mind here are *e.g.* E. von Glasersfeld's call for social responsibility in knowledge construction (2007b, as quoted in Chapter 2 above), C. Rogers' ([1967] 2002) and K. Gergen's (2009) appeals for a relational approach to education as crucial to the future of our civilization (see Chapter 4).

1.6. The learner's transformation

The idea of learning as a vehicle of change taking place in a person who learns is a fundamental notion in all theories of education. However, one researcher discusses above how he devoted his research to understanding education as a vehicle for the learner's redefining of who they are and who they want to be. As discussed in Chapter 3 above, J. Mezirow's concept of transformative learning expanded the traditional idea of

change through learning. One of the problems pinpointed by J. Mezirow was that many educational theories adopted an accumulative narrative about how people learn. J. Mezirow opposed the idea of learning as collecting or rectifying one's knowledge. To be truly effective for human performance (significant in C. Rogers' (1951) terms), learning must evoke fundamental changes not only of what the learner knows or is able to do, but of who the learner is.

In Chapter 3, we have expressed our strong support for the idea of learning and education as transformation. Firstly, this is because the idea of transformative learning emphasizes the anthropocentric nature of learning and personal (personality) change through education. No one can directly influence the students to effect the change, but educational interaction can lead to the change "from within" the student. Secondly, the idea of transformation corresponds well with one of the most frequently reported problem in translation didactics: how to make students stop behave like students, and make them behave like professionals. In our view, for students to become professionals, it requires nothing less than a serious change in their axiologies, thinking and behaving. Thirdly, as pointed out many times above, becoming adult members of society is also a transformative challenge for the students that cannot be ignored in educational reflection.

It must be noted here that the three arguments in favour of the transformative perspective on T&I education listed above reach beyond the confines of the formal T&I curriculum. Firstly, the transformative perspective addresses qualities that can be hardly described in terms of explicit knowledge, skills or competences. Neither can transformation be thought of in terms of curricular components, or explicitly formulated educational objectives. Secondly, the notion of transformation makes the teachers and T&I curriculum designers to seek educational effectiveness as anchored outside the classroom: in the graduates' professional, individual and social performance throughout lifetime. In this way, the transformative view on T&I education can help equip the students with resources for lifelong learning. Thus in our opinion, although transformation cannot be programmed through curriculum design, it can be facilitated.

T&I education is an example of educational domain which, in our view, can hugely benefit from the metaphor of transformative learning.

An example of an educational transformation that can be advantageous for T&I education is this through which students can change their way of conceptualizing their educational present and their professional future. As expounded by a number of studies quoted repeatedly in this monograph, one of the prevalent problems in T&I education is how to encourage students to stop acting as students engaged in an academic exercise and to make them start acting as professionals. When approached from the transformative perspective, this performance gap can be explained by the presence of a developmental barrier of a kind discussed in Chapter 3 above and in section 1.7 of the present chapter. Owing to this postulated barrier, students tend to think about their educational presence and the professional future as two unrelated conceptual frameworks (values, beliefs, norms, interests, actions, patterns of behaviour, *etc.*). We strongly believe that the interaction-driven, task-oriented T&I classroom we hereby propose can equip the students and the teachers with tools of creating an environment for transformation/transgression. First and foremost, these tools can relate with the processes of classroom interaction flow (see section 1.4 above in this chapter) and communication (see section 2.4 below in this chapter).

However, to be effective the transformative environment needs to be fed with multiple perspectives, which can provide data for the learners to underlie their transformation. In the context of T&I curriculum, this effectiveness requires being open to voices from outside the classroom and expanding the educational influences through non-formal initiatives.

1.7. Learning in the world of options: from the certain towards the uncertain

The list of arguments against the transmissionist optics in T&I education listed in the previous parts of this text can be extended by one more: an objectivist approach to knowledge construction like transmissionism depends on fixed conceptual frameworks (truths) that build the educational content passed on the students by the teacher. Yet, as remarked by S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000), this educational narrative renders contemporary educational institutions ineffective, as they violate the principle of immediacy of learning. This principle assumes that a learner needs to decide autonomously what knowledge he/she needs in the context of the particular task. This approach to knowledge construction and use

is hardly objectivist or transmissionist. It is relativist and anthropocentric (constructivist).

There is no denying that the skills of immediate knowledge construction are fundamental for the T&I profession. The relativist nature of this knowledge is well visible in the (minimalist) definition of translation competence by A. Pym (2003):

> As an interpersonal activity working on texts (of whatever length or fragmentary status), the training of translators involves the creation of the following two-fold functional competence (*cf.* Pym 1991):
> - The ability to generate a series of more than one viable target text (TTI, TT2 … TTn) for a pertinent source text (ST);
> - The ability to select only one viable TT from this series, quickly and with justified confidence. (Pym 2003: 489)

Thus, instead of looking for *the solution* to a translation problem – especially the one given by some authority – be it a person or a resource – translators look for viable options, finally deciding on (or negotiating) their ultimate choice.

This situation is perfectly addressed by C. Dollerup, who talks about "the certainty – uncertainty axis" (Dollerup 1996: 24–25) as a developmental trajectory for T&I education. Although she uses the concept to describe the teacher's situation in the classroom, it has its obvious consequences for the student's functioning, too. Departing from fixed truths and transgressing towards the world of never-ending (re)constructions of (optional, viable) senses equals leaving the realm of the certain for the world of the uncertain. From the perspective of the T&I student, the first transformation that results from the above-mentioned fact concerns the nature of knowledge that they can use for T&I purposes: reliable knowledge cannot be obtained from only one source, be it the teacher, an expert (*cf.* Fenwick, Parsons 1998), a dictionary or the translator him/herself. Similarly, the students' expectations that after graduation they will find a fixed, stable and secure world outside the Academia that will unconditionally acknowledge their credentials and qualifications also need to be subject to educational intervention during the studies. Such expectations call for a perspective transformation, helping students prepare for the relativistic conditions of their life and work, which are best addressed by educational narratives built on anthropocentric, social constructivist and relational principles.

1.8. Learning as based on mistakes[72]

The ability to construct knowledge as a process of making self-directed decisions among available options automatically presupposes that some such choices will be successful, while others will not. This is why our anthropocentric social constructivist view on learning and student's functioning needs to address the problem of students' performance errors and mistakes. The prevalent educational tendency we are witnessing in the academic environments which we are part of is that mistake and error are used mostly in their punitive function in the classroom context. This type of information is valuable *per se* (*e.g.* as negative amplification), yet reducing the communicative and educational potential of the students' and the teachers' errors and mistakes to the disciplinary level means ignoring its huge developmental potential. The transformation of the students' and the teachers' view is needed, so that both T&I classroom protagonists are able to recognize the rich *information offer* that mistakes give to the learner and his/her teacher. Thanks to the perspective transformation, the protagonists can start conceptualizing errors, mistakes or misunderstandings as a source of information about the translation/interpreting process, product, competences and the potential developmental trajectories for the future (tasks). In this way, a mistake can be transformed from a problem and a reason for punishment into a task and inspiration for growth.

In other words, we suggest that the T&I classroom should be rid of the transmissionist, disciplinary narrative about mistakes, which are so often communicatively and behaviourally reduced solely to the level of gratification (positive amplification) or punishment (negative amplification).[73] Instead, we propose a view under which mistakes taking place in the process of translation task realization offer an invaluable insight into how students perform and how to help them perform better.

Let us emphasise it once again that the information offer behind translation mistakes becomes available on the condition that we adopt the anthropocentric perspective on learning: we construct knowledge

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72 Also see A. Pym (1993) for a similar view on the educational use of mistakes.

73 Let us make it clear that in our view these two types of amplification are useful for classroom communication. We do not reject gratification or punishment as educational instruments. We object to narrowing the scope of the mistake-related classroom communication to that level only.

by making decisions in the conditions of uncertainty. Both successful and unsuccessful decisions and actions should tell us what to do next and what steps to avoid. In this sense, both the positive and the negative solutions are a critical resource for learning.

To be more specific about our idea of mistake or error educational potential for the T&I classroom, we would like to present a working model of the communicative handling of mistakes that we regularly use in our educational practice. It relies on six main points, listed and discussed below.

1. Give yourself the right to make a mistake: avoid punishing yourself for it or cherishing it

However trivial this point may seem, admitting the fact that one has made a mistake – and in a way giving oneself the right to make mistakes – constitutes one of the most difficult skills in the process of learning from mistakes. For one thing, when someone discloses that we are at tangent with facts, norms or expectations, we are likely to react with denial (*cf.* Rogers 1951). Another problem is that a lot of students and teachers whom we know still live in the transmissionist world (*cf.* Klimkowski, Klimkowska 2012), where mistakes are part of the major transmissionist educational narrative about gratification or punishment, increased or decreased chances of getting promoted. In such circumstances, teachers may tend to use mistakes to strengthen the sense of control over students. Following this narrative, students are expected to comply to the authority of the teacher as the one who knows about their mistakes. Unless the teacher gives the students the right to make mistakes as part of the learning process, the mistakes can only be used as instruments of control, inevitably leading to the students' sense of guilt and to student disempowerment.

One kind of reaction of a student who participates in the narrative outlined above is to multiply excuses for the mistake. Some students try to argue that "this mistake is not a mistake, really" or that "it is perhaps a mistake, but I not mean to make it, so it is less of a mistake, so there are no grounds to treat it as a mistake," and so on. These students find it difficult to give themselves the right to be mistaken as part of learning. More often than not, they are more concerned about negotiating the grade for a task than about the fact, if they did or did not perform.

There are also other students, who do not look for excuses to somehow reject the fact of a mistaken action. Instead, they openly admit that "they realize they do badly" and they are ready to accept any kind of criticism and punishment unconditionally. The problem with this group is, however, that even though they seem not to reject criticism verbally, they do not use it as feedback for learning, either. The defensive self-criticism these students exhibit is a method allowing them to survive the eminent criticism from the teacher and then to do nothing, or not much about it as regards learning ("I am bad at it, that is a matter of fact").

Narratives like the ones exemplified above need to be transformed. Our suggestion for T&I teachers is to make translation/interpreting mistakes a standard unbiased element of classroom interaction and communication. We all make them; let us all learn from them. It must be kept in mind that giving oneself the right to make a mistake will rather be a process than a matter of a single act or declaration. It should rather be regarded a skill to master by the teachers and the students.

2. It is good that you react to mistakes with negative emotions, but learn to consciously make an effort to separate naming, defining, realizing and emotionally experiencing the mistake from naming, defining yourself. Learn to pity the mistake without questioning yourself[74]

When we mentioned an unbiased approach to mistakes above, we did not have in mind a possibility of getting rid of negative emotions related to the experience of one's fault (= learn not to feel them). We rather mean learning to treat these emotions in terms of a task – as part of the overall translation task. Under the view we advocate here, negative emotions are crucial incentives for our reaction to a mistake and they pave a way for our corrective measures. Trying to get rid of them – either by denying having made the mistake, or by overgeneralizing self-criticism – is likely to lead to the accumulation of negative experiences connected with making mistakes and negative self-esteem. In this way, another barrier in translator's/interpreter's performance will emerge.

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74 This point uses a technique called fogging, as defined by M. Smith (1975) in his seminal work that gave rise to the theory and therapeutic practice of assertiveness.

When, on the other hand, we help our students transform their view of mistakes from problems to tasks, the emotional load caused by the negative experience related to a mistake can be transformed into actions to seek a solution to a translation/interpreting challenge. In this way, we depart from the understanding of translation/interpreting mistakes as related to the experiencing of difficult emotional situation towards a task-oriented approach to translation/interpreting mistakes, which triggers students' repair mechanisms. In consequence, the approach we present here leads to reduced levels of emotional pressure (stress), and equips the students with mechanisms to use stress as incentive rather than succumb to the disempowering burden of negative emotions.

This last observation exhibits is a clear professional benefit of adopting our view of handling mistakes in the T&I classroom. Firstly, it seems our suggestions coincide directly with the idea of self-regulation developed by B. Moser-Mercer (2008) in that they equip the translator/interpreter with strategic skills of monitoring and regulating his/her performance. Secondly, translators/interpreters who understand the unavoidability of mistakes in translation/interpreting, and who have the skills of handling them as professional tasks are more likely to constructively face potential criticism (justified or not) from clients, supervisors or peers. Despite the discomfort caused by the criticism as such, they know how to admit what must be admitted (*e.g.* justified criticism concerning how a particular task has been performed) and reject what is to be rejected (*e.g.* aggressive evaluative statements addressed at the translator/interpreter).[75]

3.   Define the nature of the mistake (what is the problem)

This point marks another seemingly trivial task, which our students often find unattractive enough to delve into. It is true that the nature of the mistakes made by a learner need – at least to some extent and at some stage of training – be exposed to them by a teacher or their peers. However, it can be advantageous to have students speculate about the nature of their mistakes. Ultimately, they will need to learn to rely

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75 We are of the opinion that our proposals for how to use T&I classroom mistakes for educational purposes corroborate with *e.g.* D. Gile's ([1995] 2009) proposals as regards the effort models of interpreting and with the notion of self-preservation in interpreting, proposed in C. Monacelli (2009).

mostly on their own in that respect (self-regulation). It goes without saying that defining the nature of the mistake can be difficult and time consuming, and that learning to understand one's mistakes is another skill that takes time to master.

4. Work out a solution (exercise, procedure, method...)

Solutions, or at least steps to find ones, should best be proposed by students themselves, even though this depends on the level of student autonomy and the way in which the students (and the teacher) have defined the nature of the mistake. There can be little doubt that the role of the teacher as facilitator and evaluator cannot be overestimated in this respect. However, as in point 3 above, the sooner the student becomes self-reliant in seeking solutions to the problems, the closer he/she is to self-regulated translation/interpreting performance.

5. Share the solution with the peers and the teacher

Another advantage of insisting on students' developing solutions to translation/interpreting problems is that they can be shared in a group, and can help the teachers understand better the problems experienced by their students. Thanks to this approach, the teachers can develop more effective exercises for their students and learn to address the problems more efficiently in the classroom communication.

Additionally, sharing the problems and solutions with others introduces collaborative empowerment to the translation classroom. Firstly, it empowers students in their ability to address publically the developmental difficulties they experience. This is difficult since students feel enormous pressure of being negatively evaluated by the others, but once this barrier is transgressed, they feel reassured to find out that the other members of the group often experience similar kind of problems. Again, facing the discomfort and transgressing it seems the best way to solve such problems and to make students realize they can handle them on their own.

Collaborative work on mistakes is not only a question of changing discomfort into sense of attainment and success. In our view, students who are deprived of a chance to *share* their mistakes with others are

likely to miss a chance for facilitating the development of their skills of self-regulation. Left alone with their mistakes, disempowered learners are likely to concentrate on hiding the unwanted facts rather than on opening to transforming the mistakes into developmental opportunities.

6.   Ask for help

The ability to ask for help is the final skill to be mentioned as key for the T&I classroom communication about translation/interpreting mistakes. In our opinion, this skill is a precondition for effective communication in the T&I classroom, and it is likely to wield its influence on the later stages of the graduates' professional development. It must be noted that asking for help, as defined here, is not to be understood as a communicative act that is an admission of defeat. Neither can it be read as a strategy allowing someone to pass control and responsibility over solving a difficult problem to others (peers, teachers, experts, *etc.*). Asking for help and getting it is part of problem solving and not problem avoidance. Students asking for help need to be inspired to make the best effort they can to accept and understand the nature of the problem they experience and then to experiment with the solutions they have in mind or those that their colleagues or teachers suggested.

The issue of asking for help can be used to illustrate how student autonomy in task-realization can be supported by collaboration – on condition such collaborative problem solving does not encourage passiveness on the part of some students. The latter can be the case when students wilfully avoid defining their educational problems, let alone solving them. Such students often "sincerely" declare "I am sorry, I cannot make it," "I know I can't," "I realize how bad a team member I am," hoping that other will "help" them by doing their job. Mechanisms like the ones illustrated above are hugely detrimental to the idea of T&I classroom as a shared space, and need to be carefully observed by the teachers.

To make asking for help a constructive act, the T&I classroom participants need to determine the intentions of the person in need. One communicative strategy that can be useful in this respect is determining what steps and measures the person in need has taken before asking for help. Information obtained in return can help determine the true nature of the request.

2. The teacher

Our analysis of a variety of sources in T&I education as well as in the field of education theories leads us to the observation that in some narratives used in these sources, students are not understood as real people, but rather as lists of competences to master or as candidates for jobs. A similar observation concerns the teacher. As noted by D. Kelly (2008: 101) "[…] most TS literature about training is written in general terms about processes and activities, but much less about the people involved, whether they be students or teachers." We are ready to claim that a lot of sources mentioned above seem to follow a narrative relying on teacher's invisibility in the didactic system. This can partly be owing to the student-centred focus permeating the educational debate in the field of T&I didactics from the mid-1990s. Another reason behind what we interpret as the teacher's marginalization in contemporary educational debate are voices like S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000), who criticise the general institutional settings of educational programmes, opting for substituting the role of the teacher's intervention with more autonomous, heutagogical forms of learning and self-education. Although we partly agree with some aspects of the criticism of the *classical* role of the teacher in the standard didactic environment – as already discussed in this monograph – in our approach we would like to highlight the role of the teacher in the T&I education. In fact, we would like to show how important his/her role is for the anthropocentrically profiled, social constructivist quest for knowledge in the T&I classroom. To a large extent our observations in this section are also anchored in the reflection available in works like D. Kiraly (2000, 2009 or 2012), J. Miller, W. Seller (1985) or D. Kelly (2005). And similarly to the previous section, we would like to expand these proposals by addressing some additional aspects concerning the role of the teacher in students' knowledge building.

Let us start with an observation that the role of the teacher that has already been acknowledged and discussed widely in the literary sources mentioned in this monograph is that of learning facilitator. This concept is well-known from D. Kiraly (2000) and a lot of other constructivist approaches to education. In fact, the vitality of the teacher as a scaffolding constructor and facilitator is also inferable from our discussion in the last section, dealing with role of the learner in the T&I classroom

environment. Taking into account the fact that this role should be relatively well-known to the reader, we will only confine ourselves to addressing a selection of its aspects in our monograph. The concepts we would like to address in this context are the notion of student- vs. teacher-centred education, the notion of power and control, and the notion of educational assessment.

In our attempt to redefine the role of the teacher in the T&I classroom triad, we would also like to highlight another strategic role of a teacher whom we expect to apply the principles of the anthropocentrically profiled T&I education: the learner. We believe that this role has not yet been widely discussed in the literature of the field.

From the epistemological point of view, teaching performance must rest on an assumption that the teacher is a learner, too. This observation is fundamental if the T&I classroom is to be an authentic space of collaborative and relation-based knowledge construction. Scaffolding cannot be effective if the facilitator refuses to learn.

From a more practical point of view, a teacher who develops a narrative according to which he/she knows enough to teach is a disempowered and disempowering teacher. The narrative of *knowing enough* is not a marker of expertise, but more likely of proceduralist routine. From the perspective of the approach we present in this monograph, teachers who refuse to be transformed by their learning are a serious challenge to T&I education. Whenever we can hear arguments of the kind "I have 20 years of teaching experience. You can believe me, I know how to teach," we are in doubt whether this long-term experience is a curse rather than a blessing for such teachers' performance.

Taking all these observations into account, let us claim that learning experience cannot only be an exclusive privilege of the student. In fact, in view of our strong emphasis on the opening of the T&I classroom and curriculum to *multiple voices*, we want to see all the stakeholders of the T&I educational process as learners – apart from all the other roles they have.

2.1. Against the centre–periphery metaphor in translator education

The departure from the transmissionist way of thinking in T&I education, as postulated by scholars such as C. Nord (1996), K. Klaudy (1996), D. Kiraly (2000) or M. González Davies (2004) is very often interpreted

as a turn from *teacher-centred* to *student-centred* understanding of T&I education (see *e.g.* González Davies, Kiraly 2006: 83). This turn seems a more or less direct projection of C. Rogers' departure from the *therapist-centred* to the *patient-centred* therapy in clinical psychology. As already discussed in Chapter 4, C. Rogers (1951) extrapolated his approach to therapy onto the domain of education. Seen from his perspective, the idea of redefining the roles played by the protagonists of the educational process is convincing.

Irrespective of its positive influence on the development of educational theory and practice, the metaphor of student-centred education as a cure to the limitations of teacher-centred educational environment is not uncontroversial. Firstly, we are going to argue that the notion of teacher-centred education is not precise enough, especially when it is used as typical of transmissionist educational epistemology and methodology. It is true, on the one hand, that the transmissionist classroom expects the teacher to be the source of knowledge and truth for the students, who are expected to assimilate them in the process called learning. It is also true, that the transmissionist teacher is in full control of the content, processes and assessment.

At the same time, when we put the role that the transmissionist narrative organizing the classroom space envisaged for the teacher under closer scrutiny, we can ask if his/her role in this classroom was indeed central. In other words, is it viable to assume that the teacher whose main function is to execute educational procedures and transmit knowledge to the students is indeed the central player on the educational scene. As long as we look at the didactic triad from an *idealized* perspective, under which education is about designing, implementing teaching procedures and then observing their effectiveness, the *idealized* teacher – as educational procedure executor – can be regarded as a key player: the main agent of educational intervention. Yet, when we adopt a person-centred, anthropocentric view on learning and education, the teacher's centrality in the didactic system turns out to be an illusion. Firstly, when we adopt a person-centred approach to education, and start thinking about teachers as real people, we ask if being a programmed procedure executor can be interpreted in terms of centrality in the didactic system. It rather seems to us, that, similarly to students, transmissionist teachers also fall victim to the objectivistic, procedure-centred, epistemological flawed conception

of education. His/her agentive (anthropocentric) potential is limited to the confines of the transmissionist model. He/she is just a link in the chain of knowledge distribution to the students. Forced to believe that his/her role is to teach or "realize didactic material," and frustrated when the students fail to "absorb" the knowledge that is "given" to them, this teacher is hardly in control of the transmissionist classroom. Thus, although it is often emphasized how transmissionism is detrimental to students and learning, it is often an ignored fact that transmissionism is equally detrimental to teachers – not only as learning facilitators, but as people.

The arguments used above are not intended to be an apology of transmissionism. They rather serve as our explanation why we would like to recommend eliminating metaphors like student-centred or teacher-centred from educational debate, including that in the field of T&I didactics. In fact, we would like to eliminate any educational metaphor that is based on the centre–periphery contrast. If the T&I classroom is to be conceived of as shared space, the antagonising narratives like the one we discuss here should be avoided. From the perspective of a relational approach to T&I education we promote hereby, classroom narratives based on the centre–periphery dichotomy constitutes a serious challenge to the objective of working on the educational tasks together. Under the *centre–periphery* conceptualization framework, the *we–them* dichotomy is likely to prevail (we – teachers, them – students, *etc.*).

The problems diagnosed above provide another argument in favour of our triadic, systemic approach to T&I education. The educational triad, which we propose as a conceptualization of how to organize the T&I classroom social and task-oriented space, helps avoid seeing any of the classroom components/participants as central or peripheral – more or less important. The triad – in which human interaction is a key resource in task realization – is an educational strategy that helps us reframe the outlook on classroom dynamics (González Davies 2004). It also exempts us from a need of postulating the centrality or marginality of the teacher, the students or the task in the classroom. In our view, any polarizing metaphor of the kind criticised hereby focuses on disparities and contrasts, whereas the main line of thought in this monograph is that translator education needs more integration of educational ideas, sharing of responsibilities by the educational protagonists and efficient communication within the classroom and with the world outside.

2.2. The teacher as facilitator in control

Another concept worthy of a comment in the context of our investigations concerning the role of empowered T&I teacher is that of control. As remarked by M. González Davies, D. Kiraly (2006: 83), the departure from the transmissionist approach to learning is marked by the growth in the students' control over their learning:

> Perhaps the most striking change in classrooms from the application of both the objective-based and the social-constructivist approach is the shift toward student-centered learning. Although the chalk-and-talk transmissionist approach may still be the rule in many translator education centers, what might be called cooperative or collaborative approaches involving extensive group work and a systematic transfer of control from the teacher to the learners in the educational process are becoming increasingly popular. Many teachers are seeing their role gradually evolve from that of lecturer to include that of facilitator, advisor, and resource person, from being a 'sage on the stage' to a 'guide on the side.' (González Davies, Kiraly 2006: 83)

There is no denying that the change in understanding and executing control, as defined in the quotation above, is a prerequisite of the passage from the transmissionist towards the empowered way of thinking in education. The transmissionist concept of control is marked by the teacher's monopoly in the world of senses. Control is needed as a disciplinary tool to secure efficient realization of educational procedures in the classroom. As the notion of empowerment suggests, education must become a source of power and control for the learner. Nevertheless, in our view, the question of control in the classroom is more complicated that it can seem from the fragment quoted above.

Notwithstanding the need to change how control is understood and practiced in the T&I classroom, we find debatable the notion of "systematic transfer of the control from the teacher to the learner" (González Davies, Kiraly 2006, as quoted above, also see Kiraly 2000 and the discussion of his ideas in Chapters 3 and 4). This is because the notion of transfer can evoke an idea of one classroom protagonist becoming devoid of power, when the other comes in full control. This narrative seems to correspond directly to the *revolutionary* narrative underlying the shift from the *teacher-* to the *student-centred* education, as discussed above.

Our stance on the matter of classroom control is that students come in control in the empowered translation classroom when they are allowed to act as anthropocentrically profiled learners. From the anthropocentric point of view, self-directed learning means being in control, as it is closely connected with self-assessment of one's actions and planning future steps (*cf.* Moser-Mercer 2008, as discussed above). As in the case of knowledge, there is no possibility for anyone to transfer control on anyone else, even though this expression is a useful metaphor in handling some aspects of the complex reality of the T&I classroom.

Consequently, if we assume that knowledge is constructed and negotiated in the social process, the same must hold good for control – which in our view is pack and parcel of learning. Thus, we find more accurate the claim that control in the empowered classroom becomes subject to negotiation between the teacher and the students. Therefore, we suggest a notion of *sharing of control* as more accurate in epistemological terms than the concept of *transfer of control*.

Apart from the epistemological clarification, our deliberations around the notion of control also have a practical facet. When encountered with the notion of *transfer of control* to students, the teachers can feel that their position in the classroom is marginalized: they have nothing to do, but to let the student decide on whatever happens in the classroom. This is hardly what M. González Davies, D. Kiraly (2006) have in mind when they state that the teacher's role is to change from a "sage on the stage" to a "guide on the side" (see quotation above). In our view the notion of *sharing of control* offers a truly social constructivist perspective, avoiding the unwanted sense of complete loss of influence on the part of the teachers – which in our view is evoked by the notion of *transfer of control*. The former notion can evoke more a positive image of an effort one has to make to win the interest of students, on the one hand, still staying in negotiated control of the learning environment (scaffolding), on the other.

In our triadic structure of the T&I classroom, sharing of control is facilitated by third system component: the task. The teacher and the student use the task, the process of its attainment and assessment as a rationale for negotiating control in the classroom. In this way, the teacher is no longer in need of legitimizing his/her control, but can refer to the task and the requirements imposed by its successful

realization as a reason for controlling the classroom activity of the students (as well as his/her own).

Lastly, all the observations made above let us assume that when considering the notion of control in the classroom, we need to see it in the context of its roots and purposes. Teacher's control can be a key resource in education, as long as it is shared and negotiated, and as long as it serves to realize educational objectives that transgress the teacher's need of having an ordered audience of listeners, who gladly memorize correct answers and display them on demand.

2.3. The teacher as evaluator

Assessment is an element of the T&I classroom interaction that is of fundamental impact on the educational process.[76] It is interesting to observe that while most theorists of translation and translation didactics as well as T&I teachers find unquestionable the claims about translation or interpreting leading to viable target text versions, a lot of them seem to be equally attracted by the idea of one, objective assessment of T&I performance, that can be replicable by different teachers in different learning conditions. We are ready to interpret this stance as putting T&I classroom assessment back to the era of the quest for translation equivalence.

In our view, assessment is an integral part of the learning process and its major role is to provide feedback necessary for developing self-regulation, as discussed in section 1.4. We also claim that there is more to assessment than sending the message with the final result or getting a feedback remark from the teacher. In our view, the fact that self-assessment is part of learning – rather than coming after it – implies the T&I classroom assessment practices should focus on providing the learners with feedback

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76 Assessment in T&I training seems to be winning more and more attention of researchers. This is borne out by two recent collective volumes dedicated to the issue: C. Angelelli, H. Jacobson (2009) and V. Pellatt *et al.* (eds.) (2010). Another collection of articles, partly focusing on translation/interpreting assessment is A. Kopczyński, M. Kizeweter (2009). Assessment strategies constitute an important part of D. Sawyer (2004). In the context of this monograph, also worth noting are contributions by C. Waddington (*e.g.* 2001) and M. Garant (*e.g.* 2009) and their appeal for an holistic conception of translation performance assessement. The notion of plan-based assessment in T&I training, proposed by Y. Zhong (2005) seems to correspond closely to our vision of negotiated, shared assessment.

necessary for self-assessment and further learning. Hence, even summative assessment – *e.g.* on completion of a project – also needs to provide formative stimulus for growth, for instance by helping the students construct their sense of attainment and self-efficacy (*cf. e.g.* Deci, Ryan 1985 and their concept of competence).

The integration of the styles of assessment we propose is possible under the anthropocentric view on learning. This epistemological approach helps understand the nature of learning as knowledge construction, with self-assessment being part of it. This is why both styles of assessment (formative and summative) should always be employed to maximize the building of the students system of self-assessment and self-regulation (*cf.* Moser-Mercer 2008).

If classroom assessment is primarily anchored in the learning process, not in teaching, the role of the teacher's feedback to students, as a form of assessment and as a tool of building self-assessment becomes vital. Under this view, assessment is not a teacher's undisputable judgement about the student's performance (or about the student as such), but a communication activity, where the final assessment is available through the student–teacher dialogue on the facts of the task and the student's performance. Consequently, assessment as we see it substantially depends on the teacher's communication skills.

2.4. The teacher as communicator

In this section, we would like to discuss in more detail the role of the teacher as communicator. Communication skills or competences also make part of each and every model of translation competence presented in the literature of the field.[77] Consequently, communication skills must also have its place in the translation classroom.

It is far beyond the scope of this monograph to discuss in depth the multitude of works in the field of communication psychology, interpersonal communication and other related psychological disciplines that deal with the skills of managing human interpersonal communication.[78] For the purposes of our monograph, we have decided to focus

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77 Since these models have already been referred to in the earlier parts of this monograph, no reference data are provided here. See *e.g.* Chapter 1 for details.

78 For surveys of key concepts, ideas and theories in interpersonal communication, see *e.g.* A. Hill *et al.* (2007).

on a handful of ideas available in the literature of the subject, as directly relevant to the approach we are developing here.

1. Focusing on tasks, objectives and results rather than on people

The idea that effective communication in contexts like the T&I task-oriented classrooms needs to focus on tasks, objectives, problems, obstacles or challenges – and not on people related with these situations – recurs in almost every psychological work on human communication. This communicative strategy has to do with the concept of defensive and supportive climate suggested by J. Gibb (1961, 1964). In short, interpersonal communication based on evaluative terms, especially on personal evaluation narratives, is likely to produce a defensive communicative climate, with either side (assuming tentatively that there are two partners communicating) or both partners seeking defence rather than cooperation through communicative actions. Supportive communication climate, on the other hand, tends to rely on narratives oriented towards description of the *status quo* and problem solving (see our proposals for handling mistakes in T&I classroom above).

> Few of us feel what Gibb called "psychologically safe" when we are the targets of judgments. Communication researchers report that evaluative communication evokes defensiveness […]. We are also less likely to self-disclose to someone we think is judgmental […] even positive evaluations can sometimes make us defensive because they carry the relationship-level meaning that another person feels entitled to judge us […]. Here are several examples of evaluative statements: "It's dumb to feel that way," "You shouldn't have done that," "I approve of what you did," "That's a stupid idea."
> Descriptive communication doesn't evaluate others or what they think and feel. Instead, it describes behaviors without passing judgment. *I* language […] describes what the person speaking feels or thinks, but it doesn't evaluate another. (*you* language does evaluate). Descriptive language may refer to another, but it does so by describing, not evaluating, the other's behavior: "You seem to be sleeping more lately" versus "You're sleeping too much"; "You seem to have more stuff on your desk than usual" versus "Your desk is a mess." (Woods 2007: 207–208, original text formatting retained, original references removed for brevity.)

The T&I classroom communication can be empowering on condition that its narrative is orientated on tasks, objectives, successes, failures, difficulties or obstacles; and not on the evaluation of a person, even if meant to be empowering and informative. This is why the teacher and the students develop a style of communicating that separates assessment of a task from evaluative communication that the classroom protagonists are likely to interpret in terms of being assessed as a person (my performance is good = I am good, my performance is bad = I am bad).

We wish to strongly emphasize that, in our view, the separation of person assessment from task assessment concerns both, the positive and the negative messages occurring in the classroom. We are of the opinion that both, positive or negative person-targeted evaluation is detrimental for the T&I classroom communication. It is easy to imagine that criticism like "how can you think of becoming a translator if you make such mistakes" is disempowering and is very likely to cause developmental barriers in a learner. Yet, we are prone to believe that a similar disempowering effect can be brought about by flattering messages addressed to a very good student. Owing to the developmental stage of the majority of academic students (*cf.* Klimkowski, Klimkowska 2012 and references there), it is likely that flattery can lead to an internal feedback like "I am good, no further developmental effort is needed!".

Both situations – of success and failure require that the teacher relates the assessment to the task, and helps students avoid their interpretation of assessment in terms of personal valuation. A simple table below gives a set of illustrative examples of sentences listed in order to show contrast between the two styles of communication: person-targeted assessment vs. task-related performance assessment.

Table 17. Examples of person assessment vs. task assessment messages

	Personal assessment messages	Task assessment messages
1.	You did very well and translated/interpreted this fragment.	The strategy you have adopted worked very well in this case.
2.	You did not do well and caused unwanted consequences of your message.	The solution you have chosen caused unwanted consequences.

3.	You should have done otherwise in this case (because…).	Your strategy in this case failed (because…).
4.	It is strange what you have done here.	I find it difficult to trace your decision-making process in this case. Can you explain?
5.	You can do it quite well.	These elements of the task are definitely on the success side of your performance.
6.	I could have expected this to happen.	
7.	I think no comments are needed.	

Let us briefly comment on the sentences in Table 17. The first three sentences are to illustrate the difference between concentrating on the learner as a person and the learner's performance. It can be observed that we do not follow strictly the suggestion to avoid what J. Woods (2007, quoted above) calls *you* language. Indeed, in sentences 1–3 we make use of the direct reference to the learner by means of the *you* pronoun, still, in our view, these are not used in as elements of personal evaluation. We would like to argue that the way we use the pronoun *you* in the right-hand column helps the teacher retain his/her positive attitude to the learner without introducing unnecessary evaluative bias, which allows him to express his/her assessment of the student's task-related performance. In this way, his/her communicative style is not as formal and distanced as it could be if *e.g.* passive voice is used only, and helps retain the relational aspect of the classroom by referring both to the teacher (I) and the student (you). This relational aspect is perhaps best visible in sentence 4. We find it difficult to provide any task-oriented counterparts for sentences 6 and 7 in Table 17, as we tend to believe statements of this kind should be eradicated from the classroom communicative space.

We hope it is clear to the reader that the examples above are meant to illustrate fundamental differences in communicative strategies that can be employed in the T&I classroom. The general idea is to distinguish between assessment that performs a role of a judgment (of the task and the learner) and an invitation to dialogue and relational negotiation of senses about the positive and negative aspects of the learner's task-related performance. It is not our intention, however, to suggest that irrespective of context, all the left-hand columns statements must necessarily evoke

educationally detrimental effects. *E.g. you can do it quite well* or *come on, you can definitely do better that this* can be acceptable options – but as a way of encouragement rather than informative assessment. Yet, the teacher needs to make sure that such messages are likely to be interpreted as strong (also partly evaluative) encouragement, since otherwise they are bound to cause demotivation and fear of failure.[79]

We do not want to suggest either that the right-hand column examples in Table 17 are ready-made recipes for classroom empowerment. Empowerment can result from the dialogue that the sentences in the right-hand column enable, and it can be thwarted by the sentences in the left-hand column. There are perhaps no universals to safeguard the empowering outcomes of the task-oriented classroom communication, or prevent disempowerment. Unfortunately, we are not aware of any research that could confirm or disprove the existence of any such universals. All in all, it must be borne in mind that our main intention here is to signal a need for introducing to the T&I classroom a style of teacher-student communication for the purposes of (a) defining what happened when a task was performed, (b) assessing the performance (with reference to expectations), (c) defining solutions / ways forward.

Another problem with the person-oriented evaluative communication is that it can bring back the transmissionist, unidirectional information flow to the T&I classroom. In our view, this holds good for both negative and positive evaluation messages. In the case of negative assessment, putting the focus on the learner as a person can hinder his/her ability to reconceptualise the facts of inappropriate performance so as to develop or adopt necessary problem-solving strategies for thinking and acting in the future. This can lead to a performance barrier resulting from the fact that although the learner agrees with the teacher's

79 We admit that at this point we might be at tangent with some models of interpersonal communication – or at least some representatives of such models. For example, ardent advocates of avoiding any forms of aggressiveness in communication can claim that our suggestion to use strong encouragement of the kind we described above is a form of aggessive communicative behaviour, which cannot be promoted as empowering. We admit we disagree with such an uncompromising approach to communicative aggressiveness as idealizing, even though we agree that communicative aggressiveness should in general be avoided as detrimental for communication. Whether we like it or not, human aggressiveness is a matter of fact and it should make part of situated T&I educational interaction as a problem that needs handling rather than evading.

assessment, but is too paralysed to be able to think, work out or ask about potential solutions. Hence, this is a case of assessment that leaves the student at a loss. He/she does not know what to do about it since being assessed as a person; he/she finds it difficult to reframe the evaluation as focusing on task-related problems. Such students are thus likely to passively accept the negative assessment, adding it to their general negative self-assessment (self-esteem), since the teacher's message does not provide them with a conceptual framework in which the problem or mistake could be reconceptualised into a task.

Negative and positive assessments differ in terms of the affective outcomes they bring. Negative assessment is very likely to be interpreted by the student in terms of punishment and it seems reasonable to expect that the occurrence of the developmental barrier in question is more likely. Yet, positive assessment that fails to show a pathway to progress can also be dangerous, as it can lead to difficulties in the students' lack of readiness to analyse their mistakes – as discussed above. In this sense, the task-oriented evaluative communication provides a more emotionally balanced communication environment and hence helps avoid disempowerment.

A consequence of our approach to the T&I classroom communication is also that we expect the teacher to continuously develop his/her own skills of interpersonal communication. These skills include his/her discretion of how to use communication to encourage the students' educational transformation and avoid blocking it. In fact, the task that we envisage for the teacher is to help his/her students change their own assessment-related narratives: from evaluating themselves to assessing their performance, since it is that latter narrative that can help them find ways towards holistic knowledge and skill development.

Let us also remind the reader that our perspective on the T&I classroom communication reaches beyond the classroom itself. We are convinced that empowering communication strategies employed in the classroom can translate on the graduates more effective communicative functioning in their professional, social and cultural environments. For example, we have already observed that communication skills can be helpful for translators/interpreters in their handling (negotiating, accepting, and rejecting) cases of clients' dissatisfaction or criticism. Problem-oriented communication strategy can help the translator/interpreter communicate with a dissatisfied partner (client, colleague, superior) in a way that focuses

on determining the real problems that need improvement, while being able to distance oneself from aggressive behaviour that can accompany the partner's signalling his dissatisfaction with the translation/interpreting service. As in the case of the translation classroom, if the translator/interpreter is able to successfully engage into a dialogue with the dissatisfied client, they have a greater chance of ensuring the latter that despite problems that took place, solutions can be worked out for the sake of more fruitful future cooperation. Thanks to this effective communication strategy, a professional performance crisis can be redefined in terms of a task to pursue, which can ultimately be a source of added value for the translator/interpreter – the client – the service triad.

2. Creating an environment for safe exchange of thought

As quoted above, the strategy of problem-oriented rather than person-oriented communication relates to a more general notion of psychological safety (see quotation from Woods 2007 above). One could also refer here to C. Rogers' (1951) hypotheses, discussed in Chapter 4 above, where he observed that transformative learning experience can be threating to the learner's self. Consequently, educators should do their best to create learning environments that reduce the sense of the threat to the minimum.

In the context of our approach to communication in the T&I classroom, this need to avoid learner's threatened identity means that the teacher must possess the skills of determining the sensitivity of his/her students to feedback – both positive and negative. Communicating with a particular student or group can help the teacher decide how direct he/she can be with his/her assessment and to what extent he/she needs to scaffold the direct performance evaluation.

We do not subscribe to the point of view that positive feedback is any way easier to manage than the negative one. They differ in the kind of emotional load they induce, among other things, but they both need skilful communicators, if they are to bring short- and long-term empowerment of learning. The teacher in the approach proposed hereby needs to test his/her students' reactions to feedback and to create an environment of safe exchange of information. An environment we have in mind is the one where the students can hope for assessment information without being exposed to personal valuation. In this kind of environment

there are no 'stupid mistakes' or 'stupid questions,' as the students need to feel that however inaccurate, mistaken or absurd their questions or observations can be for the teacher, they will not be punished for asking or making them. In fact, the students need to be invited to make them, on condition that the questions and observations are asked and made with the intention of solving the problem and attaining the task, and not evading it. Hence, the idea of safety is not based on avoiding touching upon *e.g.* the difficult, negative aspects of the T&I classroom performance, but on handling them in a shared and safe communication environment.

3. Psychological safety cannot mean avoidance of the demands of learning

One could observe that a postulate of creating a psychologically safe learning environment is in contradiction with the claim we make in point 3 as regards demands. Let us make it clear at that point that neither C. Rogers' (1951) notion of reducing the threat to the learner's self, nor J. Gibb's (1961) idea of psychological safety can be read as justification for avoiding demands in learning. On the contrary, C. Rogers' (1951) postulates are meant to help the learner successfully face the task of his/ her transformation through learning, and not to avoid the developmental effort. J. Gibb's (1961) psychological safety is a precondition for effective communicative efforts, indispensable in effective, yet often difficult and troublesome, management of human interrelations. Also theorists of motivation seem to generally agree that people tend to be attracted to tasks that are promising – in terms of a high chance of success – but demanding at the same time – where task attainment is assessed by the performer as valuable (significant) (*cf. e.g.* the expectancy-value models of motivation or the goal-setting theory, as explored in Dörnyei 2001: 20–26).

In the light of the above, the situated, task-oriented T&I classroom communication must be expected to be an instrument of handling the demands of learning faced by the student and the teacher. A particularly important part of the T&I classroom communication that must integrate the elements of psychological safety and developmental demands is assessment. We are of the opinion that it is our communicative approach to classroom assessment that offers far greater advantages

to the T&I educational empowerment that the one based on the teacher's unidirectional assessment messages; a sentence proclaiming the undisputable truth about the knowledge of the student. Under our approach, the assessment-related classroom communication corresponds very closely to the task and task realization. It focuses on negotiated determining of the facts related to the student's performance in task realization. Hence, even though the final assessment of a given translation/interpreting solution stays in the hands of the teacher (see the next section), the assessment-related information (feedback) that is worked out together by the student and the teacher can inform both partners of what steps are needed for future learning.

In our view, classroom assessment as described above is very demanding for both, the student and the teacher. The demands concern the task and its realization, but also the communication between the classroom protagonists, who constantly need to learn to negotiate the optimal conditions for their collaborative, relational development.

4. The teacher is an expert and an authority, but not the ultimate source of truth

A system of interpersonal communication in the T&I classroom we present hereby rests on a narrative where the teacher is an expert and an authority, but he/she avoids being the ultimate source of ready-made knowledge that is objective and unquestionable. The teacher envisaged in our approach has an obligation to show that there are no ultimate sources of truth and that translation solutions (constructed senses) are subject to negotiating (individual or collaborative decision-making).

The obligation defined above translates onto the teacher's courage to admit that there are things that he/she does not know. We talk about courage here, because we are aware of the fact that a lot of university students are not ready to interpret this narrative on the teacher's part as an invitation to explore the world for answers, but are more likely to read it as the teacher's weakness or his lack of commitment (*cf.* Klimkowski, Klimkowska 2012).

Asking the teacher for that courage, we want to argue that such an attitude on his/her part can be an effective tool of attracting the students to getting to know the world outside the classroom as a source of knowledge.

In other words, we want to make the students transform their view of learning through making them seek knowledge in the world, and not in the notes or translation solutions they were provided with by the teacher (*cf.* Nord 1996).

The teacher who decides to resign from being the classroom *omnibus* becomes an authority by virtue of his/her knowledge, but also by his/her ability to refer to the knowledge of others, irrespective of whether he/she agrees with them or not. Thus in fact, although the teacher is no longer in charge of the censorship of senses, he/she retains that kind of control over learning which is a prerequisite of effective learning facilitation. In this case, the teacher's control is legitimized by his/her authority within the task-realization project narrative – that is as a translation/interpreting or terminology expert – and not by the fact of his executing academic curricular procedures. His/her ability to redirect students to sources of knowledge other than his/her own can also add to his/her authority, if his/her communication solutions manage to overcome the students' preference for a safer, less demanding, even though less inspiring classroom dynamics (*cf.* Klimkowski, Klimkowska 2012).

5. Opening the communication environment: the metaphor of *multiple voices* (González Davies 2004)

The last aspect of the classroom communication we would like to ponder upon is opening the classroom communication to voices other than the teacher's transmissionist narrative needed to instruct. This point relates directly to the previous one, where we have shown that the teacher's courage to admit he/she is not the ultimate source of truth can help redefine the students expectations: from waiting for the teacher (or the book) to tell them the correct answer to active exploration of multiple answers, out of which they will have to ultimately choose the relevant ones (*cf.* Pym's (2003) definition of translation competence).

Consequently, the classroom communication environment gets open. The communication between the students and the teacher can be enriched by a multitude of sources, including other professional translators, domain specialists, *etc.*, as suggested M. González Davies (2004) with the use of the metaphor of *multiple voices* in the T&I education,

repeatedly referred to throughout this monograph. As we have already pointed out, we are of the opinion that the potential of this metaphor reaches beyond the educational practice of inviting experts to participate more or less occasionally in the classroom translation projects, or asking them for particular bits of advice. From the communicative perspective we are exploring here, multiple voices can be more advantageously understood as equally valid multiple narratives. Their being equally valid means a need on the part of training translators/interpreters to learn to negotiate senses and solutions, if the student is finally to produce his/her translation/interpreting version.

Let us observe how demanding an approach like ours can be in the T&I classroom context, when contrasted with the transmissionist approach to classroom communication. Under the transmissionist approach, the classroom interaction is uncomplicated: the teacher – or an expert, if he/she is granted the power to assess students – is always right and delivers unquestionably true answers. There is no need for him/her then to allow the students to question his/her solutions. In this case, only the teacher's or the expert's voice truly matters.

In the approach we promote, all the voices are given the power to influence T&I solutions, which means that the T&I classroom becomes an arena of a communication crisis. To solve it, the teacher, the expert and the students present their viewpoints to reach a final, negotiated conclusion. Solving such crises can be extremely empowering, as it helps all the classroom participants to understand that, rather than looking for ready-made answers, all of them can be better off engaging in negotiating the solutions that they are ready to accept as optimal. Consequently, the power of this classroom dynamics reaches beyond the mere enlarging of the number of participants of the classroom translation project. The metaphor of *multiple voices* allows sharing control over the classroom narratives between all the participants, through engaging them in negotiating the multiple versions of *who is right in this case*.

2.5. The teacher as negotiator

As illustrated briefly in the sections above, exchanging feedback information between the students and the teachers can take the form of negotiating viewpoints on a given problem.[80] Even though there is a huge

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80 The idea of negotiating as employed here corresponds to the notion of mediation,

risk that the students can fail to adopt an adult learner approach to such negotiations – expecting the teacher to accept their view is superior – the approach we propose expects the teacher to be able to skilfully engage into such activities.

Since we expect the teacher to become a negotiator in the process of knowledge construction, we also need to equip him/her with the right to define the scope of such possible negotiations (scaffolding) and leave final project-related decision-making in contested situations in his hands. Also, as regards the summative aspect of T&I classroom assessment, we believe that despite its communicative nature, the conclusion of the assessment-related dialogue (grading) should also remain the teacher's responsibility.

At first sight, this *casting vote* on behalf of the teacher can be interpreted as a step back to the transmissionist centrality of the teacher's version of the translated text – as previously discussed in this chapter and in Chapter 3 above. Yet, we are ready to argue that the teacher's ultimate translation decisions as we see them mark a qualitative difference from the transmissionist *performance magistrale*. It must be remembered that in our view, assessment is not about expressing the teacher's objective view on how the students performed, but on exploring the facts about that performance to facilitate further learning. However, in situations, where the students and the teacher work on a situated (simulated or real-life) translation/interpreting project and when in some cases no compromise in translation-/interpreting-related decision-making is possible between the learner and the teacher, the latter – as a person responsible for the project – must have the tool of choosing the ultimate solutions that will be presented to the client. Let us observe that in such cases, the teacher's casting vote is not that of a transmissionist teacher who blocks the whole process of target text rendition, but that of a reviewer or translation quality assurance officer. In that latter role, the teacher uses his/her translation/interpreting expertise to explain why he/she adopts a given translation/interpreting solution as the most relevant in the context of a given task. Thus his/her voice is not that of an undisputable authority, but that of a translation/interpreting expert who is ready to defend his/her translation option on the basis of his/her expertise, and

as mentioned by M. Piotrowska (2007: 146) in her discussion on H. Komorowska (2003). Negotiating of assessment corresponds partly to A. Pym (1993).

to accept the fact that some classroom participants (students or experts) do not share his/her views.

Another important reason for empowering the teacher as regards assessment relates to the evaluation tools they have at their disposal, *e.g.* scales like the one presented and thoroughly discussed in J. Lee (2008)[81] or the rubric in C. Angelelli (2009). Tools like these can provide very useful ideas of how to organize the classroom interaction for the needs of task realization (*e.g.* what principles are to govern the interaction and what elements of trainee-translators' performance will be subject to assessment). It must, however, be kept in mind that, ultimately, a grid or any other assessment method or tool cannot exempt the teacher or the student from the dialogical relation in shared assessing of the task-related performance.

As shown in the example of the potential conflicting solutions between the teacher and the student (or an expert), it must be remembered how often the translation and interpreting problems are context-dependent. Being part of textual communication, the particular solution adopted by the translator, and especially the interpreter, for a fragment of a text can turn out to be something between less advantageous to mistaken, when another fragment of the same text is disclosed. All these complex variables influencing the translator's/interpreter's decision-making can render it impossible to classify a particular translation/interpreting solution as discretely positive or negative (in accordance with Aristotle's rules of categorization). In other words, although grids like the one in J. Lee (2008) or C. Angelelli (2009) can be extremely useful in organizing the system of values and desired results in translator/interpreter education, the grid itself cannot be the source of *objective* assessment of someone's knowledge or skills – which is often believed to result from of the educators' efforts to observe the rules of assessment reliability and validity (*cf. e.g.* Race *et al.* [1996] 2005: 2). Even if the grid is methodologically reliable and valid, the way in which it is used in the classroom depends on the act of the teacher's interpretation of the students' solutions. Hence, assessment tools are reliable and valid from the point of view of the methodology used to construct them. They can hardly be believed to be authentically reliable and valid

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81 Also note the other scales or grids that J. Lee (2008) relies on and discusses in her article.

evaluations of anyone's knowledge, since the anthropocentric nature of knowledge – as assumed in this monograph – renders it impossible for anyone to be able to evaluate anyone else's knowledge or competence directly (reliably).

Hence, expecting an assessment grid to provide the teacher and the student with the *objective* feedback information on task-related performance is like looking for assessment authority that is extrinsic to the particular classroom environment. In our view, the teacher as envisaged in our approach is empowered to interpret the student's performance on the basis of his personal, anthropocentrically constructed expertise in order to assess it. Also, he/she can conclude a debate upon a given contentious translation/interpreting problem (judgement about the correctness/incorrectness, optionality / lack of optionality in the holistically understood context of the translation/interpreting task at hand) with a well-grounded solution of his choice as a translator/interpreter and project manager.

Finally, let us observe that our vision of the teacher as negotiator and evaluator, with an option of an ultimate decision maker stays in harmony with the professional practice, where translation projects without such ultimate decision makers are hard to find. Take the ultimate translation decisions made by reviewers or editors for example: although they are a general practice, they are hardly ever questioned as controversial or disempowering for translators. In this way, our model of assessment, where negotiating solutions can potentially end with an ultimate translation/interpreting decision by a person other than the translator can help the students understand the complexity and interdependence of the roles played in a translation project.

To round this section up, let us devote a handful of remarks to the notion of teacher control. Firstly, we have shown above how we understand teacher control as a communicative practice. This notion of control is part of scaffolding and is needed if the teacher is to be empowered as the student's educational partner. This view of control is specifically visible in our proposals for relying on mistakes as an educational tool and source of empowerment, and in negotiating the viewpoint for building self-assessment skills. Seen in this way, control is a skill to learn both by the students (*cf.* Moser-Mercer 2008, Tirkkonnen-Condit 2005) and the teachers. It is no longer reduced to the role of disciplinary tool of

keeping the class in order by the instructor, and of assuring positive results at examinations. Control ceases to be an extrinsic, hegemonic factor used by the powerful teacher against the powerless student. Instead, it is integrated into the dynamic classroom interaction between the students and the teachers. What is more, its use reaches beyond the curriculum, empowering the students to perform on the translation/interpreting market as self-regulated professionals.

2.6. The teacher as learner

The need to train the T&I trainers recurs in numerous publications in the field of T&I education. A lot of these works have already been mentioned in this monograph, most of them recurrently; hence we make no specific bibliographic references to them at this point. The only exception is D. Kelly's (2005) *A Handbook for Translator Trainers*, which can be said to offer a comprehensive survey of topics that each contemporary T&I trainer and curriculum designer must be familiar with. Issues such as learning objectives, curricular content, methodology and assessment are covered, along with a chapter devoted to the T&I classroom participants. In it, a special section is devoted to teachers/trainers, teaching styles, expectations and motivation of teachers in their work and the issues of effort coordination and teamwork. All these are valuable insights that we have also taken into consideration for the purposes of this chapter. At the same time, we would like to propose yet another aspect of the teacher's functioning in and outside the classroom, which is signalled only covertly in the literature of the subject: the teacher as learner.

We would like to conceive of the teacher's learning processes as of two kinds. Firstly, he/she gets to know the students through the classroom interaction inspired by his/her intention to carry out educational tasks. In this way, the teacher also learns about the task and all the circumstances that he/she needs to get into account for the benefit of his/her future work as facilitator. The way in which we comprehend the classroom system as discussed above and the communication processes we would like to take place in it are perhaps best illustration of the kind of learning processes we have in mind in this case.

Secondly, if we formulate the claim that the students of an empowered T&I curriculum are expected to experience personal transformation in

the wake of their classroom participation, the same deep change can be expected of the teacher. The teacher needs empowerment in the same way that the students do. Once the teachers, the students or the professional translators allow themselves to believe they know enough, and that learning is no longer their problem and task – however conscious or unconscious this attitude can be – they are abandoning the route towards professionalism and treading towards the dire straits of routine. Soon, they can become advocates of transmissionism, discipline, order in the classroom and the general idea of the 'peace of mind' at all cost. Teacher's disempowerment can only lead to student disempowerment.[82]

In our view, this dramatic tension between seeking development and allowing oneself to become an uncreative executor of instructions, which is experienced by a lot of contemporary professionals, is perhaps the most important rationale behind initiatives like the Life Long Learning Programme, launched by the European Commission in 2007. As rightly remarked by M. Knowles (Knowles *et al.* [1973] 2005: 107, 151–152), lifelong personal development of an adult cannot be reduced to the level of growing capacities of human resources. It must also involve all the efforts needed for the holistic development a professional as a person in his/her individual and social environment.[83]

M. Knowles' (1970) imperative corroborates directly with our anthropocentric conception of learning as the function of the human brain. In this perspective, each human being learns, not by choice or privilege, but rather by virtue of what human brain is and how it works (see Chapter 2 above for detail). Thus our epistemological position expressed repeatedly in this monograph is that learning is individual and unconditional as a function, however what is learned and how is socially negotiated. No one is, therefore, exempt from learning as a regular part of his/her functioning. The contradiction between growth and routine – as drawn above – is not the contradiction of learning vs. lack of learning, epistemologically. It is rather the question of controlling learning for

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82 The relationship between procedural routine and teacher's burn-out has been discussed *e.g.* by S. Brookfield (1995), who also discusses the teacher in the context of his/her needs, reflexivity and the role of the learner.

83 U. Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 2005) idea of participation in culture is worth pointing out in this context, yet the scope of this monograph renders it impossible for us to investigate his proposal in detail.

holistic growth vs. letting off control over the processes, which can lead to learning how to avoid growth.

The teacher's growth as a person is a basic tenet of our approach, since a teacher without a wish to: (a) develop as a person; (b) develop as a professional will hardly find our proposals useful in his/her career. This idea of the self-regulating and self-directed teacher is as central to our monograph as that of the empowered student. We believe that our strong emphasis on the role of the teacher as facilitator, but also as a real person is one of the points in which our study differs from other contributions to the field.

3. The task

As has already been mentioned, the role of the task in our didactic triad corresponds to the notion of content in models like C. Dollerup (1996) or D. Kelly (2005). In the context of our anthropocentric, social constructivist viewpoint on classroom knowledge construction and of the nature of the translation process, we find the notion of task a better suited choice for a rationale that underlies the student–teacher educational relationship in the T&I classroom environment.

In our view, the task is the reason for which the teacher and the student negotiate and agree to engage into educational activities. It thus becomes the source of an educational contract, understood predominantly as a communicative (narrative) and psychological (safety, demands, motivation) environment in which situated learning can be effective.

Crucial for this type of contract is the teacher's winning of the students' interest and sustaining their motivation. The task, rather than content, can be effectively used by T&I educators as motivation enhancers. As in the case of knowledge construction, we are of the opinion that a motivated student or professional is one who learns to control the most important extrinsic stimuli and use them as source of intrinsic drive for action, like meeting the deadline, responding to the customer's complaint or designing a commercial offer for him/her.

This way of thinking about classroom motivation is in stark contrast to the disciplinary educational models, which rely on continuous dependence of students on teacher's extrinsic motivating techniques. Instead of helping the students develop skills of building intrinsic

motivation after graduation, disciplinary models foster dependence on an extrinsic authority (teacher or expert) with his/her monopolistic narrative. As noted by G. Grow (1991), a lot of contemporary educational practices "do more to perpetuate dependency than to create self-direction" (Grow 1991: 127), which – in our view – is partly caused by the educators' predominant reliance on extrinsic, disciplinary motivation. Apart from its detrimental educational effect, extensive reliance on extrinsic motivating leaves the student unprepared for his/her heutagogical, autonomous learning once he/she graduates and the teacher's influence ends. Graduates expecting extrinsic motivation stimuli are likely to suffer disempowerment through inability to define and realize their own career and personal plans. They are only *taught* to react and respond to someone else's demands rather than act and cooperate with their environment. This flawed motivational strategy can be responsible for the sense of insecurity and the lack of self-confidence reported by the Polish students of translation researched by K. Klimkowska (2013).

The task-based strategy of winning and sustaining the students' (and the teachers') motivation also has its bearing on assessment. Motivated to succeed with a task, the students and the teachers are likely to be attracted by the vision of success (value of significant learning), and not with the lowest necessary grades or passmarks.

It can be observed that the vision of assessment we have expounded above in this monograph questions the idea of the objectivity of measuring anyone's knowledge or skills. This means we put on the teacher yet another obligation: to be a subjective evaluator, but not a transmissionist treasury of all the truths and judgements. Instead, the empowered T&I classroom needs a teacher who can play the role of a (translation, terminology) specialist who tries his/her best to use assessment to show his/her students ways to proficiency. The task as we see it is intended to prevent the teacher's transmissionist centralism in the classroom, on condition its realization is not blocked by performance barriers. Hence, although left in the hands of the teacher, assessment is no longer a source of his hegemony over the classroom, but of negotiated efforts at establishing best standards of translator's/interpreter's performance.

Last but not least, the role that we foresee for the educational task is closely correlated with the graduates' professional future. Through

encouraging the skills of self-assessment and self-regulation, the task-based classroom conception creates a learning and working environment that is easy to extrapolate onto the professional reality of the translators'/interpreters' work. One can easily observe that this objective is exactly what situated learning strategies are planned to attain. We hope that our approach helps better understand the underlying premises of situating learning, and that it also shows the need for T&I education to be reflected upon in terms of holistic, personal growth – rather than being limited to a set of skills demanded for professional performance on the market or just finding the first job.

4. The anthropocentric classroom put to test: a programme for simultaneous interpreter training

This section concludes the chapter devoted to our redefinition of the translation classroom triad. Our main purpose here is to show how we tried to implement some of the assumptions made above into our curricular educational practice. In 2010, we encountered an opportunity of co-designing and implementing an educational programme for the students of the Faculty of Humanities at UMCS. We realized that this was a great chance of putting to the test our educational ideas. The programme that is presented in this section was co-authored by Professor Jerzy Żmudzki, Head of the Division of Applied Linguistics at UMCS at that time – a recognized Polish specialist in German studies, translation teacher and researcher. Apart from the co-authorship, our role in the project was also that of educational project manager. We occupied the position in the academic years 2010/11 and 2011/12.

Subject to analysis in this section is a programme for a specialization in simultaneous interpreting that was offered to the students of the Faculty of Humanities at UMCS from October 2011, as an extra, elective specialization to accompany their regular, two-year curricular MA courses, offered by all the Institutes within the Faculty. There was no formal requirement that the candidates represent the Faculty language institutes (philologies). Nonetheless, all the students participating in the course so far have recruited from language students. They represent English and German Philology Institutes and the Division of Applied Linguistics. The candidates were recruited through an entrance

examination procedure in English and German to form the respective language groups. In its original formulation, the specialization was to gather 108 students in three annual editions (three groups with 12 students each, that is 36 students per year). The fact that only three recruitment rounds were planned had to do with the fact that the specialization was co-financed by the EU as part of a programme designed for Polish universities to make them adapt their curricula to the demands of the labour market.[84] In the first year, 36 students were successfully recruited and divided among the two English and one German group (12 students each). Inthe two subsequent editions, the number of students in each group was 14, which was owing to the fact that the interpreting laboratory – built as part of project implementation – was enlarged by a twin-seat booth. Also, in October 2012 and 2013, two English and two German groups were formed. Thus, assuming that the figures will not change much by the time the programme is completed (September 2015), altogether the specialization will have been attended by about 150 students.

Also worth highlighting here is the idea behind specializations like the one discussed here as planned by the Polish Ministry of Higher Education and Research. Although we cannot give any direct reference to a state or ministerial document that could confirm it, in the course of preparing the programme documentation, we were repeatedly informed of the ministerial intentions of making the planned specializations regular curricular components after the project term. A huge quality change that such components could bring to the curricula at UMCS consists in allowing students more choice and autonomy in composing their own educational pathways. This fact is worthy of a mention here since it corroborates with the idea of sharing the curriculum which we promote in this monograph, where the decision-making is negotiated between the students and the curriculum designers and teachers. More detail about the notion of sharing is available in the latter part of this monograph.

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84 The full name of the project is *UMCS dla rynku pracy i gospodarki opartej na wiedzy* [*UMCS for the labour market and knowledge-based economy*], financed within the EU programme *Kapitał Ludzki / Human Capital* within the European Social Fund framework. The project offered 16 specializations for the BA and MA students of the Faculty of Humanities in the years 2011–2013. October 2013 was the time of the last recruitment, and the project will come to an end in September 2015.

The specialization programme included 450 teaching hours to be completed by each student within two years. From the very beginning, we realized this number is quite high, but according to the Polish Law of Higher Education of that time, a programme could be named *specialization* on condition that it offers 420 teaching hours. This regulation was removed in 2012, but it was too late to re-shape of the programme under analysis, as this could lead to complications in its budgeting and its compliance with other elements of the regulatory framework.

4.1. Task-based, situated learning

The major subject of the course was simultaneous interpreting between Polish and English/German (210 teaching hours in two years). From the very beginning, the idea of mono-directional interpreter training was rejected (*cf.* Pokorn 2005, 2011, Kearns 2007).[85] In the first year, the classes in simultaneous interpreting were accompanied by information mining workshops (60 teaching hours). The main idea behind these two subjects was to train students in the task-based mode of work. The topics (specialist domains) for the information mining classes and for some part of the simultaneous interpreting classes were harmonized. The idea behind this step was to situate training in such a way that the students could construct a causal relationship between preparation (information mining class) followed by their interpreting performance (interpreting class). In this way, we wanted to avoid "teaching" the students that "terminology is so important in the interpreter's work." Instead we wanted them to experience how their interpreting performance can be effectively empowered by quality research. They could develop and put to the test their own procedures of researching the topics for interpreting in order to select the most effective ones.

4.2. Multiple voices in interpreter training

Apart from the task-based, situated vision of the classroom, we also planned opening the classroom to multiple voices and perspectives on interpreting. Firstly, in each language group, the classes in simultaneous interpreting were held by two different teachers: one for the first,

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85 Worth mentioning in this context is also D. Kelly's keynote speech *Directionality in Translator Training: What Competences and Who Teaches*, delivered at the MCCTE 2013 Conference in Kraków, 10 October 2013.

the other for the second year of the specialization. Secondly, the specialization programme included 75 teaching hours of student practice. The practice workshops were conducted in the university interpreting laboratory by expert interpreters invited to the programme. They met students for weekend sessions of 6-8 hours, simulating interpreting for meetings or conferences. Before each meeting, the students were informed about the topics of the simulated events so that they can do their research on them.

Thus, the students enjoyed the opportunity to train with a variety of *expert voices* (two regular teachers plus two or three expert interpreters), and the simulation of conferences, symposia or meetings helped make full use of the situated learning approach. We tried our best to persuade the experts in charge of the student practice to use as much profession-related narrative in their interaction with students as possible. For example, we encouraged the experts to use a narrative in which the expert plays the role of a client and quality officer and students are given their commissions.

4.3. Self-regulation as an educational objective

As can be inferred from the content of this monograph, equipping students with instruments of self-assessment and self-regulation is one of the fundamentals of the educational strategy we advocate. This is why we tried our best to encourage the teachers involved in the programme under analysis to adopt our view of assessment in the interpreter classroom, with self-assessment and self-regulation as the strategic educational objectives. We also repeatedly expressed overtly our expectations that the teachers help students understand the need for a change in assessing their performance, including the change in perspective from the quest for grades to the quest for skills. To achieve this result, we also planned a separate subject, devoted specifically to the skills of self-observation, self-assessment and self-regulation (*cf*. Moser-Mercer 2008). Another group of experts (two for each language group) were involved as external evaluators. The teachers in charge of the regular classes in simultaneous interpreting were obliged to collaborate with these experts, who only worked in a blended mode: they had no regular teaching classes in the syllabus, being expected to assess students work from recordings mailed to them. The teachers and the experts established an agenda for

recordings for the particular semester. The teachers recorded the students (synchronized recordings of the source and the target text) and made the recordings available to the expert-evaluators. The total of recordings was an hour per each student. The results were sent to students. The teachers and the expert-evaluators were also obliged to develop a grid for evaluating the recordings, and to explain to students the particular parameters used in it. It was of utmost import to us to encourage the teachers and the experts to use these with the well-defined objective to help students develop strategies of self-regulation. This objective was also overtly presented to the students.

4.4. Preparing for translation as a profession

As discussed in Chapter 1, the question of professional T&I education is topical in the current literature of the field. The needs for situating T&I education, for defining translation competence or expertise are ultimately anchored in the reality of the translation profession. Empowering the students of translation/interpreting ultimately implies helping them perform successfully as T&I professionals. Most definitions of translation competence assume it explicitly or implicitly that translation means professional translation.

Preparing students for the demands of the labour market is also of the utmost importance to our approach to the T&I classroom. Hence, we also decided to include this educational domain in the programme for simultaneous interpreters at UMCS. We decided to devote a separate class to legal and economic conditions on the translation/interpreting profession in Poland. It is noteworthy that almost none of the students participating in the specialization programme had had any previous experience of a course, workshop or subject that would directly address the problems of translation/interpreting as a profession. The only exception were those students who reported participating in extra-curricular job-related initiatives organized by various student organizations,[86] yet these never directly addressed the translation/interpreting profession.

The major objectives of this class were: (a) to help students build their commercial offer, (b) develop their career skills. What we mean by the commercial offer is not a mere list of services on offer plus pricing

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86 We asked students this question during our classes in 2011, 2012 and 2013.

and bonuses. Developing a commercial offer is developing a business strategy of communicating with actual and potential clients about the range of services on offer. Thus the main task in this part of the class was to encourage students to adopt a specific vision of building their translation service[87] business model. The vision we promoted relied on a reconceptualization of the translation service, as presented in the figures below.

Figure 11. A simplex model of the translation service

Figure 11 presents a simplex model of the translation service provision, where the translator–client interaction is reduced to service commission, service delivery and payment. This model can be applicable to a lot of situations in the translation profession, where clients are only interested in having their texts translated, with no interest in future cooperation with the translator. This business transaction can be compared to a single visit to a shop, which – even if repeated – does not create a commercial relationship between the seller and the buyer.

Although the simplex model presented in Figure 11 can be successfully applicable by the translator, it is marred with serious deficiencies that prevent it from being a good choice for a strategic model for planning a translation career. The major deficiency is the uncertainty of the reiteration of the business transactions, which can put one's translation business performance at the risk of discontinuity, with all its consequences. Thus, the translator's business strategy needs to overcome this deficiency. A solution we recommended to the specialization students is presented below.

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87 The concept of translation service can also cover interpreting. The notion of translation is used in its generalized, service-related meaning.
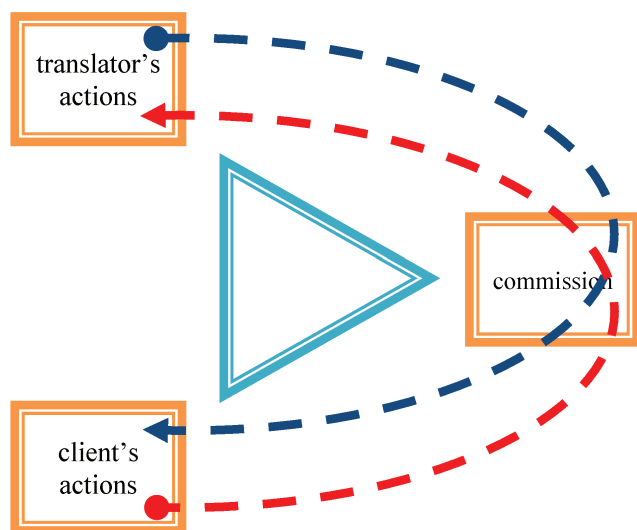
Figure 12. A systemic model of the translation service

Figure 12 presents a more complex view of the transaction between the translator and the client. Firstly, it relies on building a relationship between the translator and the client over the commission they both agree to cooperate on. The relationship in question is needed to overcome or reduce the uncertainty of the future commissions – a serious threat to a translator's business. From the perspective of the client, this business relationship offers a chance of the enhanced quality of business communication – which is an obvious demand for the majority of businesses in the globalised world. Thanks to the communication channels which the relationship opens, the translator and the client can cooperate to a build mutually advantageous system of translation service provision.

As can be observed, Figure 12 makes use of the same graphic layout as we used above in this chapter to illustrate the triadic structure of the T&I classroom system. This is a deliberate graphical effect by means of which we want to show how our vision of the T&I classroom is designed to manage task-oriented human communication for educational, but also for professional purposes. In other words, the view of the T&I classroom system we advocate is to help students learn to communicate with the teachers (and the other students) in a way that can also be instrumental in handling the business relationships with their future clients.

Let us add that thanks to effective feedback, clients can not only expect better translator's performance, but they can also better understand the nature of translation (if the translators accept responsibility for helping them in this respect), which can change the way they communicate with their business partners across languages and cultures. This is how J. Żmudzki's (2009) claims about translation being a tool of communication for purposes of cooperation can find their effective application.

The other objective of the class under discussion was to help the students define and operationalise concepts such as career, career plans and success for the purposes of planning their professional activities. These concepts are not unknown to the students, but we diagnosed[88] a great need for empowering the students to make them use these concepts as tools of their career making.

One of the largest problems we observe among the students we have an opportunity to work with is that they tend to understand such words as career or success as vague or unreal, more like representative of some fairy-tale stories or dreams (*cf.* Mourshed *et al*. 2014: 19–29 and their classification of student types). As can be inferred from research[89] such students tend either to ignore the concepts as unrealistic and useless, or they adopt a magical type of thinking. Falling victim to the latter, the students tend to believe that career or success somehow come into being or not – irrespective of one's efforts in this respect.

The transformation we offer the students consists in their reconceptualization of career and success as list of values, needs and objectives each of us is capable of defining, planning, realizing and monitoring.

Including this problem area in our programme was intended to expand the educational perspective adopted in contemporary T&I educator. Literature in the field of career education, as exemplified in Chapter 1 of this monograph, shows that T&I educators can no longer be satisfied with helping students find their space on the market. Today, we need to make students ready to stay there and to transform their performance in a self-regulated way. The need for such educational practices is stressed by researchers who promote the so-called skills transferability as components of T&I education programmes (*e.g.* Kearns 2008).

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88 See for example the data reported in the previous chapter.

89 See the data in K. Klimkowska (in print) and the discrepancy between career plans and actual actions taken to make the plans come true, as discussed in the previous chapter.

Although we were in charge of this class, we asked two guest experts for help. The legal, organizational, financial and ergonomic aspects of the translator's daily work were discussed by a practicing freelance translator. We were responsible for the part of the classes related to objective (a) – as defined above, while objective (b) was realized by an expert in career education. Some of the tasks that the students were involved in are presented in the table below.

Table 18. Selected tasks and activities used in the specialization module dedicated to translation as a profession

	Task	Details
1	Define the business profile you would like to start with: a) the range of planned LSP services; b) planned types of clients serviced; c) pricing strategies for all or particular clients (strategic?); d) marketing/communication strategies with (the strategic and the other) clients.	A written task; a form to fill in.
		Pre-worked in the classroom, completed at home, finally discussed at the subsequent meeting.
		The main idea behind this task is to help student operationalize the categories such as entering the market or offering services; to translate the abstract notions onto actions to be taken (empowerment).
2	Make a list of all the contacts whom you are ready to research as regards you service/job opportunities: a) choose or launch a contact database. You can use a contact database in your mobile phone as material for this task. If you happen not to have a unified list of contacts, start one! Use your phone, other mobile device or your personal computer to store and manage the data. Choose the most convenient means of data management (hardware and software). Pay attention to back-up functionalities of the particular data management solutions;	A written task; students are asked to fill their contact databases with the relevant data concerning their plans to seek job/service opportunities. They are also asked to work out a strategy for contact making, depending on the presumed contact effectiveness,[90] costs related to contacting,[91] etc.
		Pre-worked in the classroom (the teacher makes a database entry of his/her own, and displays it to students), completed at home, finally discussed at the subsequent meeting (students are expected to either bring printouts of their database entries or to display them to the class).

2	b) establish a set of parameters to categorize the contacts on your list in accordance to their being strategic to your business mission, order of contacting, and any other categories you find useful (*e.g.* cost of contact, contact effectiveness, *etc.*). The categorization can also include grading. For example, uncle John is classified as 3 (out of 5) on the list of strategic contacts, *etc.*; c) work out a contact-making agenda for a month / a quarter. (optional)	The main idea behind this task is to help students realize the information potential of the contacts they have, the need for expanding their contact database as a business strategy and to help the students learn effective contact management.
3	Decide what events, situations or achievements within 1/2/3 years from now will be the markers of your (professional or life) success: a) do you have strategies to make these things happen? Yes, no, why…; b) do you have resources to make these things happen?; c) do you recognize barriers on your ways to success?; d) what costs of success you decide to accept on your way to success?	Written task. The outcome is a written list of success benchmarks, planned/realized strategies and possessed/developed resources for success.
		Pre-worked in the classroom, completed at home, finally discussed at the subsequent meeting.
		The main idea behind this task is to help students reconceptualise their abstract, dream-based visions of success into factual categories of objectives, tasks and methods that can be defined, employed and managed throughout lifetime.

90 It is important to distinguish between contact effectiveness understood as business-related results of contacting a given person or institution, from failure to make contact as a result of disbelief that the contact can prove effective in business terms. The latter behaviour can be easily abused by students as their excuse not to engage in the task: "what can I possibly expect from Jim / uncle John… as far translation is concerned, when I know they have had nothing to do with translation whatsoever?". In our view, students should be prevented from being blocked by such excuses. The recommendation worth giving to students in such contexts is: "avoid wide guesses: just ask!".

91 The category of costs in this case does not relate to financial cost, which can be excluded from the list of important barriers of contemporary contact-making. What we mean are the affective and cultural costs. In practical terms, this parameter relates to situations where one has to ask questions as follows: "do I want Steven / uncle John… to know I am looking for professional opportunities? Does it not entail a risk of professional/interpersonal dependence I would like to avoid?", *etc.*

Table 18 presents only a selection of in-class tasks and activities. It per-haps goes without saying that all these activities involved a lot of in-class discussion, debate and negotiation of solutions. The purpose of the class under discussion was to help the students conceptualize career and suc-cess in realistic terms of objectives, tasks and methods. In this way, we wanted to help them abandon the world of *wishful thinking* that leads to disempowerment, unless the students are able to develop the procedural knowledge of how to proceed with their career plans.

Our class was intended to empower the students: to give them the power to define career and success as a set of objectives to pursue. The objectives in question were not suggested to the students from the ready-made list of *e.g.* the most socially and culturally recognized markers of success. The objectives were worked out by each student individually as part of the classroom task. Our intention was not to *programme students for success* – a metaphor which we find deeply transmissionist and disempowering, and which betrays an objectivist, hegemonic and epistemologically false idea of human success.

4.5. Concluding on the programme (after two years of its being on offer)

Although at the moment when this text is being written the specialization programme is still offered, the two years of its implementation so far can give grounds to tentative observations concerning the main underlying ideas of the specialization programme we co-designed. It must also be noted that our function of project manager ended in October 2012, leav-ing us in charge of only one class: translation as a profession. Therefore, our observations in this section are based on our open conversations with the specialization students[92] and teachers and with the university project management officers. We plan a more detailed study concerning the programme on its completion in 2015, including research on em-ployability and graduate career tracking.

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92 Some of the answers were collected through direct interaction with the students (at the meetings after the completion the subject devoted to translation as a profes-sion). Some students agreed to participate by filling in printed-out questionnaires. Teachers were asked the questions individually. The answers to the open questions were written down by us.

For the purposes of gaining preliminary feedback on how the students and the teachers reacted to the educational ideas underlying the specialization programme, we made two lists of questions for the students and the teachers, respectively. Since the lists are short, we present the two sets in a table below.

Table 19. The questions asked for the purposes of gaining tentative students' and teachers' feedback on the main educational ideas behind the specialization programme

	Questions for the students	Questions for the teachers
1	Did you find helpful connecting the class on research and information mining with the interpreting classes? (DEFINITELY YES, RATHER YES, HARD TO SAY, RATHER NOT, DEFINITELY NOT)	Did you find helpful connecting the class on research and information mining with the interpreting classes? (DEFINITELY YES, RATHER YES, HARD TO SAY, RATHER NOT, DEFINITELY NOT)
2	Can you mention at least one aspect of your training in which this connection was helpful/problematic?	Can you mention at least one aspect of your work in which this connection was helpful/problematic?
3	Did you find helpful the format of the student practice (the simulated conferences)? (DEFINITELY YES, RATHER YES, HARD TO SAY, RATHER NOT, DEFINITELY NOT)	
4	Can you mention at least one aspect of your training in which this format was helpful/problematic?	
5	How do you assess the fact that the specialization classes were held by a variety of teachers? (DEFINITELY POSITIVELY, RATHER POSITIVELY, HARD TO SAY, RATHER NEGATIVELY, DEFINITELY NEGATIVELY)	How do you assess the fact that the specialization classes were held by a variety of teachers? (DEFINITELY POSITIVELY, RATHER POSITIVELY, HARD TO SAY, RATHER NEGATIVELY, DEFINITELY NEGATIVELY)
6	Can you mention at least one aspect of your training in which this variety was helpful/problematic?	Can you mention at least one aspect of your work in which this variety was helpful/problematic?

7	How do you assess the class on translation as a profession in the context of your career skills and plans? (DEFINITELY POSITIVELY, RATHER POSITIVELY, HARD TO SAY, RATHER NEGATIVELY, DEFINITELY NEGATIVELY)	
8	Can you mention at least one aspect of your training in which this subject was helpful/problematic?	
9	Was your participating in the specialization helpful in developing the skill of realistic self-assessment of your translation performance and of self-reliance on your skills? (DEFINITELY YES, RATHER YES, HARD TO SAY, RATHER NOT, DEFINITELY NOT)	Can you say that the students' participating in the specialization was helpful in developing the skill of realistic self-assessment of their translation performance and of self-reliance on their skills? (DEFINITELY YES, RATHER YES, HARD TO SAY, RATHER NOT, DEFINITELY NOT)
10		Did you help the students realize the need for building their skills of self-assessment and self-reliance (autonomy)? What methods did you use? (open question)

As can be seen in Table 19, the student's list of questions is longer than the teacher's. This is because we believe that questions 3, 4, 7 and 8 only make sense as information elicited from the students. On the other hand, we added question 10 to the list, which only sought information from the teachers.

In questions 1 and 2, we tried to determine if the students and the teachers reacted well to the situated, task-based classroom organization. Question 3 was only addressed to the students and it concerned their perception of the student practice component of the specialization programme. This question touched upon the issue of situating professional training on the one hand, and of expanding the list of *voices* involved in training, on the other. The issue of *multiple voices* also occurred in questions 5 and 6, while 7 and 8 were devoted to the problem of translation education as professional education. Our simple questionnaire ends with an important question: we asked

both the students and the teachers to assess the students' skills of self-assessment and self-reliance. This is because we were looking for confirmation if the idea of self-regulated learning, which we planned to integrate within the project, *did* give any positive results in the form of students' sense of empowerment.

We have managed to collect 14 full sets of answers and another 5 incomplete sets from the students. The students were allowed not to answer the questions which they found impossible to answer or about which they were undecided. This is because in our view this inability to answer or uncertainty on the part of the questioned students can also be informative to us.

We did not ask the teachers to fill in questionnaires, but we interviewed 3 teachers. Two of them are regular teachers of simultaneous interpreting in the programme, one being a specialist engaged in the student practice component. Below we briefly discuss the observations we can make on the basis of our small-size collection of data – the students' and the teachers' answers to the questions listed above.

4.5.1. Task-based, situated learning

Drawing upon our conversations with the students and the teachers, we can judge this aspect of the programme to be undeniably successful. Even though we did not ask the students directly about their learning being task-based or situated, they admitted the advantages of consolidating the information mining workshop with the interpreter training classes.

Table 20. The student's opinion on the usefulness of consolidating the research-related and the interpreting classes

Did you find helpful connecting the class on research and information mining with the interpreting classes?	Number of students
DEFINITELY YES	9
RATHER YES	4
HARD TO SAY	4
RATHER NOT	0
DEFINITELY NOT	0
Total answers	**17**

Question 1 was answered by 17 students out of 19. Our interpretation of this figure is that the students found it easy to recognize the usefulness of the link between research (information mining) and interpreting, and they recognize it as a mechanism worth implementing in the professional context. Worth observing is that none of the 17 students answered *rather not* or *definitely not*.

Only 13 out of 19 subjects answered question 2 (Can you mention at least one aspect of your training in which the class consolidation was helpful/problematic?), by providing at least one advantage behind consolidating the two classes in question. When explaining the benefits of consolidating the two classes, the majority of the subjects pointed out that since these classes deal with related issues, the students find it easier to prepare for them. Only 3 out of 13 answers made direct references to the simulation of the style in which interpreters work.

When asked about consolidating the two classes, the teachers we interviewed also expressed their approval, adding that they found it easier to cooperate since they understood one another's tasks and objectives. Situating learning was especially welcome by the specialist who was not an academic teacher. It was easier for her to use a profession-based and not a classroom-based narrative in managing her activities.

Questions 3 and 4 also confirm the students' positive attitudes towards situated learning. Out of 17 answers to question 3, 15 are positive, even though only 4 students were able to name an actual benefit or problem, as asked for in question 4.

Table 21. The students' assessment of the situated format of the specialization student practice

Did you find helpful the format of the student practice (the simulated conferences)?	Number of students
DEFINITELY YES	9
RATHER YES	6
HARD TO SAY	1
RATHER NOT	0
DEFINITELY NOT	1
Total answers	**17**

Question 4 (Can you mention at least one aspect of your training in which this format of student practice was helpful/problematic?) was answered in a similar way by 3 students. These students agreed that simulating conferences helped them understand what can be going on in the mind of an interpreter working under stress for a long time. Time-span and the stress factor were overtly mentioned in these three answers. The fourth answer was given by the student who evaluated the situated specialization practice component in a negative way. The reason for the negative assessment was stress-related: the student complained that the simulated conferences lasted for too long for a novice to handle, and instead of giving him/her[93] a boost, this educational format turned out to be disempowering.

We tend to believe that the relation between research (information mining) and interpreting was acknowledged by the students and that they are very likely to make use of effective research strategies in their preparing for interpreting commissions. One indication in favour of this opinion is that although the students had no separate class to help them prepare (information-mining) for the simulated conferences as part of their student practice, the teacher reported that the predominant majority of students understood the need to get prepared, and often asked about the materials sent to them before the 'conference,' looking for additional resources, dictionaries or lexicons on their own.

Notwithstanding the above, setting the classroom in a task-based and situated narrative did not work for some students, as reported by the teachers. Although participating in the specialization was their choice, about 10 students out of over 90 (teachers' estimates for the two-year period) found it difficult to cross the barrier of authentic participation, keeping to the well-known transmissionist student scenarios of endless excuses for not having participated in this or that class or getting prepared. More research is needed to investigate the motives of the behaviour of such students. At this point, it can only be observed that when asked about the motives of their weak participation and performance, some students pointed out to their professional obligations which emerged after they had qualified for the specialization.

This situation unveils an obvious conflict between the educational and the professional priorities of some students. Taking into account

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93 This answer was anonymous and submitted in writing.

the fact that contemporary students – especially of MA courses – are at the transition stage between education and the labour market, situations like these will be more and more frequent. In our opinion, there are two obvious ways of handling the conflict. One is by ignoring it, or – in other words – by adopting the narrative, in which a university communicates the following message to the students: "Your job is your problem. You have to solve it on your own and decide which is more important to you – your studies or your job." This way of narrating represents an obvious transmissionist stance, where academic procedures and order wield unquestionable power over the needs of the students. However, in the context of the debate we can witness in the contemporary academic milieus, let alone the literature in the field of T&I education – as repeatedly mentioned above – finding a job by a student can no longer be interpreted only in terms of the students' failure to fulfil his/her educational duties, using work as an excuse. In our opinion, a shared perspective on T&I curriculum is needed, in which the student and the university are expected to work out modes of cooperation that will be oriented towards solving the problem outlined here, and not avoiding or ignoring it. University officials, teachers and education specialists can no longer keep declaring that the students' finding a job is their strategic objective, and, on the other hand, adopt an approach in which the students' finding a job is a problem and a hindrance to his/her education – a case of academic misbehaviour, acting against procedures, *etc.*

The shared perspective we would like to advocate in this monograph does not imply that the solution in question is to be student-centred: since they have found a job, the university must be happy about any time the student is ready to devote to learning. Sharing the curriculum means negotiating a position that satisfies both partners of the educational triad and empowers them to pursue educational tasks and objectives.

There is one more comment to make in this context. Since the specialization under analysis was organized, financed and managed within the framework of the project realized under the auspices of the European Commission – as signalled above – there was little space left for any *sharing* the curriculum. The students signed obligations to participate in at least 80% of classes. Failure to participate meant elimination from the project. The reason for our mentioning these facts is that sharing the curriculum is not always easy to implement. Still, the point we

are trying to make here rather concerns the readiness of the teachers, curriculum designers and other education-related decision makers to discern this problem area and to approach it as a task rather than to try and ignore it.

4.5.2. Multiple voices in the interpreting classroom

As borne out by our tentative collection of data, in the case of multiplying the narratives in the interpreting classroom, the strategy can unquestionably be called advantageous and beneficial. However, there is at least one critical point to address in this case. As illustrated in Table 22 below, 16 students answered question 5. 10 responses presented the students' positive judgement of the classes being held with a variety of teachers, 3 of them were uncertain and 3 students assessed the variety negatively.

Table 22. The students' assessment of the presence of *multiple voices* in the specialization

How do you assess the fact that the specialization classes were held by a variety of teachers?	Number of students
DEFINITELY POSITIVELY	9
RATHER POSITIVELY	1
HARD TO SAY	3
RATHER NEGATIVELY	2
DEFINITELY NEGATIVELY	1
Total answers	**16**

The negative voices are the most interesting case. The student who answered question 5 negatively explained in his/her response in the open question 6 (Can you mention at least one aspect of your training in which this variety was helpful/problematic?) that too many teachers made it difficult for him/her to decide whose *voice* to follow on a path to expertise. The two other students who responded *rather negatively* did not explain their choice.

The point made by the student is very interesting and can be interpreted in a variety of ways. One way of approaching the case is to say that when planning the participation of *multiple voices* in the classroom, one has to be sure that the *polyphony* is manageable for students. In other words, there is a definite need for collaboration between the teachers,

curriculum designers and professional experts. This collaboration should, among other things, concentrate on classroom communication: on narrative strategies employed and on the skills of monitoring the influence of the narrative on the classroom dynamics (students' and teachers'/experts' performance, motivation, openness to giving feedback and constructive working with feedback).

Another problem diagnosed in the student response relates to the issue of self-assessment. It can be the case that the student in question failed to develop his/her skills of self-regulated learning, still trying to look for answers and solutions to his/her problems in the voices of the teachers and the specialists, rather than trying to work out his/her own voice. Since the future translators can rather expect a diversity of voices in their professional reality, and since effective translation performance is so strongly dependent of self-confident navigation between the whole variety of truths and senses, our reaction to the negative responses discussed here is to promote the polyphony (in a *shared* way) and emphasise the need for the students' constructing of autonomous systems of translation-related decision-making (self-regulation).

The final observation to be made in relation to the three students' negative reaction to sharing narratives in the translation classroom relates to the point made by G. Grow (1991), as discussed in detail in Chapter 5 above. As can be recalled, G. Grow's idea of four stages on the way to learner autonomy is accompanied by his observation that reaching autonomy in one aspect of learning does not mean that the learner is not likely to regress to the previous stages when learning something new. It can thus be the case with the three students in question. The stage of learning at which they were at the time when they filled in the questionnaire could render them unable to make use of the polyphony, as they expected a more directive approach on the part of the educators.

4.5.3. Self-assessment and self-regulation

The idea of self-regulation as an underlying principle of translator education turned out to be the most difficult to implement in the specialization programme under analysis. This is borne out by the data elicited from the students and the teachers.

Table 23. The students' opinion about their skills of self-regulations after the specialization

Was your participating in the specialization helpful in developing the skill of realistic self-assessment of your translation performance and of self-reliance on your skills?	Number of students
DEFINITELY YES	2
RATHER YES	3
HARD TO SAY	8
RATHER NOT	4
DEFINITELY NOT	2
Total answers	**19**

The students' responses to question 9 show how complex the issue of self-assessment and self-regulation is and how difficult it can be to make a curriculum help students grow in this aspect of their education.

First of all, worthy of a note is the fact that this question was answered by 19 students – that is the maximum number of all the responses discussed so far. This figure can suggest that the students realize the need of being self-reliant as translators and interpreters. Unfortunately, only 5 students were ready to acknowledge their experience of becoming more and more self-reliant interpreters, while the majority (14) of students were either unable to express their opinion on the matter (8), or they failed to observe progress on their way towards translator's autonomy (6).

To make matters worse, our conversation with the teachers about this aspect of the programme (question 4 in the questionnaire for the teachers) confirmed the students limited skills of self-regulation. When interviewing the teachers, we inquired about the narratives that the students used in the classroom and about the way in which they collaborated with the teachers / specialist interpreters responsible for the e-learning component (blended course).

The answers obtained from the teachers exhibited their expectation of the students to change their behaviour. At the same time, we were not able to determine if the teachers did provide a *shared* communication environment in the classroom, helping students abandon the transmissionist student–teacher games and get involved into the self-regulated professional scenarios. In a way, the answers we were able to elicit could be suggestive of the teachers' putting the responsibility for the perspective

transformation on the students only, rather than seeing the classroom as a space for shared negotiation and transformation.

The information we acquired from the UMCS project management office, and the questionnaire conducted as part of the formal project assessment, helped us establish that the majority of the students were dissatisfied and misguided with the part of the programme dealing with distant interpreting assessment done by the specialists (blended course). The questions asked in the project assessment questionnaire related to the particular subjects in the specialization. The students were asked to assess if their skills as defined for a given subject have increased. They were expected to contrast their sense of being able to assess their performance before and after the specialization, and mark both stages by means of a five-point scale. The question was answered by 104 students (representing two editions of the project). 69 of them marked their initial skills of self-assessment at 2; 33 at 3, while only 2 graded their self-assessment skills as 4. Out of 104 students, 77 acknowledged growth of their ability to assess their performance, while 27 recorded no change. 65 of the students reported a one-point increase, while 9 out of 104 stated that their skills after the specialization reached 4 on the five-point scale. This is perhaps the worst result for the whole specialization programme. The 2 remaining students who felt quite self-confident before the specialization (level 4) admitted making progress, and reported that they feel able of effective self-assessment (level 5).

Whatever can explain the state of affairs represented in the data, our failure to encourage the teachers and the students to build an environment for self-regulated growth is evident in the data; in particular in the figures showing no increase in the skills of self-assessment among those who rated in the middle of the scale before the specialization. All these results indicate that our future attempts of building a T&I classroom that is to help students reach self-regulation need more effort on the level of design, teacher training and project implementation to reach a higher level of effectiveness. A list of issues to consider will definitely include the following:

    a) incorporating self-regulation as an overt educational principle in a T&I curriculum in such a way that its need is recognized by the students and the teachers. In view of our experiences from

the programme under analysis, we opt against handling this aspect of T&I education where by means of a dedicated class, and in favour of making it an underlying principle for how the particular classes are organized;

b) helping the teachers and the guest-specialists develop communication skills for building a shared classroom;

c) addressing the teachers' and the guest-specialists' communicative barriers against *sharing* the translation classroom ("oh, no, my students are not ready for this…, they are lazy…, they are not able to choose," *etc.*);

d) making the teachers attracted by the potential of classroom (situated, empowering) narratives (communication strategies) in winning students interest in their subjects (tasks);

e) making the students play the professional scenarios, and not the transmissionist ones – which may require additional student supervision and support.

4.5.4. Training for the translation profession

The last component of the specialization programme that was researched in our tentative questionnaire was the class devoted to legal and economic conditions pertaining to the translation profession – as discussed in section 4.4 above in this chapter. In relation to this class, we asked the students questions 7 and 8. The table below presents the students' answer to the former question.

Table 24. The students' opinions on the class on translation as a profession as useful for career skills development

How do you assess the class on translation as a profession in the context of your career skills and plans?	Number of students
DEFINITELY POSITIVELY	5
RATHER POSITIVELY	7
HARD TO SAY	4
RATHER NEGATIVELY	1
DEFINITELY NEGATIVELY	0
Total answers	**16**

The data in Table 24 above exhibits the students' general positive attitudes to the career-related subject in their curriculum, which – in our opinion – is borne out by the 12 positive answers out of the total of 16. However, question 7 only partly focused on whether the students were satisfied with the academic subject *per se*. In fact, the question was intended to investigate if the students feel better prepared for their functioning on the market as a result of their participation in the class under analysis. Under this view, the answers can be judged mildly positive. It can be observed that it is only 5 out of 16 students who were not afraid to admit their being ready for facing the market challenge, while 7 were definitely less confident, though still positive about their skills. The worst result is represented by 4 undecided judgements and 1 negative. Generally speaking, the number of the students who felt ready to start their career and those who felt disempowered about it is the same.

As for question 8 (Can you mention at least one aspect of your training in which this subject was helpful/problematic?), most students admitted their better understanding of what the translation profession is (9 answers out of 10). Only 1 answer out of 10 addressed the skills of career making, stating that the subject helped them develop a portfolio of tools for that purpose. It is perhaps worth noting, that this latter answer was given by a student whose answer to question 7 was *rather positively*.

The picture presented above can be expanded with the data from the official questionnaire conducted by the UMCS project management staff. As in the case discussed above, the students were asked about their perceived increase in (a) knowledge and (b) skills of career making thanks to their participation in the class devoted to legal and economic conditions of the translation profession. The majority of students (100 out of 104) had no problems indicating that their business-related knowledge developed. In most cases (87), the change was from 2 to 4 on a five-point scale, while 13 students admitted having gone through a change from 3 to 4. The remaining 4 students out of the total of 104 subjects admitted no change in their level of knowledge (level 3).

However, as far as skills were concerned, the majority perceived their transgression as from 2 to 3 on a five-point scale (92), with only 6 students moving from 3 to 4 and 1 student perceiving his/her skill improvement from 3 to 5. The remaining 5 students admitted no improvement in their skills (level 3).

In an open question corresponding to the one asked above, the students (54) complained about the limited number of teaching hours for the subject (15 hours), which discouraged them from participating in the classroom activities. It is also interesting to note that 7 voices expressed the sense of being discouraged from becoming translators/interpreters by presenting the difficulties of the process of E2E/E4C transition.

The data presented above demonstrate a need to enhance the design for the class on translation as profession. In the specialization programme, the class took only 15 teaching hours to complete (in three workshop meetings), which is perhaps not enough – as demonstrated by the collected data. However important, the number of teaching hours is still a secondary issue. Of primary importance is introducing such learning strategies in the classroom that will help students get better prepared for their translation career making. One practical conclusion we are ready to make at this point is that apart from a dedicated class devoted to the issues of professional functioning, this aspect of situated T&I training should be present in other classes or curricular components, as part of classroom interaction, communication and task realization.

In our case study discussed in this section, we wanted to present our attempts to implement in practice the educational ideas that inform our approach to T&I education, as presented in this monograph. One observation from this discussion is that the complexity of factors that overlap in educational projects like the one we have analysed is enormous. This is why *translating* the underlying educational principles onto educational initiatives is and will always be extremely difficult. It is bound to be only partly successful.

Irrespective of the difficulties we encountered, we find much more beneficial such approaches to T&I education in which human protagonists and their power of cooperating to reach shared objectives are paramount values. T&I education built on content transfer procedures, educational objectives defined *a priori* or educational canons (collections of truths to master) are viewed by us as a tool of students' and teachers' disempowerment. In our view, they represent unnegotiable hegemony of teaching procedures over human learning, of pronouncing unquestionable judgements without listening, and of evaluating without a need to know.

From sharing control in the classroom to sharing the curriculum: non-formal aspects in academic translator education

1. A proposal to expand the scope of the concept of T&I curriculum

This last chapter of our monograph takes us a step further in our thinking about the T&I classroom as a space of shared task-related activities. In fact, sharing the classroom can only be possible if a T&I education curriculum is designed as a shared space. Our idea of sharing educational space can be lucidly summarized by means of the following points:

1. T&I education does not benefit from a procedure-driven instruction. It is far more beneficial to see it as a space of interaction between the student and the teacher (and the other stakeholders of T&I education);
2. The interaction is oriented around realizing the translation task, which needs sharing (working out, negotiating, controlling and assessing) the environment in which task-related activities take place;
3. Sharing the environment is possible through empowering, effective communication strategies;
4. Assessment as part of the educational process is also shared in the sense it is built on classroom communication. Assessment is indispensable in establishing the facts (however subjectively perceived) about task realization and in opening the pathways for future actions;
5. Sharing the T&I educational environment relies on the maximization of developmental potential of the students, without disempowering the teacher by depriving him/her of his ultimate control over the classroom scaffolding (in the function of a T&I specialist and task completion evaluator);

6. Sharing the T&I educational environment should also mean open-
    ing the classroom interaction to voices other than the teacher's
    and the students'. Even though it can be controversial and prob-
    lematic for some students, it is our strong conviction that students
    of translation/interpreting can hugely benefit from being exposed
    to a variety of *professional voices* concerning their performance as
    well as other aspects of professional training and work.

Even though we strongly advocate the stance that the ideas listed
above (or similar ones) are advantageous for regular translation cur-
ricula, we admit that some elements present in our proposals can be
very difficult to implement within the frameworks of formal education.
This has partly been shown by our case study, which – on the one hand
– offered us a great opportunity to put the idea of shared interpreter
classroom into practice. On the other hand, it turned out that formal
and logistic factors influencing the implementation of the specialization
programme made the task quite complicated.

The problems we encountered in the course of implementing the pro-
gramme discussed as a case study, and our analysis of the literary sources
discussed in Chapters 3 to 6 above, led us to believe that the idea of T&I cur-
riculum is worth revisiting. On the one hand, educational models like
M. González Davies (2004), D. Kiraly (2000) or B. Moser-Mercer (2008)
would like to see the learner transgress freely towards learning autonomy.
On the other, G. Grow's (1991) observation that "[f]ully self-determined
learning is not possible in an institutional setting" (Grow 1991, expanded
online edition) seems pessimistic about the goal being attainable at all within
the framework of formal curriculum. Also S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000) seem
sceptical about the potential of the formal curricular format for educating
contemporary specialists and socially involved citizens.

Trying to look for compromise between these two contrastive view-
points, we would like to suggest a notion of T&I curriculum as a space
shared between the formal and the non-formal educational activities.
Hence, we propose a closer integration of the formal and the non-formal
aspects of T&I education as inherent parts of a curriculum. This approach
also implies that we would like to see these two aspects as constitutive
components at the stage of curriculum design.

One could observe that extra-curricular educational activities are
already well-established in the academic system, with student practices

and internships being perhaps the most evident case. Although we fully agree that the above-mentioned types of extra-curricular activities are extremely beneficial for the curriculum, our experience as educator indicates that they hardly ever directly influence the regular, formal curricular system, be it on the level of design or implementation.

Let us therefore emphasise once more that in our proposal, non-formal educational activities are not only intended to accompany or complement the curriculum – as students' practices or internships do – but they are meant to be an integral element of a shared curriculum, foreseen already at the stage of curriculum design. The integration in question means that both aspects of the curriculum are used as educational tools, and that one aspect is used to help develop and implement the other. For example, non-formal initiatives can be used by the teachers as a kind of "testing ground," when they feel in need to examine how the students are likely to react to a new activity, task or project. Such a preliminary test can help the teachers decide whether to implement a given solution within the formal framework, or not. Alternately, making some subjects, topics/specialist translation domains or projects voluntary or elective can help the T&I curriculum designers develop flexible cooperation with *professional voices*. It is perhaps more likely to expect a professional expert whose participation in a given project is crucial to get involved in a project-based educational initiatives rather than in regular classes. What is more, resorting to a non-formal format of such a project allows students to determine if they want to participate in it, which is something they need to declare overtly. This need to declare participation and overtly accept the consequences it evokes turned out to be a motivating factor for students which we managed to engage in a series of translation projects we organized in the past (*e.g.* Klimkowski 2006, 2007, 2008a, 2010, 2012 or Baumgarten *et al.* 2008).

These examples are to show potential points of convergence between the formal and the non-formal aspects of T&I curriculum: the formal curriculum can be used to prepare students for effective performance in the non-formal initiatives (project work, situated learning, task-based learning, *etc.*), while the non-formal projects can inform the formal curriculum (how do students perform in the non-formal projects, what is motivating/demotivating for them in these projects, how to project these observations to enhance the formal classroom, *etc.*).

Below we present a table that juxtaposes constraints that are characteristic of formal curriculum which can be overcome with the introduction of non-formal initiatives into translator education.

Table 25. Formal and non-formal translator education in contrast

	Formal curriculum often constrains:	Non-formal initiatives can help increase:
1	flexibility of curriculum design, choice of topics, curriculum alterations	flexibility of choice (topics, methods, *etc.*), ease of modifying the tasks and methods on demand
2	degree of professional simulation	degree of professional simulation (situating)
3	involvement of students and teachers in classroom performance	involvement of students and teachers
4	involvement in teamwork and collaboration	teamwork and collaboration
5	functionality of the grade system (pedagogical assessment) for the purposes of quality-oriented, professional education	use of evaluation as based on feedback (professional assessment)
6	levels of intrinsic motivation/self-regulation	boost to intrinsic motivation/self-regulation
7	openness to *multiple voices* as making effective contribution to learning and self-regulation	openness to *multiple voices* as making effective contribution to learning and self-regulation

The contrasts set in Table 25 above are purposefully defined in terms of constraints vs. increased flexibility, openness, empowerment, *etc.* These contrasts should be read with caution, as representing certain extreme interpretations. We use them for the sake of clarity of our argumentation. Yet, we would like to prevent their reading under which our argumentation would be seen as radically critical of the formal curriculum as such. Thus, by stating that the formal curriculum enjoys constrained flexibility of curriculum design we only mean to signal that the designers' choices are more constrained than those enjoyed by designers of non-formal initiatives. The limited design and operational flexibility we point out here are partly due to the fact that formal curriculum serves such educational objectives as certification or validation of results. Thus, the main point

we wish to make here is to use the non-formal curriculum component to help overcome the content (task) and method-related constraints.

One of the most evident constraints of the formal curriculum is that the programme details need to be approved by the relevant university authorities, which means no serious modification of what is going on in the classroom is possible within the period of one academic year. It is obvious that a well-designed syllabus must provide for some flexibility in order to be open to the students' needs, which the students can at best reveal to the teachers at the beginning of the semester – that is far too late to make them part of the formal syllabus. It is perhaps evident that the non-formal part of curriculum can help even more to solve this intrinsic limitation of the formal one.

Expanding the curriculum to cover the non-formal part can add to more effective situating of the T&I classroom. For one thing, it helps open the classroom to *multiple voices* – as mentioned above. Another issue is that non-formal translation projects or workshops offer a more flexible platform of engaging students into real translation projects, which can help the students perform as specialists (apprentices) among specialists and not as students in front of the teacher.

One more aspect in which we find non-formal initiatives advantageous relates to motivation and assessment. The literature in the field of T&I education accepts almost as an axiom the claim that the more effectively situated the learning environment, the higher the students' motivation to effectively participate in it. This is one of the reasons why the majority of researchers promote the idea of engaging students in real-life translation projects (see Chapter 1 and 3 above for details). This correlation between situating and motivation is also confirmed by researchers in the field of adult education (see Chapter 4 and 5 for details). One aspect discussed by the researchers is that adults are more effective learners when motivated by personal interests they have and want to pursue. Also, they are more likely to seek opportunities for collaboration when they find out there are more people interested in attaining a goal than they initially thought (*cf.* Deci, Ryan 1985 and Ryan, Deci 2000).

The non-formal curricular component is intended to help them do so, also because non-formal situated initiatives are often interpreted by students as training out of the pedagogical routine of the formal curricular classroom. Sharing the view of G. Grow (1991), we are prone

to believe that institutional settings of the formal T&I classroom will always constrain to some extent the teachers' and the students' pathways to autonomy.

One of the most evident cases of such a constraint is, in our view, the system of academic assessment and grading. A lot has been said above about the complexity of assessment in T&I educational context. We have also discussed some proposals for rethinking assessment in the T&I classroom.[94] However, also in this case, we tend to believe that an authentic empowerment of assessment can only be workable within formal curriculum with the support of non-formal initiatives. The non-formal curricular component can help the teachers redefine assessment strategies for the formal curricular use. This is, in our opinion, because non-formal educational and professional initiatives help fully situate assessment: make it transgress from a pedagogical *settlement of statistic accounts*[95] towards a communication environment about real-life translation/interpreting quality and real-life translators'/interpreters' performance. In this way, the students and the teachers can reconceptualise assessment from a confrontational narrative of the one who knows against the one who never knows enough towards a shared narrative of the ones who are in constant and insatiable quest for knowledge.

2. Factors to consider when planning non-formal initiatives

This section discusses a list of factors that are worth considering when planning a non-formal extension of a T&I curriculum. The list does not include purely organizational or legal factors involved, even though their impact on the success of non-formal initiatives cannot be neglected. Also omitted are the factors concerning the scope of a planned project, the number of participants and teachers/specialists involved or other organizational details whose role and influence on project realization are all too obvious for any curriculum designer.

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94 Also see K. Klimkowski (in print), specifically devoted to the idea of assessment as a communicative classroom activity.

95 In K. Klimkowski (2012), it is argued that current assessment practices follow the narrative of settling some kind of accounts with the currency being the academic grades, and reducing information available from assessment to the statistic data.

Discussing the particular factors listed below, we pinpoint options which we find the most advantageous in each case. However, it is obvious that some projects will call for organizers' flexibility or compromise – as will actually become evident in the case study presented in the next section of this chapter.

2.1. Voluntary vs. obligatory participation of students and teachers

In our view, both the students and the teachers should participate in non-formal initiatives as volunteers. This is because we believe that the students' voluntary decision to participate in a project they are not obliged to take part in can be a test of their initial motivation to perform effectively in the framework of a non-formal project. This initial motivation can be an advantage that a teacher of a formal curricular subject can often be short of. The very fact that one has to confirm participation, instead of *having to participate* in a formal educational routine can be a motivation booster for students. As an educational asset, this raised level of motivation must be sustained and increased by effective project management (scaffolding).

The teachers should choose to be part of such projects, too, rather than being formally obliged to do so. Even if such an obligation could be imposed on the teachers formally, we reject this option for both epistemological and pragmatic reasons. Firstly, if we are an authentic advocate of the anthropocentric view of human learning, we cannot assume that anyone can be forced to believe in the benefits of non-formal education for the students, for themselves, for the institution they work or for any other party involved. Instead of an invitation to participate, obligatory teachers' participation would mean expecting them to comply. From a pragmatic, organizational point of view, this strategy augurs ill for the success of a non-formal translation project.

As mentioned above, voluntary participation of the students and the teachers is to ensure their initial motivation capital, which we define as the project asset. However, our own educational experience – also partly presented in the previous case study in Chapter 7 – there are students who seem to interpret voluntary participation as a state where they are not bound by any rules of this participation. This often happens with students who decided to participate for reasons which were not exactly project-related. Factors that influence such choices can

include peer pressure, assumption that if participation is voluntary, there is hardly any obligation related to it, curiosity without an intention to get involved. Other students, when faced with the obligations that turn out to be demanding and time-consuming, lose their initial motivation to participate and quit. The above-mentioned processes cannot be predicted and are hard to manage. This is why we would like to suggest some ways of handling such situations.

Firstly, even though a non-formal project is for volunteers, the organizers can decide on recruiting the participants. It must, however, be kept in mind that the higher the recruitment requirements, the more attractive the project and the expected 'reward' (value) has to be. Only if the students interpret the reward as worthy of their effort and attainable (*cf.* expectancy-value theories of motivation as discussed in Dörnyei 2001), the recruitment procedure is likely to act as a factor increasing the students motivation to participate.

A pilot project is a recommendable form of recruitment, where the students are asked to perform in accordance with the rules of the project as a way of performance test. This can be a stage that can help decide on who is authentically motivated to commit themselves to the project obligations despite difficulties, and whose intention to get involved is not directly motivated by the need to attain the expected goals. The latter type of students is likely to lose their interest once they realize they are expected to do things they are actually not interested in.

Secondly, it needs to be repeatedly explained to the students that their voluntary decision to participate means their accepting the project-related obligations. From that moment onwards, there is no voluntariness involved but accountability. Needless to say, this strategy can prove successful on condition that non-formal project organizers develop an effective communication environment already at the stage of project design and recruitment. Any attempt to violate the above-mentioned principles can endanger the effectiveness of the task-realization. In the case of a real-life translation project, this can have an extremely detrimental effect on the project, and project organizers (client criticism, the need to complete the project on their own or even a legal action against them). This is why project organizers must also develop clear rules of eliminating those students and teachers who fail to develop a cooperative attitude despite all the measures taken. This ability to

eliminate such participants can also enhance the motivation of the rest of the project staff, when they observe that the organizers are ready to defend the safety (we are not threatened and demotivated by undesired behaviour of the eliminated participants), stability (everyone is expected to obey the rules) and transparency (we act in harmony with what we declare) of the environment in which the project is realized.

2.2. Students: from passive recipients to project co-designers

The failure of the students to behave as professionals has repeatedly been mentioned in this monograph, along with references to the relevant research on this topic (*e.g.* Chapter 1). A non-formal curricular component can help students transgress from the pedagogical passiveness towards professional commitment to task realization. As reported in research, some students tend to adopt passiveness as the most effective strategy for their survival in formal education, even if they are aware of the negative aspects of this strategy for their competence training or effective learning in general (*cf.* Klimkowski, Klimkowska 2012). In our view, this perspective transformation is only possible when students are expected to be more than just passive recipients of training. The students participating in non-formal initiatives should be inspired to submit their suggestions of constructive enhancements to the project implementation methodology. Our emphasis on constructive contribution is purposeful, since we want to make it clear that some students are likely to interpret an invitation to express their feedback on project methodology as a way of contesting the rules or questioning the obligations they happen to dislike.

This is a key moment in the educational process, since it involves negotiating control in the project. In a way, allowing the students to question and contest the project framework is part and parcel of that negotiation. To solve the conflict in an empowering way, effective communication is needed. It should avoid disciplinary narrative with references to order for its own sake ("just do it and stop questioning things"), since in this case an opportunity is lost to help students reconceptualise what they find irrational or unattractive into the rules they start to accept, or into constructive ideas how to improve the project.

Thus, a recommendable narrative model is the one in which the students are given a chance to voice their criticisms, but asked for solutions

that they think can be implemented. This element of asking for solutions and the reaction of the students to it is a simple test to distinguish between contesting for the sake of it and criticism that seeks to remove obstacles in the way to more effective performance.

We believe that the students who are made part of a non-formal project design process are more likely to be committed to it. Their conceptualisation of the project is likely to change from *their project we participate in* into *our project*. We are also strongly convinced that this transformation – whether taking place in the formal or non-formal part of T&I education – is indispensable if the problem of the unwanted divergence between the student-translator and the professional-translator performance is to be solved.

2.3. Teachers as project coordinators

The title of this section can sound too evident or even trivial, but what we mean in this point is that when implementing non-formal initiatives, an effort is needed to help the teachers transform their facilitative and supportive role into a more professional role of a project organizer and coordinator. The difference between being a teacher and a project coordinator lies in the degree of control over the final outcome of the project. As we postulated in the last chapter, we opt for empowering the T&I teacher with a casting vote in projects that are realized as part of the regular T&I curricular classes. We added that this casting vote is not legitimised by the central position of the teacher in the classroom system, but his role of the quality assessment officer and the person responsible for managing classroom assessment. In the case of a non-formal project, more accountability needs to be put on the students. They need to be made accountable for the whole process of text translation/interpreting to the maximum possible degree. Otherwise, they are likely to expect some extrinsic authority (teachers, experts) to correct their decisions and make up for their indecision.

Observing the students' sense of accountability for the quality of their work is crucial for strategic and practical reasons. Working with students within the formal and the non-formal educational formats we have observed a tendency for some students to treat the teacher not as quality assessment officer but as quality enhancer! This is, for instance, the case when we are submitted a translated text for assessment which is full of

terminological options left by the student-translator, or when such a text is full of mistakes that could easily be avoided by even the least careful and thorough reading of one's own text before sending it to us. Conversely, the narrative employed by the students in question is that the teacher is the final text maker, not them! One can perhaps easily observe how deeply transmissionist this conceptualization of the translation process is, when the final product and the translator's accountability for translation quality is placed on the teacher – not the students.

Hence, it is of utmost importance for the teacher to avoid entering into that transmissionist dynamics and to accept a text like the one mentioned above for assessment or corrections. In our view, the only empowering reaction is to refuse to follow the students' way of thinking, and to refuse to assess such tasks. Instead, to help students reconceptualise who they are and what they are expected to do, the teacher needs to send the text back (with explanation why) with a request that the final product version be delivered to him/her. This moment of choice presents a vital chance for empowerment, thanks to which the students can transform their transmissionist perspective on education and become young adults attracted by the challenges of quality and development-oriented learning strategies. The detrimental alternative to the empowering solution is strengthening the disempowering, transmissionist schema. In this way, even a non-formal initiative can add to the detrimental gap between academic training, as if for its own sake, and professional performance and quality.

2.4. Tangible results

In our view, participation in any kind of situated learning project should bring tangible, situated outcomes, if the whole project scheme is to be perceived as attractive to the stakeholders. The most desirable result is project publication in the public or organizational space, since it is the most effective way to make the translation task a real-life situation.

Perhaps the main educational and developmental effect of publishing the translated text is the sense of real and authentic attainment, whose role for the students' motivation, self-confidence and thus self-regulation cannot be overestimated. Even the smaller real-life successes have stronger impact than those perceived by the students as educational. They are often interpreted by the students as part of their experience, as something different from education. Thus, chances of having the final

text available to readers in some kind of public or organizational space need to be considered by the organizers at the stage of a non-formal project design.

Text portfolios and participation certificates should also be an indispensable result of a non-formal project. Nonetheless, their developmental impact cannot be matched with the text publication. Apart from participation certificates, organizers can also consider issuing additional documents that can highlight the merits of the best participants, *etc.* This latter practice can be very helpful in the students' building their portfolio of documents confirming their translation practice.

2.5. Benefits for third parties

The client is also a major beneficiary of the project, and if the text is to be made available to other readers, they also become participants of the project – in accordance with the conception of communication and translation as a social and cultural event. This means that when planning a non-formal project, the organizers can be better off predicting the full range of the project stakeholders. This step can help build a positive public climate around the project and facilitate new initiatives in the future. This is also a signal for the students that are part of a valuable enterprise which has won a considerable public recognition.

Apart from the client and the ones who use the text as however defined end-users, a beneficiary that needs to be kept in mind is the host university of the organizers and the students. For one thing, it benefits by expanding its formal education programme. In this way, non-formal translation projects can help the university realize the mission that the Bologna Process defines for academic institutions: opening to the world outside of it.

Also, we would like to note that the choice of clients for cooperation needs to take into account the purposes for which this client uses translation or interpreting. In our view, more advantageous for learning are those clients for whom translation is part of their core activity and mission, rather than those who happened to be in need of translating a set of texts, their website content, promotion leaflet, *etc.* The more the potential client depends on translation in its daily business, the greater the advantages for the client, the project organizers and the students. Of course, the first kind of advantage is practical: with the clients of a kind described

here one can hope that the non-formal projects could be repeated, enhanced and expanded. From the point of view of professional education, the benefit we would like to highlight is that when translating for clients who depend on multilingual communicating, the students develop valuable experience of understanding the mission of the client they translate for and the methods of their work. This is strategic, often implicit procedural knowledge that can be the students' valuable asset in the process of their E4C transition.

Finally, we would like to expand the scope of potential partners of non-formal educational initiatives to cover not only business organizations, but also NGOs or other educational or cultural institutions as well as local authorities. Apart from the fact that such organizations are also often in need of translation and interpreting services, we would like to emphasize the idea of holistic, ecological (Bronfenbrenner 1979, 2005) T&I education, which is promoted in this monograph. As such, we do not narrow the list of educational objectives to those related to career making, but expand it to cover life-long learning, personal growth as well as social awareness and civic involvement. Last but not least, a wide range of clients selected for partners in non-formal initiatives can make the whole venture more attractive to the students, who can match their interests with the non-formal educational offer.

2.6. Assessment, feedback, communication

Non-formal educational initiatives can be particularly advantageous in helping the students and the teachers transform the narrative concerning assessment. Thanks to non-formal situating of a real-life translation process, the project coordinators and participants can abandon the quest for grades or passmarks – which are inseparable from the formal curriculum, and which are more *significant* for some students than learning, knowledge or skills. Students with their frame of significance focused on grades or passmarks can be ambitious, hard-working and they can be powerful negotiators as regards their grades or passmarks. However, from the perspective of T&I education presented in this monograph, this game is disempowering, since it has not much to do with the main educational and professional objectives of the T&I classroom: developing competences and expertise, self-regulation skills, professional accountability for translation quality, *etc.*

Non-formal initiatives can be a testing ground for teachers and students to develop and implement such approaches to assessment that will help them break with the transmissionist assessment narratives. This is because in the non-formal context, assessment is freed from the confine of classical grading. Hence, it can be refocused on supporting learning and task realization by effective communication strategies and comprehensive flow of information, as mentioned in Chapter 7 above.

In Chapter 7, we also opted for an integrated approach to assessment with its summative and formative aspects being used in building students self-assessment and self-regulation. As we postulated above in this chapter, non-formal projects need tangible results. The major one is translation publication. In our view, the fact of making the translation public is the most advantageous form of summative assessment. The information that the participants get from the fact that some authority accepted the text for publication is more valuable than *e.g.* the number of points a teacher gives to a student in the formal classroom context. In this way, such a non-formal use of summative assessment can reach beyond the confines of its formal curricular use for the close-ended, academic system of summing up the knowledge from the particular subjects or semesters. This is how we expect non-formal projects to deschool summative assessment and to help the T&I educators and students transform their perception of its function. Marks (grades) are no longer in centre of the learning efforts, since the fact of the text being published can be construed by the students as more valuable that the statistic results. The reality of the published text – its presence in some public or organizational space – makes the students' achievement more real than even the highest of scores in the classroom.

3. A case study: students of Applied Linguistics, UMCS translating for the Lublin City Office website

As was the case in Chapter 7 above, where we presented our attempts to put into practice the educational ideas that inform our approach to the T&I classroom, here we would also like to present a partly non-formal translation project which we were in charge of in the years 2008–2011. In it, students of translation at the Division of Applied Linguistics at UMCS collaborated to translate the newsroom section

of the official website of the Lublin City Office. Some of the postulates concerning the non-formal aspects of T&I education which we have presented above result from our experiences from this translation project. Similarly to the previous case study, we first provide a general outline of the project, and then proceed to discuss the particular factors which, in our mind, are strategic for those interested in planning non-formal educational initiatives.

In October 2008, we obtained permission from the authorities of the Division of Applied Linguistics (henceforth as DAL) to launch a non-formal translation project, whose main idea was to engage translation students in a teamwork translation project for the Lublin City Office (henceforth as LCO). The content to be translated was the newsroom section of the official LCO website, since it contained a lot of information that could be of interest to the foreigners visiting or living in Lublin. Thus, the website was the source of information about changes in the functioning of the Lublin public transport, public institutions that could be of use to a foreigner as well as other details that LCO found worth presenting to the international public. Although originally the project was to involve translation from Polish into English, German and French, LCO finally decided on English as the only translation language.

From the beginning, the project attracted many students of Applied Linguistics at UMCS, who had often reported their dissatisfaction with feedback from their student practice and the lack of sense of self-confidence as translators. The first project edition (2008–2009) gathered 55 students representing year II of the BA course in translation. They were divided into 9 translator teams with 5–7 members each, though in 2009 the number of student-participants diminished, and so did the number of groups: from 9 to 8, with 49 students involved. Originally, it was planned that each team was to be led by one manager, yet we accepted the students' suggestion to have two managers for each team. The team managers volunteered from among the MA students in Applied Linguistics.

The English language newsroom section of the LCO website was updated weekly. The materials to be published were selected by LCO a week before publication, sent to the particular team for translation (proofreading, review, *etc.*), to be finally published in two languages simultaneously. This means the teams worked in week-long turns. A major difficulty for students was that there were no breaks in

the project implementation, even though such breaks (holidays) were part of the academic calendar. The only exception was summer holidays, where the translation needs for the LCO service were limited and were handled by professional translators.

The fact that the students had to keep working on the project despite some of their regular days off was part of situating the project, helping the students to adopt the professional perception of the need for the project to continue, in contrast to curricular tasks that are marked by a clear beginning and end. Each team performed twice a semester and four times per an academic year. In each turn, the students had a week for the process of preparing the text for publication plus a team meeting in the week that followed their turn. The particular stages of the project realization within one turn and the roles performed by the particular participants are presented in the table below.[96] Let us add here that our role was that of the project manager.

Table 26. Responsibilities and tasks in the translation project DAL-LCO

	Responsibility	Task	Time frame
1	manager	Email enquiry and *acquisition of materials from LCO*.	WED/THU
2	manager	*Dividing and allocating portions of text among team translators*: Team translators were obliged to confirm the reception of materials. Information about launching a new turn of the project was also sent to project manager and LCO quality assurance officer.	WED/THU
3	translators	*Translation process*: The translators were asked to produce two TT files: *Version 1.a* – the *product* version that was sent to team manager for quality audit; *Version 1.b* – the *process* version with corrections which translators introduced in the process of auto-proofreading (with the use of *mark changes* function). This latter type was sent only to LCO quality assurance officer.	WED/THU to MON

96 The project roles, responsibilities and stages were determined on the basis of our professional experience and on the related categories in D. Gouadec (2007) and D. Kiraly (2012).

4	manager	*Post-translation with quality audit*: 1. Team manager was to perform the necessary post-translation steps, including text reintegration (consolidation) and quality assurance (proof-reading and revision); 2. Team manager was expected to produce two TT files: *Version 2.a* – the *product* version that was sent to LCO quality assurance officer; *Version 2.b* – the *process* version with corrections introduced to 2.a in quality audit (with the use of *mark changes* function).	MON to WED
5	manager	*Sending the text to LCO quality assurance officer* for audit, if no translator corrections/minor corrections were necessary.	WED
		ALTERNATIVELY	
		1. Sending the text for revision and corrections to the team translators, if necessary. The corrections were to be introduced overnight; 2. Sending the final text to LCO quality assurance officer for audit.	WED/THU
6	LCO quality assurance officer	1. Performing LCO-level quality audit: 1.1. Accepting the text for publication; feedback to team manager; 1.2. Sending the text back for revision and corrections; feedback to team manager with deadline (usually Friday morning); 1.3. Refusing to accept the text for publication; feedback to team manager (with deadline for corrective measures, if applicable).	THU
		2. Constructing information for assessment and feedback 2.1. Reconstructing the translation process on the basis of the three documents: *Versions 1.a*, *2.a* and *2.b*; 2.2. Preparing performance feedback for team meetings after each turn; 2.3. Preparing evaluation reports.	THU/MON

| 7 | team manager, team translators, LCO quality assurance officer, project manager | Team meeting: 1. LCO quality assurance officer discusses his view of the process and results; 2. Students respond; 3. Collective conclusion; 4. Summative assessment of team and individual performance in the turn. | Usually MON or TUE next week after publication |

We hope that the general outline of the project organization is well readable from Table 26. Still let us comment in detail on some of the solutions we adopted. Firstly, as can be seen in Table 26, the list of project roles and responsibilities in the project included the figure of LCO quality assurance officer. This person's role was strategic since his work and communication with students was intended to be a major source of the situated narrative expected to empower students' professional translator performance. His role was not confined to the provision of summative assessment of the particular translations. Instead, LCO quality assurance officer was to be a *voice* helping the students develop new ways of thinking about working as a translator in a professional context. Hence, when talking about the project after each turn of its implementation (see point 7 in Table 26), LCO officer and the students talked about their experiences as regards time management, priorities and sequencing translation tasks.

One of the critical issues that was addressed during these meetings was a temptation that many team translators admitted to focus more on producing the draft, and somehow losing motivation when expected to do the auto proof-reading. Producing the draft is demanding but also engrossing. For most students authentically interested in translating it is perhaps the most attractive part of the project implementation. But when comes the time to become one's own reader, and to analyse one's TT critically, the novice translators' motivation can be blocked. They can either abandon serious proof-reading efforts, or expect "others" to do the job for them (manager and LCO officer). Hence, one of the strategic objectives of the project was to make the students experience the fact that translation and proof-reading are one thing.

Another educational aspect that we highlighted during the team meetings was teamwork. The idea of teamwork we employed for the project did not only concern the collaborative or group translation effort

in the project implementation. We also tried our best to make students experience teamwork and collaboration as the personal responsibility of each translator for the project as a whole, not only for his/her share of work. Hence, if a translator observed a problem on the level of project implementation methodology, they were expected to react, and not to assume that such a reaction is not his/her duty.

To be able to observe the product and the process facets in the work of team translators and managers, we decided to rely on three types of documents produced in the process of project implementation: a *product* (1.a) version of the TT by a translator, which was submitted to the manager for his/her work on that text; and a *process* (1.b) version of the TT, which helped us (project manager) and LCO quality assurance officer to trace back the translation and proof-reading decisions of each translator. The same division was repeated on the level of team managers. Their *product* (2.a) versions were the ultimate TTs that were submitted to LCO, while their *process* files (2.b) were used for tracing back their translation and quality assurance decisions. Thus, at the end of each turn, we ended with three types of documents: the *product* final TT and the two *process* texts (1.b and 2.b).

We had two main reasons for employing two pathways for TT generation. One relates to assessment, in which we wanted to cover both the product and the process aspects of the students' performance. The other is that we wanted to use two ways of communicating (narrating) with students about the project.

Thus, for one thing, two types of documents helped us assess not only the final results of the work of the translators and managers, but they also allowed us observe how each of them understood the role of proofreading in quality translation. Apart from the facts we could learn from the two types of documents in question, and that could serve us as information for summative assessment, we also wanted to extract other bits of information from them. In discussions held during the team meetings, the process documents offered a good opportunity to make the project translators and especially managers experience the implicit factors that influence the translation quality. The ultimate objective was to show the students how to use this kind of information to react effectively to the undesired attitudes and behaviours of various project participants.

3.1. Voluntary student participation

During the first year of project implementation, student participation was voluntary. There was no screening or recruitment procedure held. We have launched a pilot project managed by team managers, who were to collect staff (student volunteers) to their teams, and enjoyed the right to turn down a person whom they found insufficiently skilled for the work. This strategy offered team managers a chance to train staff management. Taking into account that our managers recruited from MA students (also volunteers), the task of selecting or screening their younger colleagues was relatively demanding.

We were positively surprised by the participation of the majority of the II year BA students in the project. All 55 students taking translation as specialization showed their interest in participating. However, it is noteworthy that their older colleagues from MA course in translation were far less attracted in becoming team managers. Reasons of this hesitation are worth investigating, yet it became obvious to us that translation students need better training in project management and team management skills – an observation that could be more difficult to make without the non-formal project under analysis.

Because of the changes introduced to the T&I curriculum at the Division of Applied Linguistics UMCS in the wake of the higher education reform in Poland, the project editions in the years 2009 and 2010 were turned into regular student practice. Consequently, student participation became obligatory for all specializing in translation.

The forced resignation from the voluntary participation as an organizational principle meant that we lost a chance of winning the students' initial motivation capital. Without it, the project was at risk of becoming more formal than informal. This is why we decided to highlight the other non-formal, profession-related elements that could help us save the general situated, profession-oriented narratives in our initiative. For example, such obligations as working during semester breaks remained.

The point we would like to make here is that although we find voluntary student participation an important asset for an initiative like ours, we still believe that one can be far more flexible with that principle, and still be able to make full use of the benefits offered by the non-formal educational initiatives. Thus, we do not defend voluntariness as an axiom and a *sine qua non* criterion for successful non-formal initiatives. Yet, we

are of the opinion that the compulsory nature of any educational initiative brings it closer to the formal format, with all its benefits and limitations. Such situations perhaps call for additional efforts to emphasize the other non-formal, situated aspects of such initiatives that can serve as counterbalance to formal compulsion.

The question of the teachers' or organizers' voluntary participation is even more difficult. On the one hand, we are convinced that non-formal initiatives cannot be obligatorily imposed on teachers or project organizers. On the other hand, it could be beneficial if teachers' or organizers' participation be remunerated regularly – which is difficult to plan under the present practices and administrative barriers at Polish universities. Yet, we hope that with the changes in the legal regulatory framework and with the growing need for dialogue between the Academia and the world, new opportunities in this respect will emerge.

3.2. The role of the students in constructing the project scaffolding

This section aims to show how the translators and managers contributed to the development of the project framework by suggesting constructive changes and revisions. Let us start with an observation that team managers were empowered to make consulted changes in project realization methodology on a regular basis. Hence, managers were in charge of handling the source and target texts, their communication with all the stakeholders, and even of the decisions concerning a need to change or exclude someone from their team. Our intention was to make their decision-making power as real as possible. One can easily imagine how this complex network of operating conditions influenced the team managers' performance. To perform well – and to cope – the managers were in need of introducing their own, team-level management rules which shaped the project framework.

One of the greatest difficulties reported by managers were the moments where some team members reacted to their remarks with protest: "Well, I did my best, I cannot translate it any better. If you want, *do* improve the text on your own, it is no longer my problem." Irrespective of what communicative strategies the managers did use in these cases, they faced a threatening situation of having their project endangered in the middle of their turn. It is also interesting to note how the students – even though faced with a chance to make progress – can easily turn to a defensive stance, refusing to learn, and rejecting accountability in

a classical transmissionist way. A practical conclusion that can be drawn from the observations presented here is that pilot projects can be very helpful not only for team members but for managers in particular.

Let us also discuss two other cases where the students (translators and managers) decided to take control over the project framework. In two cases, two teams negotiated their commission with LCO. The problem concerned the repetition of some information reports coming from divergent sources within LCO. The students successfully negotiated the merger of the information package for translation and publishing. They proposed a selection of texts for translation, which was approved of by LCO. Consequently, the Polish version of the service was co-created by the students.

Secondly, some changes in the rules of conduct of the team meeting were introduced on the students' request. The maximum length of such a meeting was delimited to an hour and a half, equally divided between student reports and LCO quality assurance officer comments. It was also decided that evaluation was only discussed at the meeting in general terms (general evaluation of task realization and feedback on the particular problems discussed), while the details were discussed via electronic means (the individual results for a task). More details on assessment strategies employed in the project are presented in section 3.5 below.

3.3. Project manager rather than a 'teacher'

As the title suggests, we decided to adopt the role of an organizer, communicator, advisor and facilitator for all the stakeholders engaged in project implementation. Our tasks included:
1. Constructing the scaffolding part of the project (ideas, methods, communication, assessment);
2. Negotiating the project with LCO;
3. Negotiating the project with LCO quality assurance officer;
4. Recruitment of team managers;
5. Helping team managers to recruit team members;
6. Developing and maintaining the scaffolding in cooperation with the stakeholders;
7. Cooperating in process and product assessment, yet it was LCO quality assurance officer who was fully in power to assess both aspects;
8. Suggesting solutions in contentious cases and crises.

We believe that the points listed above suffice to explain why, in our view, the role of the teacher and project manager are distinct. We admit that this new educational role we constructed for ourselves was extremely attractive for us as a learner. It was this role we played that convinced us of the educational power of non-formal educational initiatives for learning environments like those in which we happen to work.

3.4. Web publication as a tangible result

The main tangible result of the project was the publication of the English-language, translated version of the LCO service (newsroom). There is another, secondary but equally tangible result of the project which needs to be mentioned. To be able to produce a publishable text, the teams and their managers must have worked out their modes of effective operation and communication, which rightly deserve to be called a tangible result on its own – especially in view of the educational character of the project. Thanks to this successful effort on the part of the translators and the managers, they succeeded in producing the English-language texts (translations) in a timely and well-organized manner, thanks to which in all the cases the two language versions were published in full time synchrony. Hence, we tend to believe that the mode of work all these students developed is likely to influence their future behaviour in teamwork project contexts. In this sense, we find this result of our project a tangible one.

The fact that the publication was online meant its widespread availability to the public, which we also found advantageous. Firstly, because the translators and managers could easily point out to such publications as their officially published projects: that is ones that were approved by some authority for publication. Students' participation in such projects can be quite convincing for future employers since they can assume that the translation skills of students whose translation efforts were accepted for publication were tested in a professional context. Secondly, the information about the project was available to a wide range of beneficiaries, which helped build community recognition of the project and could lead to its increased popularity among the students, teachers and other potential stakeholders.

From a practical point of view, one can conclude that publishing online offers important advantages to a project framework like the one

we present here, though it is not our intention to judge other forms of publication as less favourable. The point we want to make is that online publishing helps reduce the costs of projects like ours, makes planning the tangible results easier, but at the same time allows the maximum of benefits to all the stakeholders.

Another end product of the project were the certificates that the students obtained, specifying their role in the project and a short description of duties. The document was signed by a representative of LCO and printed on LCO's letterhead. This was a strategy to signal to the potential addressees of the document that our project focused more on professional experience than educational training.

The point we want to make here is that project managers need to carefully consider a strategy of issuing such certificates to maximize the benefits for all the stakeholders. For example, taking into account the growing interest of companies and organizations in corporate social responsibility activities, a project certificate can be an attractive end product for a company that wished to be socially recognized as being involved in initiatives supporting professional education.

3.5. Benefits for third parties

Another premise on which we built the DAL-LCO translation project was maximizing the network of project beneficiaries. The direct beneficiaries were LCO as authors, the students and the English-speaking readers. The network of indirect project benefits can be expanded to cover, us – as project manager and teacher, UMCS and DAL as public and educational institution(s), LCO quality officer in his skills of quality assurance and quality-oriented education, LCO as an institution that supports professional education in and for the Lublin region, potential students' (graduates') employers, who are informed about the students' working experience in a project that merged the educational and the professional objectives.

When introducing the project to the students, we presented the list above in order to help them realize the holistic image of a professional communication network they were to take part in. This was part of our strategy to holistically situate the project. However, since the list of benefits and beneficiaries is real, we also hoped for additional advantages for the project, stemming from the fact that the beneficiaries can build its

positive image (make it a brand in marketing terms). Any sign of positive recognition of the project adds to the list of its assets, since it helps build its positive perception among all the stakeholders. From the educational point of view, the objective of this approach is make students perceive participation in the project as valuable and even prestigious, since this perception helps raise their motivation levels before, throughout and after the project.

3.6. Assessment

The DAL-LCO project relied on a system of assessment in which we tried to integrate the summative and formative perspective on students' performance. Additionally, we wanted to take into account the fact that our project needed to employ a professional outlook on quality assessment, rather than on formal classroom assessment in its frequent communicative reduction to determining *passmark* vs. *failure*. A major objective that we wanted our assessment strategy to attain was to help students change their conceptualization of being assessed as part of the transmissionist classroom scenario into being assessed and learning to assess themselves and each other in the context of real, professional task. Consequently, the idea was to help the students develop and nurture a need for their intrinsic system of self-assessment and self-regulated performance.

Trying to keep with our conception of assessment as based on communicating in and about the task realization process, we collaborated with a LCO quality assurance officer to produce an assessment scheme to meet the demands of our project. We decided to cover four dimensions of assessment:

Table 27. Assessment in DAL-LCO project divided into four dimensions

	Dimension	Objectives
1	Individual	to assess, give and discuss feedback on an individual basis (educational perspective)
2	Team	to express approval, conditional approval or lack of approval of a particular task (business perspective)
3	Per turn	Dimensions 1 and 2 of the assessment issued per turn
4	Summative (4 turns)	summative assessment of Dimensions 1 and 2 after 4 turns

The first two dimensions of project assessment were introduced in order to distinguish assessing performance of individual team translators and managers from the team effort seen holistically. The former (Dimension 1) concentrated on the details of individual performance, including language and translation skills, proof-reading quality, *etc.* Thus, it can be said to represent a summative aspect of assessment. In that part of our assessment strategy, we relied on a grid developed for the purposes of the project.

Table 28. The grid for translators' individual assessment in the DAL–LCO project

Category	Language				Knowledge			Project management			Points
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Turn 1											0
Turn 2											0
Turn 3											0
Turn 4											0
Total points											0
Info	1. Grammatical structures, including register 2. Lexical choice and structures, including register 3. Textual coherence and communicative effectiveness 4. Auto-proof-reading 5. Terminological correctness 6. Terminological coherence 7. Info mining and use of sources 8. Timeliness (version 1.a and 1.b) 9. Timeliness in reacting to feedback from LCO Quality Officer 10. Availability and effective communication In each element the Translator can score up to 5 points maximum, that is 50 points maximum per turn and 200 points per edition.										

We decided on that kind of information feedback since – as repeatedly mentioned above – we wanted to employ some elements of the formal curriculum in order to change the students' attitude towards them: from instruments of transmissionist hunt for passmarks and minimum required number of points into tools of self-directed learning and self-regulated professional performance. Let us also add that our purpose

behind our summative grid was not to assess by calculating the total score for a student, but to determine progress in the particular aspects of the translators' performance.

The assessment narrative in the latter dimension (Dimension 2) was constructed in terms of a quality-oriented review that a translator (or a translation team) can expect of quality assurance specialist. Instead of a scaled grid, we used a simple three point distinction between approval, conditional approval and the lack of approval for the translation product submitted to the LCO Quality Officer (*cf.* similar suggestions in González Davies 2004). This way of assessing the project was meant to help students transform their way of thinking about translation quality from the framework of *scoring* – having its ultimate horizon defined at the moment of obtaining the score – into the frame of *accountability* – which opens a pathway to successful translation career. In other words, the transformation that we wanted the students to experience was that thinking in terms of performance as measured in percent into taking responsibility for the product text as a whole. Instead of the ambition for better grades given by an extrinsic authority, we wanted to attract students to develop their self-reliant awareness of their translation and management skills. This is because we believe that the latter kind of ambition corresponds with notions of translation quality, client satisfaction and successful translation service provision.

It must also be noted that assessment in Dimension 2 was unnegotiable and irrevocable. The LCO quality assurance officer's statement was subject to discussion during the team meetings after each turn, but the assessment as such could never be waivered. Each team could fail once in four turns (Dimension 2). The second failure meant the elimination of the group from the project. Fortunately, this never happened in the project, despite two cases of single negative assessment in Dimension 2. Assessment in Dimension 2 was the main topic of the team meetings, held after each turn.

Dimension 3 concerns assessment and feedback after each turn, while Dimension 4 is the conclusion of the four turns (in the individual and team aspects). The translators' individual grids were filled in by the LCO quality assurance officer after each turn and were subject to individual discussion and consultation between the student and him. In consequence, after the four turns, we could meet the students individually and talk

about their grids. As noted above, we were not interested primarily in calculating the weighted average of the scores in the four turns, being more focused on observing progress in the particular skills.

As for team managers, they were not assessed by means of the grid presented in Table 28 above. Their work was assessed within Dimension 2. Also, we held short meetings with the managers after each team meeting to discuss the experienced or potential team management problems, advantageous solutions adopted, *etc*.

Conclusions

Section 3 of this chapter was intended to show how the idea of expanding T&I curriculum to cover non-formal educational initiatives as an inherent curricular component can be put into practice. The need for such an expansion stems from our observation that the forms of extra-curricular T&I education as we know them (student practices and internships) hardly inform the formal curriculum, which means their educational potential is not exploited. We agree with G. Grow (1991) and S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000) that the objectives of contemporary education are learning for career, for developing skills of lifelong learning, learning for individual growth (andragogy) and social participation (*cf. e.g.* Bronfenbrenner's 1979, 2005 ecological conception of culture). In view of the above, formal T&I curriculum may fail to provide satisfactory environment for autonomous and holistic growth, as observed by G. Grow (1991) and S. Hase, C. Kenyon (2000).

It is true that a lot should be done to make formal curriculum as flexible as possible: classes should be organized in a way to make them open to task and method negotiation with the students; specialists should be invited to truly participate in shaping the programme, *etc*. Our idea of expanding the classical curriculum is not intended as criticism and a way to weaken the role of the formal part of T&I education. It is meant as a form of support for those areas in T&I education which need to be situated close to real professional performance, where the formal, curricular simulation of this performance is not sufficient. A non-formal curricular component can not only help overcome the programme flexibility constraints, but it can also be source of additional advantages for the students, the teachers, the university, employers and society. The main benefit

we foresee is building a *community of inquiry* (see Chapter 4 above): of shared construction of knowledge through negotiation of senses.

However, as much as we want our non-formal curricular component to be of help to the formal part of the curriculum, we also wish to promote such a vision of T&I curriculum that opens all the stakeholders to the future after the students' graduation. Under this view, our curriculum can be given a tripartite structure, as illustrated below.
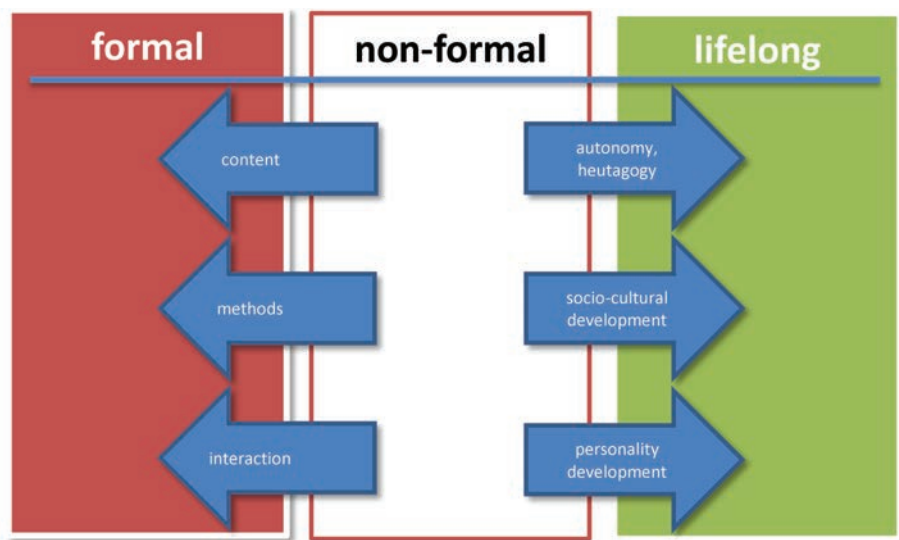
Figure 13. A proposal for a tripartite T&I curriculum

In fact, the concept of T&I curriculum as presented above evolves from the conception of extrinsically determined education into a mosaic of areas, learning styles and educational interactions which are intended to help individuals and learning teams organize their learning experience throughout lifetime.

The third, open-ended element added to the picture in Figure 13 corresponds to the professional, andragogical and social perspectives after graduation. Expanding the idea of T&I curriculum to cover that third part means that the formal T&I curriculum must be designed and implemented in such a way as to prepare the students for the never-ending process of learning and growth in its professional, personal and socio-cultural aspects. Otherwise, it fails the students in preparing them for career and life success.

The tripartite structure advocated here allows us to show the role of a non-formal curricular component as a bridge between the realm of academic education and the reality outside the university. This bridging function is graphically symbolized by the arrows that suggest the benefits that the formal curricular component and the lifelong perspective can win thanks to non-formal T&I education initiatives. As noted repeatedly before in this monograph, such bridges are and will always be needed, since the relationship between the Academia and the world is very complex and subject to continuous negotiation. Neither the market alone, the state policy, the university authorities, the students or the teachers can be – each of them – the ultimate and absolute sources of power in contemporary academic education. The only empowering solution that seems a reasonable conclusion from our research and practice is that all these voices need to meet and share the T&I educational space.

Concluding remarks

This monograph was intended to present yet another look at T&I education, among many other available perspectives and approaches. The main aim of the book was to convince the reader of the potential that an approach like ours can have for T&I academic education that reaches beyond the horizon of the formal curriculum, to address the authentic needs of all the stakeholders of the educational process. This type of education needs to be effective in preparing students for career and life, but that is possible – in our opinion – only when all the stakeholders are given their share of power to shape T&I curricula and classrooms. We are not seeking an ideal educational system. We are trying to engage all the voices in the constant negotiating of their worlds through education. This work does not provide ready-made answers, but it helps the reader ask questions in such a way that they may be transformed into tasks. Below we present a selection of concluding remarks to sum up in a general way the findings of the monograph.

Teacher training. Suggestions that effective T&I education cannot become a matter of fact without trainer's training are to be found in the relevant literature in the mid-1990s (as discussed in Chapter 1). Yet, when reading contributions like D. Kelly (2008), one can contend that T&I teacher training at the academic level is still a challenge that has not yet been met. As rightly observed by D. Kelly, the problem starts with the role of teaching in the professional career of an academic.

> Although some training does take place in other environments […], it is probably the case that the majority of those involved in translator training are full-time university lecturers. This has of course numerous implications, among which the fact that full-time university lecturers

are expected to carry out a large number of other tasks which are not directly linked to teaching as such. Most university systems expect full-time lecturers to be quite heavily involved in research, and promotion and incentive schemes are usually based on reward for dedication to, and achievements in, research, whereas teaching and achievements in teaching tend inevitably to play second fiddle. (Kelly 2008: 100)

This description provided by D. Kelly (2008) precedes her discussion of Translator Trainer Competence. Irrespective of the fact that her vision of this competence is comprehensive and that it addresses teachers as people, not as procedure executors, it is interesting to ask if this competence is at all possible to flourish as long as teaching is expected to play "the second fiddle" (see quotation above) in the hierarchy of academic practices. There is no straightforward answer to this question, since the number of factors influencing the present *status quo* of the academic teaching profession is even more complex than in the picture that D. Kelly (2008) provides. Still, a need to train and support translator trainers that emerges from her text is urgent today. This urgency is proved by the relatively recent publication by EMT expert group entitled *The EMT Translator Trainer Profile Competences of the Trainer in Translation* (EMT 2013).

It goes beyond the confines of this monograph to discuss whether such training should take a formal, institutionalized shape, or it should be a workplace learning experience, focused on guidance and support in the trainers daily work. We hope that at least to some extent, the proposals found in this book can help academic translator/interpreter trainers find their ways to become professional, effective yet humanist and relational teachers, irrespective of the constraints imposed by the present-day *status quo* of teaching at the university level. Our greatest ambition is to help T&I teachers embrace the empowering potential of a discovery-driven, task-based, anthropocentric and relational approach to education.

Communication strategies. One competence that is partly signalled in D. Kelly (2008) relates to interpersonal skills and classroom communication. In our view, this aspect of T&I students' and teachers' performance and of classroom organization needs to be highlighted even more explicitly. Expanding both the declarative and the procedural knowledge of the stakeholders of the T&I educational arena concerning the vitality of the communication processes for the educational effectiveness is one of the most urgent challenges of contemporary T&I education.

Publications like D. Kelly (2008) or M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) prove that this challenge can be formulated for T&I education in general.

Deschooling T&I education. Efficient and effective communication with all the stakeholders on the T&I educational arena is a condition *sine qua non* for deschooling T&I education by substituting voice monopolies with the policy of multiple voices. This latter step is necessary when we authentically expect situating T&I education to bring an effective connection between education and career building. Deschooling T&I education can also take place with the help of researchers like M. Eraut and S. Billett, or in fact of a very long list of specialists in workplace education, whose research needs to be part of T&I educators' knowledge.

From parallel universes to one contested world. Another transformation that needs to take place to empower T&I education concerns the narratives in the debate on the issues of Education to Employment (E2E) – or Education for Career (E4C). As proved by the data reports by M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014), educators, students and employers all choose to stick to their visions of the world as true. Educators develop newer and newer programmes, yet it seems they hardly translate onto better and better professional skills. Students find it difficult to work out their educational and professional strategies without sufficient help on the part of the Academia and the employers. They are often disempowered by the situation they find on the market and by their inability to approach it in terms of a developmental task (*cf.* the category of students called *non-believers* in Mourshed *et al.* 2014). Some such attitudes are also observable among the Polish students of translation/interpreting researched by K. Klimkowska (2013, 2014, in print). Better solutions are needed to change the present *status quo* than countless meetings with potential employers, repeatedly organized by universities or faculties – mostly out of formal obligation. Unless all the players are given their authentic chance of influencing T&I education, no sharing of the world will be possible. The separate universes will keep floating in space, even though the frequency of generally inconclusive meetings and talks can grow year by year.

Research. The final remark to make here is that effective T&I education needs to invest more into research like the one discussed in Chapter 5 above. Without reports like M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) or K. Klimkowska (2013, 2014, in print), T&I educators are doomed to their solipsistic

visions of what they believe to be effective curricula. T&I education needs a far greater amount of data concerning all the aspects of its daily functioning. The research of this kind cannot be designed to produce a cornucopia of statistic figures devoid of significant information value. This is a practice we are familiar with in our working environment, where educators are expected to provide regularly batches of data out of the obligation imposed on them, without any explanation as for how these data can significantly enhance the quality of their work (flawed, or to be precise, non-existent communication about the data and research results). Some such reports have their information value reduced to reward or punishment (*e.g.* teacher's assessment procedure), with a lot of collected data being wasted. The research we have in mind cannot be imposed on educators or other stakeholders. It must be created by them, interpreted by them and translated into shared actions.

We would like to address these five dimensions in our future research and professional practice. In this way, we can delve deeper into some of the issues only hinted in this monograph and left without further insight. These five dimensions can also help us address a lot of issues that have not been mentioned here and which need to be addressed in the context of the daily organization of the T&I classrooms. These can be logistic, legal or financial matters that we almost completely ignored in our text, and which can be potential obstacles in the work of many T&I educators. Neither did we discuss the growing role of distance learning and its potential impact on relation building in T&I education. Yet another aspect that is worth investigating from our perspective is how the advances in cognitive sciences change the way we understand knowledge and human functioning. Their findings may soon mark a turn in how we approach learning and education. For the time being, we decided to exclude these, and many other problems from the scope of this work, as they could negatively affect the main trajectory of our argumentation.

Streszczenie

Monografia, której tytuł w języku polskim mógłby brzmieć „Propozycja współtworzonego programu edukacji tłumaczy pisemnych i ustnych", podejmuje dyskusję z kilkoma – zdaniem autora wiodącymi – poglądami, obecnymi przede wszystkim w anglojęzycznej debacie nt. dydaktyki translacji. Jednym z pojęć stanowiących punkt wyjścia do ich ugruntowania jest kompetencja translatorska (*translation competence*). Problematyka kształcenia tłumaczy pod kątem ich przygotowania do pracy zawodowej i związana z tym literatura przedmiotu z zakresu studiów nad dydaktyką translacji stanowią drugi temat podjęty w monografii (rozdział 1). Wyniki przeprowadzonych analiz wskazują na potrzebę uściślenia pewnych pojęć, a może raczej na ich zredefiniowanie. Ta potrzeba – zdaniem Klimkowskiego – wynika z nie do końca czytelnych założeń epistemologicznych w badaniach i pracach omawianych autorów. Dlatego właśnie w rozdziale 2 autor podjął próbę odpowiedzi na pytania o sposób rozumienia pojęcia wiedzy i uczenia się, co prowadziłoby do stworzenia najkorzystniejszego środowiska rozwojowego – nie tylko dla kształcących się tłumaczy, ale i dla wszystkich interesariuszy procesu edukacyjnego.

W swych poszukiwaniach epistemologicznych autor korzysta przede wszystkim z dokonań prof. Franciszka Gruczy, w tym w głównej mierze z jego *Antropocentrycznej teorii języków ludzkich* oraz epistemologii antropocentrycznej. Drugim autorem, którego założenia epistemologiczne uwzględnia niniejsza monografia, jest Donald C. Kiraly (ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem Kiraly 2000). Propozycje obu autorów zostają przedyskutowane w szerszym kontekście koncepcji epistemologicznych określanych jako konstruktywistyczne i socjokonstruktywistyczne. Zdaniem

Klimkowskiego możliwe jest takie odczytanie większości omawianych propozycji, że spełniają one zarówno warunek antropocentryczności konstruowania wiedzy w mózgu każdego człowieka jako jednostki, jak i społecznego konstruowania wiedzy przez ludzi. W ten sposób udaje się odrzucić i obiektywistyczne teorie wiedzy, i te wersje socjokonstruktywizmu, którym bliski jest postulat pozbawienia jednostki autonomii (*agency*) wynikającej z antropocentrycznych podstaw epistemologii konstruktywistycznej.

Rozdział 3 monografii zawiera poszerzoną analizę wybranych pojęć, które składają się na program edukacji tłumaczy zaproponowany przez D. Kiraly'ego (2000). Za główne pojęcie będące fundamentem koncepcji D. Kiraly'ego (2000) autor monografii uznał *empowerment*, a to dlatego, że jest ono kluczowe dla argumentacji D. Kiraly'ego w jego propozycjach dydaktyki translacji. Mimo iż czytelnik może odnaleźć u D. Kiraly'ego (2000) i w licznych publikacjach komentujących tę pracę obszerne omówienie, autor niniejszej monografii rozszerzył zakres dyskusji nad pojęciem *empowerment*, przedstawiając skrótowo informacje o jego źródłach w naukach społecznych i studiach nad kulturą.

D. Kiraly (2000) odwołuje się również do zapożyczonej od L. Wygockiego *strefy najbliższego rozwoju* (SNR). Według L. Wygockiego zadaniem nauczycieli (i innych edukatorów) jest stymulowanie rozwoju uczących się, by przekraczali osiągnięte do tej pory poziomy wiedzy i umiejętności. Jednakże uczący muszą respektować – a może raczej stale rozpoznawać – możliwości rozwojowe uczących się, by nie spowodować ich demotywacji i pasywności. To założenie jest kluczowe także dla autora niniejszej monografii, gdyż stanowi odpowiedź na częste zarzuty wobec jego autorskich propozycji edukacyjnych czy np. programu D. Kiraly'ego (2000). Autorowi zdarza się słyszeć zwłaszcza od nauczycieli akademickich: „choć to świetne pomysły, to moi studenci nie są na to gotowi". Dzięki idei SNR L. Wygockiego Klimkowski jest w stanie pokazać krytykom błąd w ich rozumowaniu: „gotowi" mają być nauczyciele. Studenci wymagają ruchu uprzedzającego, postawienia im zadania rozwojowego. Idea negocjowania tego zadania ma na celu utrzymanie jego zakresu tematycznego i poziomu trudności w ramach *strefy najbliższego rozwoju*.

Rozdział 4 poświęcony jest poszukiwaniom w literaturze z zakresu teorii edukacji (rozdział 3 i 4) źródeł poparcia dla przyjętego w monografii podejścia epistemologicznego, w tym m.in. u twórców takich jak

(kolejność zgodna z układem pracy): Jerome S. Bruner, Carl R. Rogers, Malcolm Knowles, Jack Mezirow, Kenneth J. Gergen, Urszula Ostrowska. W ten sposób Klimkowski chce także zwrócić uwagę na potrzebę znacznie szerszego uwzględniania dokonań teorii edukacji w dydaktyce translacji niż miało to miejsce do tej pory. Wśród idei, które w sposób szczególny wpłynęły na sposób myślenia i argumentację autora monografii, należy wymienić:

1. Rozróżnienie pomiędzy stylem ekspozycyjnym (*expository*) i hipotetycznym (*hypothetical*) w nauczaniu według J. Brunera. Rozróżnienie zaproponowane przez J. Brunera wydaje się bezpośrednio odnosić do opozycji pomiędzy koncepcją edukacji opartej na metaforze transferu/przekazu wiedzy (*transmissionism*) a koncepcją empowermentową D. Kiraly'ego (2000). W kontekście niniejszej monografii wart podkreślenia jest także fakt, iż koncepcja J. Brunera uwzględnia rolę zadania (*task*) jako niezbędnego elementu działań edukacyjnych (*discovery-driven problem solving*), który zastępuje pojęcie treści (*content*) jako ekwiwalentu pojęcia wiedzy w podejściu podawczym (*transmissionism*).

2. Koncepcja edukacji skoncentrowanej na uczącym się według C. Rogersa, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem antropocentryczności tej koncepcji (hipoteza 1 C. Rogersa, zob. np. Rogers 1951) i pojęcia uczenia się znaczącego (*significant learning*).

3. Koncepcja edukacji opartej na relacjach pomiędzy uczącymi się podmiotami, a nie na procedurach nauczania uczniów/studentów przez nauczycieli – została nakreślona już w 1967 roku przez C. Rogersa, a w sposób szczególny zaakcentowana w stosunkowo niedawnej propozycji K. Gergena (2009), który stawia przed edukacją zadanie przygotowania ludzi do partycypowania w wielorakich relacyjnych procesach tworzenia wiedzy – w skali zarówno lokalnej, jak i globalnej (por. Gergen 2009: 243).

4. Koncepcja relacji interpersonalnych w kontekście edukacyjnym U. Ostrowskiej ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem jej rozważań na temat relacji mistrz–uczeń oraz kwestii równości partnerów w relacji edukacyjnej. Szczególne znaczenie ma tu zaproponowana przez U. Ostrowską zasada, że równość praw partnerów w relacji edukacyjnej nie oznacza identyczności tych praw (por. Ostrowska 2002b: 46).

Pojęciem, które stanowi punkt wyjścia do dyskusji w rozdziale 5, jest pojęcie autonomii w kontekście edukacyjnym. Postulaty autonomizacji procesu uczenia się wynikają bezpośrednio z założeń epistemologicznych monografii oraz prac wielu autorów omawianych w poprzednich rozdziałach. W tym rozdziale Klimkowski stara się pokazać, że autonomizacja uczenia się nigdy nie jest procesem liniowym, przebiegającym od niższych do wyższych stopni autonomii – co jednoznacznie wykazał G. Grow (1991). Wysiłki zachęcania wszystkich uczestników procesu edukacyjnego do podejmowania autonomicznych i odpowiedzialnych decyzji samokształceniowych konieczne są zawsze i na każdym etapie kształcenia. Autor dowodzi także, iż autonomizacja procesów uczenia się nie może być rozumiana jako izolacjonizm uczącego się – jego absolutne uwolnienie się od relacji czy zależności. Choć postulaty heutagogiczne S. Hase'a i C. Kenyona (2000) można potencjalnie odczytywać jako chęć ograniczenia wpływu klasycznych metod edukacyjnych jako nieskutecznych w kształceniu mechanizmów własnego poszukiwania wiedzy przez uczących się, to autor monografii wykazuje, że o ile uczenie się ma charakter istotny (*significant learning*) dla uczącego się, o tyle zawsze wymaga pewnej obecności i oddziaływań „uczącego" (facylitatora/wspomagającego), nawet jeśli jego rolę pełni kolega-tłumacz, szef projektu, autor bazy danych z tekstami czy leksykonu terminologii. Podsumowując, autonomizacja to niekończący się proces, a autonomia nie jest tylko emancypacją *od*, ale musi być zawsze emancypacją *do* nowego układu odniesień, w którym jednostka (względnie) autonomiczna chce uczestniczyć.

Dyskusja nad autonomią w kontekście edukacji tłumaczy nie ma dla autora monografii wartości jedynie teoretycznej. W rozdziale 1 Klimkowski zaakcentował problematykę rynkowego funkcjonowania tłumaczy jako jednego z najistotniejszych aspektów współczesnej debaty w dziedzinie dydaktyki translacji. W tym kontekście idea autonomii uczenia się – zdobywania wiedzy – nabiera nowego znaczenia: autonomia procesów decyzyjnych tłumacza na etapie kształcenia daje większe szanse nie tylko udanej tranzycji tłumacza na rynek (tzw. zatrudnialność), ale przede wszystkim wyposaża tłumacza w narzędzia samoregulacji (por. Moser-Mercer 2008 i pojęcie *self-regulation* tamże) w działaniach zawodowych. O potrzebie tak rozumianej autonomii i jej uwarunkowaniach mówią cytowani i omawiani w monografii dwaj wybitni badacze

dziedziny, której nazwę można spolszczyć jako „edukacja w miejscu pracy" (*workplace education*).

Michael Eraut (2000, 2009) ukazuje ograniczenia współczesnych systemów kształcenia zawodowego, które wynikają – między innymi z niedostrzegania przez organizatorów takich systemów roli wiedzy implicytnej w kształceniu i w funkcjonowaniu zawodowym oraz faktu, że uczenie się przebiega przede wszystkim w ludzkim byciu i działaniu w świecie, a nie – prymarnie – w wyniku partycypacji człowieka w zinstytucjonalizowanych programach kształcenia. Jedną z propozycji M. Erauta (2009) jest zastąpienie pojęcia kompetencji pojęciem trajektorii rozwojowych. Według M. Erauta drugie pojęcie lepiej koresponduje z naturą ludzkiego uczenia się, ponieważ nie wyznacza w sposób binarny zakresu ludzkiej wiedzy i umiejętności (mam kompetencje albo ich nie mam). Proponuje raczej perspektywę emergentystyczną, gdzie różne zakresy wiedzy i umiejętności ludzkich wymagają ciągłej aktualizacji w kontekście zmienności zadań, przed jakimi staje człowiek.

Podobny wydźwięk mają prace Stephena Billetta (2001, 2010). On także opowiada się przeciwko swoistej monopolizacji ludzkiego uczenia się przez instytucje edukacyjne i zwraca uwagę na pozorny podział pomiędzy formalnym i pozaformalnym uczeniem się. Według S. Billetta formalny czy pozaformalny może być kontekst budowania wiedzy ludzkiej, ale samo uczenie się nie jest ani formalne, ani pozaformalne. Z punktu widzenia autora niniejszej monografii najistotniejszym pojęciem używanym przez S. Billetta jest miejsce pracy jako przestrzeń negocjowana, przestrzeń konfliktu interesów (*contested terrain*) – dla Klimkowskiego to jedna z przesłanek definiowania przestrzeni edukacyjnej jako negocjowanej – i w tym sensie współdzielonej (*shared*).

Rozdział 6 streszczanej książki poświęcony jest analizie badań empirycznych dotyczących szeroko pojętych relacji pomiędzy edukacją a działalnością zawodową (często nazywaną rynkiem pracy). Analizie poddane zostały cztery źródła: raport zespołu kierowanego przez M. Mourshed (Mourshed *et al.* 2014) zatytułowany *Education to Employment: Getting Europe's Youth into Work* oraz trzy studia autorstwa K. Klimkowskiej (Klimkowska 2013, 2014, w druku).

Raport M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) poświęcony jest ustaleniu barier, na które napotyka europejski rynek pracy w pozyskiwaniu nowych wykwalifikowanych kadr. Autorzy raportu przeprowadzili badania ankietowe

pośród 5300 uczących się młodych ludzi, 2600 pracodawców oraz 700 instytucji edukacyjnych – w tym uniwersytetów i wyższych szkół zawodowych.

Najistotniejsza z punktu widzenia streszczanej tu monografii jest konkluzja postawiona przez autorów raportu, iż główne zdiagnozowane w nim problemy spowodowane są brakiem skutecznej komunikacji pomiędzy trzema interesariuszami omawianego w raporcie układu odniesienia: uczącymi się, edukatorami oraz pracodawcami. Jak zauważają autorzy, każda z tych grup wydaje się funkcjonować we własnym uniwersum i każda ma tylko własną, zmonopolizowaną narrację dotyczącą relacji pomiędzy edukacją i rynkiem pracy. Bez przełamania tak pojętej izolacji interesariuszy i stworzenia przestrzeni współdzielonej – także w sensie negocjowania władzy w tejże przestrzeni – nie ma szansy na rozwiązanie wieloletniego kryzysu tranzycji na rynek pracy z instytucji edukacyjnych w Europie. Kończąc raport, autorzy formułują postulaty dotyczące działań mających na celu przezwyciężenie tego „kryzysu zatrudnialności" w Unii Europejskiej.

Monografia K. Klimkowskiej (2013) poświęcona jest pojęciu sukcesu w zawodzie tłumacza w opiniach studentów kierunków i specjalizacji tłumaczeniowych w Polsce. Analizy przeprowadzone są na podstawie danych z 436 kwestionariuszy wypełnionych przez studentów reprezentujących wszystkie (znane autorce w czasie przeprowadzania badań) kierunki lub specjalizacje translatorskie na studiach stacjonarnych drugiego stopnia w Polsce. Badania K. Klimkowskiej (2013) ukazują między innymi, że ponad połowa badanych studentów przewiduje możliwe problemy w osiągnięciu sukcesu zawodowego spowodowane niewystarczająco rozwiniętymi kompetencjami translatorskimi (61,47%) i brakiem umiejętności podejmowania decyzji (52,57%). Prawie połowa ankietowanych (46,76%) problemy w osiągnięciu własnego sukcesu zawodowego wiąże z ograniczonym poczuciem pewności siebie jako tłumacza, a 42,9% wskazuje na braki w umiejętnościach zarządzania pracą i czasem pracy. Bez względu na to, do jakiego stopnia opinie studentów korespondują z ich faktycznymi kompetencjami zawodowymi, wyniki badań K. Klimkowskiej (2013) zdają się wskazywać, że programy dydaktyki translacji, w których uczestniczyli badani studenci, nie uwzględniają w należytym stopniu potrzeb młodych ludzi stojących przed problemem wejścia na rynek pracy. Można zakładać, że wielu

studentów zbyt nisko wartościuje swój kapitał kompetencyjny, kiedy oczekiwać od nich jego oceny w rzeczywistości aktywności zawodowej, której zupełnie nie znają. Jednak wyniki badań nad umiejętnością podejmowania decyzji, zarządzaniem czasem pracy czy radzeniem sobie z trudnościami natury psychologicznej (71,33% badanych wymieniło stres jako potencjalną trudność w drodze do sukcesu zawodowego) wskazują jednoznacznie, że programy dydaktyczne nie obejmują oddziaływania edukacyjnego w tych zakresach kształcenia, co znacząco utrudnia młodym ludziom nie tylko start na drodze do kariery, ale dalsze skuteczne kroczenie po jej ścieżce.

Studium K. Klimkowskiej (2014) poświęcone jest pojęciu przedsiębiorczości oraz diagnozie stopnia rozwoju cech przedsiębiorczych wśród wybranej grupy studentów studiów translatorskich (68 studentów kierunku lingwistyka stosowana w UMCS w Lublinie). K. Klimkowska zadała studentom trzy pytania:

1. Czy uważają, że przedsiębiorczość jest istotna w zawodzie tłumacza?
2. Czy uważają się za osoby przedsiębiorcze (rozwijające cechy przedsiębiorcze)?
3. Czy w ich opinii studia translatorskie, w których uczestniczą, pomagają im rozwijać cechy przedsiębiorcze?

Odpowiadając na pierwsze z zadanych pytań, zdecydowana większość respondentów przyznała, że cechy przedsiębiorcze są ważnym zasobem tłumacza profesjonalisty (odpowiedź *zdecydowanie tak* – 70,59%, *raczej tak* – 22,09%). Jedynie trzy osoby stwierdziły, że trudno jest im określić rolę przedsiębiorczości w działaniach zawodowych tłumacza, a dwoje badanych odpowiedziało, że przedsiębiorczość raczej nie jest istotna w pracy tłumacza.

Mimo dostrzegania istoty cech przedsiębiorczych w działalności zawodowej tłumacza, tylko 3 studentów uznało się za osoby zdecydowanie przedsiębiorcze (odpowiedź *zdecydowanie tak* na pytanie 2 przedstawione powyżej), a 24 jako raczej przedsiębiorcze (odpowiedź *raczej tak*). Zatem tylko 39,7% badanych studentów odpowiedziało pozytywnie na postawione pytanie. 14 studentów udzieliło odpowiedzi *raczej nie*, a 27 (39,7%) nie było w stanie odpowiedzieć na pytanie (odpowiedź *trudno powiedzieć*). Zdaniem autora to właśnie ostatni wynik ukazuje wyraźną potrzebę lepszego przygotowania studentów do funkcjonowania jako osoby przedsiębiorcze.

Konieczność tę potwierdzają odpowiedzi, jakich badani studenci udzielili na pytanie 3. Pozytywną rolę programu dydaktyki translacji w kształtowaniu cech przedsiębiorczych dostrzegło 55,88%. Niestety 28 badanych studentów (41,18%) nie potrafiło odpowiedzieć na tak zadane pytanie. Liczba studentów, według których studia *raczej nie* przyczyniają się do wzrostu potencjału przedsiębiorczości, była bardzo mała (2 osoby), a odpowiedzi *zdecydowanie nie* nie udzielił nikt. Podobnie jak w przypadku poprzedniego pytania, tak duża liczba studentów niepotrafiących udzielić żadnej odpowiedzi na pytania powinna budzić niepokój i wskazywać na potrzeby skuteczniejszego oddziaływania edukacyjnego w zakresie kształtowania cech przedsiębiorczych przyszłych tłumaczy.

Artykuł K. Klimkowskiej (w druku) poświęcony jest tranzycji na rynek pracy wybranych studentów kierunków tłumaczeniowych. Na potrzeby tej publikacji K. Klimkowska przebadała 109 studentów studiów drugiego stopnia na kierunku lingwistyka stosowana w UMCS w Lublinie. Studenci najpierw byli pytani o plany zawodowe, a potem badaczka starała się ustalić, do jakiego stopnia ujawnione plany to rzeczywiście plany, a nie jedynie pewne wizje czy wręcz marzenia studentów. Okazuje się bowiem, że o ile respondentom łatwo przychodzi wskazać pola zawodowej działalności translatorskiej, o tyle zapytani, czy podejmują lub planują podjęcie działań umożliwiających realizację wskazanych wcześniej planów, wykazują znacznie niższą aktywność. Odpowiadając na pytanie o plany zawodowe, 85 na 109 (77,98%) badanych osób wybrało jedną spośród sześciu możliwych opcji aktywności zawodowej przedstawionej w kwestionariuszu. Pozostałe 24 osoby (22,02%) udzieliły odpowiedzi: *brak określonych planów i oczekiwań zawodowych*.

Można zatem powiedzieć, że zdecydowana większość badanych wykazuje świadomość czekającego ich wejścia na rynek pracy. Jednakże, kiedy tych samych studentów zapytać o działania pomocne w zrealizowaniu planów zawodowych, okazuje się, że 33% nie podejmie żadnych działań w perspektywie zbliżającego się roku (odpowiedź *zdecydowanie nie* – 8 ze 109 badanych, *raczej nie* – 28), a tyle samo studentów nie umie odpowiedzieć na tak postawione pytanie (36 osób, 33%). Jedynie 1/3 badanej grupy (37 osób) przyznała, że planuje w zbliżającym się roku działania ułatwiające wejście na rynek usług translatorskich.

Ta sama grupa studentów została zapytana o plany w perspektywie trzyletniej. Łącznie odpowiedzi *zdecydowanie nie* i *raczej nie* udzieliło 40 spośród 109 badanych (36,7%), *zdecydowanie tak* i *raczej tak* – 25 badanych (22,94%), a 49 (44,95%) studentów nie umiało odpowiedzieć na postawione im pytanie.

Zdaniem autora streszczanej tu monografii dane przedstawione w artykule K. Klimkowskiej (w druku) wskazują na potrzeby edukacyjne w zakresie planowania przez studentów swojej tranzycji do świata działalności zawodowej. Dane te wskazują także, iż instytucje edukacyjne nie powinny ograniczać przyjmowanej przez siebie perspektywy przyszłości absolwentów do statystycznego parametru zatrudnialności, a winny raczej przyjmować dalszy horyzont zdarzeń, planując interwencję dydaktyczną z myślą o długoterminowym i skutecznym funkcjonowaniu absolwentów na rynku pracy. Dlatego autor proponuje zamianę stosowanego w raporcie M. Mourshed *et al.* (2014) pojęcia tranzycji z edukacji do zatrudnienia (Education to Employment) na pojęcie tranzycja z edukacji do kariery (Education for Career).

Rozdział 7 monografii ma na celu skonsolidowanie przedstawianych wcześniej treści w formie propozycji autorskiego podejścia do edukacji tłumaczy. Klimkowski akcentuje potrzebę systemowego widzenia układu dydaktycznego, z którego wyeliminowana zostaje narracja centrum–peryferia (np. edukacja skoncentrowana na uczącym się). Autor podkreśla potrzebę przełamywania monopolu instytucji edukacyjnych w kształtowaniu programów dydaktyki translacji. W tej perspektywie znaczenia nabiera zarówno przyjęta antropocentryczna wizja dydaktyki, jak i rola relacji w oddziaływaniu edukacyjnym. Rola nauczyciela w rozwijaniu i wykorzystywaniu sprawności komunikacji interpersonalnej jest wyjątkowo mocno podkreślona, gdyż to właśnie procesom komunikacji – a nie *procedurom nauczania* – przypisywana jest strategiczna funkcja budowania środowiska autodydaktycznego. Odrębnym wątkiem jest podkreślenie roli zadania jako komponentu układu dydaktycznego. W koncepcji Klimkowskiego, zadanie ma zastąpić pojęcie treści edukacyjnych, typowe dla podawczego sposobu myślenia o edukacji. Zadanie wymaga aktywności innej niż przekaz czy absorpcja wiedzy – cokolwiek te pojęcia mogłyby oznaczać. Zadanie to staje zarówno przed uczącym się, jak i przed nauczycielem. Wymaga ich spotkania się i decyzji o wspólnym (choć nie identycznym) zaangażowaniu w wykonanie zadania.

Rozdział 8 poświęcony jest propozycji autora, aby ideę programu edukacyjnego – tzw. program formalny (ang. *formal curriculum*) – w kształceniu tłumaczy poszerzyć o komponent pozaformalny (ang. *non-formal*). Chodzi nie tyle o włączenie inicjatyw czy projektów pozaformalnych jako uzupełnienia programu formalnego, ale raczej o takie sprzężenie obu aspektów programu, w którym będą się one wspierać. Program pozaformalny ma pomagać w realizacji zadań edukacyjnych, które nie są wykonalne w ramach kształcenia formalnego. Chodzi tu zarówno o autonomię uczącego się (por. Grow 1991 czy Hase, Kenyon 2000), jak i pełną realizację postulatu uczenia się sytuowanego (por. np. Vienne 2000). Także jeśli chodzi o możliwość współdecydowania o programie edukacji tłumaczy interesariuszy zewnętrznych (pracodawców, biur tłumaczeń, instytucji publicznych itp.), przestrzeń edukacji pozaformalnej może być znacznie bardziej atrakcyjna jako pole negocjacji działań edukacyjnych niż przestrzeń programu formalnego. Dzięki doświadczeniom zdobytym w interakcji w przestrzeni pozaformalnej organizatorzy kształcenia formalnego będą mogli wprowadzać usprawnienia w samym formalnym programie kształcenia, tak by optymalizować zakresy obu komponentów programowych.

Propozycjom Klimkowskiego towarzyszy opis dwóch inicjatyw edukacyjnych, który ma pokazać, jak autor dotychczas próbował realizować – choćby w stopniu cząstkowym – prezentowane w tym rozdziale – i w całej monografii – koncepcje. Szczegółowy ich opis wykracza poza zakres niniejszego streszczenia, dlatego autor ogranicza się jedynie do ich wymienienia.

Pierwszym – realizowanym w latach 2008–2011 – projektem edukacyjnym był projekt, w ramach którego studenci specjalizacji lingwistyka stosowana UMCS dokonywali tłumaczenia części serwisu internetowego Urzędu Miasta Lublin. Studenci zostali podzieleni na siedem zespołów i pracowali w tygodniowych „zmianach". Początek zmiany następował w połowie tygodnia, kiedy kierownik każdej grupy (student) otrzymywał z UM materiały do tłumaczenia. Potem następowała faza tłumaczenia, korekty własnej studentów-tłumaczy, korekty i kontroli kierownika. Kierownik odsyłał gotowy tekst do kontroli osoby odpowiedzialnej za jakość tekstu po stronie Urzędu Miasta Lublin (środa w następnym tygodniu). Obie wersje językowe trafiały na stronę UM w tym samym czasie.

Projekt opisywany skrótowo powyżej pozwolił autorowi poddać próbie założenia teoretyczne i metodyczne. Najważniejsze z nich to: zorganizowanie pozaformalnej przestrzeni dla projektu edukacji tłumaczy, praktyczne zastosowanie założeń tzw. kształcenia sytuowanego, wprowadzenie zmienionej perspektywy oceny uczestnictwa w projekcie (perspektywa biznesowa oceny projektu), nacisk na informację zwrotną obejmującą także zakresy wiedzy implicytnej i zachowań uczestników projektu, sprawdzenie, do jakiego stopnia możliwe jest przeniesienie (części) rozwiązań edukacyjnych stosowanych w projekcie na płaszczyznę programu formalnego.

Drugi ze wzmiankowanych projektów dotyczy 450-godzinnej specjalizacji dla studentów UMCS przygotowującej do zawodu tłumacza kabinowego. Autor monografii jest współautorem programu tej specjalizacji (wraz z prof. J. Żmudzkim), a w latach 2010–2012 sprawował funkcję kierownika merytorycznego programu (dobór kadry oraz specjalistów do praktyk, przygotowanie i przeprowadzenie procedury kwalifikacyjnej dla studentów, koordynacja realizacji programu, aspekty techniczne i logistyczne organizacji dwóch laboratoriów wspomagających kształcenie tłumaczy kabinowych z 14 i 12 stanowiskami każde, współpraca z Biurem Projektu). W latach 2010–2014 autor prowadził zajęcia „Uwarunkowania prawne i rynkowe pracy tłumacza".

Podobnie jak w przypadku poprzedniego projektu, tak i w tym autor podjął starania, aby zarówno na etapie tworzenia programu, jak i jego realizacji wdrażać (testować) założenia, które zaprezentował w streszczanej tu monografii. Oprócz aspektów omawianych już poprzednio, należy wspomnieć o znaczącym nacisku na kształtowanie mechanizmów samooceny u kształcących się tłumaczy, a w związku z tym na zmianę myślenia i prowadzących, i uczących się o sposobach i roli oceniania procesu i produktu tłumaczenia ustnego. Zajęcia, o których mowa w ostatnim zdaniu poprzedniego akapitu, miały na celu zainspirowanie studentów do tego, by uczynili przygotowanie się do tranzycji na rynek usług translatorskich, a także do skutecznego na nim funkcjonowania, zadaniem znaczącym – zgodnie z Rogersowskim pojęciem *significant learning*. Zaproszeni do prowadzenia praktyk specjaliści tłumacze (symulacje kilkugodzinnych konferencji organizowane dwa–trzy razy w każdym z czterech semestrów programu) umożliwiali praktyczne zastosowanie idei polifonii (przełamywania „hegemonii głosów" w przestrzeni edukacyjnej).

Monografię kończą uwagi podsumowujące, z których najistotniejsze przedstawiono poniżej:

1. Potrzeba kształcenia akademickich nauczycieli translacji, choć podkreślana od połowy lat 90. XX wieku, przynajmniej w środowiskach akademickich znanych autorowi jest nierealizowana.

2. Potrzeba przeniesienia akcentów w edukacji (w narracji edukacyjnej) z „realizacji procedur nauczania" czy „realizacji materiału dydaktycznego" na „negocjowane konstruowanie wiedzy poprzez interakcję między uczącym się a organizującym środowisko uczenia się", a także zastąpienie kategorii „realizacji materiału dydaktycznego" kategorią „wykonywania zadań translatorskich".

3. Sukces takiego krytycznego przeakcentowania zależy od sprawności i działań komunikacyjnych wszystkich interesariuszy programów edukacyjnych.

4. W przenoszeniu akcentów mogą pomóc inicjatywy pozaformalne w edukacji tłumaczy. Mają one na celu pomóc nauczycielom i studentom stworzyć środowisko pracy edukacyjnej, które umożliwia sprawniejszą realizację zawodowego kształcenia sytuowanego. W tego typu inicjatywy łatwiej także zaangażować zewnętrznych wobec uniwersytetu interesariuszy procesu kształcenia: specjalistów tłumaczy, przedstawicieli grupy klientów, potencjalnych pracodawców itd.

5. Potrzeba, by dzisiejsze „światy równoległe" (por. Mourshed *et al.* 2014) studentów, kadr uniwersyteckich i pracodawców/klientów stworzyły współdzieloną przestrzeń negocjowania potrzeb edukacyjnych. Przestrzeń ta stanie się rzeczywiście współdzieloną, kiedy każda ze stron będzie miała „głos" – siłę wpływania na realne rozwiązania edukacyjne.

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LANGUAGES IN CONTACT VOL. 3

Konrad Klimkowski takes anthropocentric social constructivism as the foundation for the approach to translator didactics he proposes. Also, he finds it justified to complement this foundation with the notion of „empowerment", proposed by Kiraly (2000) [...] Discussing the selected theories of education and the opportunities for their application to translator and interpreter education, the author points out differences between andragogy and pedagogy, presents various aspects of learner motivation and explores diverse conceptions of interpersonal relations in the educational context [...] the issue of increasing learner autonomy and (self)control, the role of workplace pedagogy [...] The author tries to find empirical grounds for the implementation of his holistic translation and interpreting curriculum. [...] Klimkowski suggests that this curriculum be defined as a shared space between the formal and non-formal educational actions [...] and analyses factors that need to be taken into account in designing non-formal educational environments. He also presents the results from his case study [...] to show how non-formal initiatives can be applied in educational practice. [...] This is an undeniably innovative work. I am convinced that it can bring benefits not only to researchers of translator and interpreter education, but also to translation and interpreting students and teachers.

Excerpts from the publication review
by prof. dr habil. Franciszek Grucza

dr Konrad Klimkowski is affiliated with the Institute of English Studies KUL. His research interests concentrate around translator and interpreter education, with the main focus on anthropocentric, social constructivist, holistic and career-oriented approaches. In research and teaching practice, he promotes non-formal educational projects as a vital educational resource. Presently, in charge of a newly constructed translation and interpreting specialization at the Institute of English Studies KUL.

ISBN: 978-83-60097-31-1