IN SEARCH OF EFFECTIVE TRAINING MODELS FOR MOZAMBICAN TRANSLATORS AND INTERPRETERS

by

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DECLARATION

Student number: 53439325

I declare that IN SEARCH OF EFFECTIVE TRAINING MODELS FOR MOZAMBIAN TRANSLATORS AND INTERPRETERS is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at UNISA for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

______________________________  January 2018
Armando Adriano Magaia  Date
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Nimuxuva njhani Mamana!
Ahatle afamba anisiya wusvanga...
“Hikusa nambi nsinya wu ni dumbo.
Loko wutsremiwa, wutatlhela whuluwa.
Mahluke ya wone matatama makula.”
Atamuvitana, kutani atamuhlamula.
(Yob 14:7,14,15)

——

How I miss Mom!
She went away so early…
“For there is hope even for a tree.
If it is cut down, it will sprout again,
And its twigs will continue to grow.”
He will call her, and she will answer Him.
(Job 14:7, 14, 15)

——

Quantas saudades da Mamã!
Ela partiu tão cedo…
“Pois até mesmo para uma árvore há esperança.
Se for cortada, brotará outra vez
E os seus raminhos continuarão a crescer.”
Ele a chamará e ela Lhe responderá.
(Jó 14:7, 14, 15)
Abstract

Although Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM) has the longest history of BA Honours level translator and interpreter training in Mozambique, the university still lacks an effective model for the development of translation and interpreting competence in students. To address this problem, the present study seeks to find a practical model for the training of Mozambican professional translators and interpreters at BA Honours level that can guide the design of conducive curricula. The critical question the study attempts to answer is: What model for developing translation and interpreting competence could lead to an effective curriculum design that best meets the employment needs of Mozambican students? To this end, the study has been designed as action-research because this design enables better understanding and improvement of training processes (Cravo & Neves 2007). Three data collection tools are used to generate both qualitative and quantitative data from over 120 participants, namely: (i) a survey, (ii) an English translation test and (iii) a sample of archived Portuguese translations produced by former students. The survey findings suggest the need for a model whereby translators and interpreters are trained simultaneously within the same programme. Moreover, the results of macro- and micro-textual analysis show that, overall, the translation competence of former students is poor, suggesting that the current curriculum at UEM is failing to produce BA Honours translation/interpreting professionals. The proposed solution would be a curriculum based on a new integrated translation and interpreting competence development model with the following four pillars: communicative competence, general knowledge, strategic competence and service provision.

Keywords: translator and interpreter training, training model, curriculum design, translation competence, interpreting competence, translation and interpreting studies, translation error analysis, translation quality assessment.
ISISHWANKATELEO (ISIXHOSA)

Nangona iyunivesithi iEduardo Mondlane University (UEM) inembali kwizifundo zesidanga esiphakamileyo (BA Honours) kuqeqesho lwabaguquleli neetoliki eMozambique, le yunivesithi ayikabi namzekelo unguwo nosebenzayo ekuphuhliseni izakhono zokuguquula nokutolika kubafundi bayo. Ukukhawulelana nale ngxaki olu phando lujolise ekufumaneni owona mzekelo usebenzayo onokusetyenziswa nonokuthi ube sisikhokelo kuyilo Iwekharityhulam yesidanga esiphakamileyo iBA Honours esithatha iminyaka emine ekuqeqesheni abafundi babe ngabaguquleli neetoliki eziphume izandla zaseMozambique. Umbuko ongundoqo nozanywa ukuphendulwa lolu phando ngulo: Ngowuphi umzekelo wokuphuhlisa izakhono zokuguqulela nokutolika onokukhokelela kuyilo Iwekharityhulam esebenzayo nefezekisa imfuno zengqesho zabafundi baseMozambique? Kungoko olu phando luye lwasebenzisa indlela yokuphanda ekuthiwa yi-\emph{action research} eyenza kube lula ukuqonda nokuphucula iinkqubo zoqeqesho (Cravo & Neves 2007). Kuye kwasetyenziswa iindlela ezintathu zophando ukufumana ulwazi kubathathi-nxaxheba abali-120 ezizezi: (1) uvavanyo lwerezimvo, (ii) uvavanyo lwenguqulelo yesicatshulwa esibhalwe ngesiNgesi kunye (iii) neenguqulelo zesiPhuthukezi ezenziwe ngabafundi bangaphambili ezigciniweyo. Iziphumo zeemvavanyo zezimvo zibonisa ukuba kufuneka kukho umzekelo onokusetyenziswa ekuqeqesheni abaguquleli neetoliki ngaxeshanye phantsi kwenkqubo enye. Ukongeza koku, iziphumo zohlalutyo lwesicatshulwa zibonise ukuba izakhono zokuguqulela zabafundi bangaphambili azikhо mgangathweni, nto leyo ethetha ukuba ikharityhulam esetyenziswa e\emph{UEM} iyasilela ekukhupheni abaguquleli neetoliki ezinobuchule neziziiincutshe. Isisombululo esicetyiswayo ke ngoko, sesokuba kubekho ikharityhulam ehlangeneyo eza kuphuhlisa izakhono zabaguquleli neetoliki esekelwe kwintsika ezine ezizezi: isakhono sonxibelewano, ulwazi jikelele, isakhono sobsuchule kunye nokunikezwa kweenkonzo.
IQOQA (ISIZULU)

Nakuba iNyuvesi i-Eduardo Mondlane University (i-UEM) isinomlando omude kakhulu wokuqeqesha abahumushi notolika ezingeni leziqu ze-BA Honours eMozambique, le nyuvesi ayikabi nayo indlela esebenzayo yokuthuthukisa amakhono ezitshudeni kwezokuhumusha nokutolika. Ukubhekana nale nkinga lolu cwaningo kuhloswe ngalo ukuthola indlela esebenzayo yokuqeqesha ongoti babahumushi notolika baseMozambique ezingeni leziqu ze-BA Honours (iziqu zeminyaka emine) ezingahlaha indlela yokuklama uhlolo lwezifundo olungasiza kule nkinga. Umbuzo omkhulu lolu cwaningo oluzama ukuwuphendula ngothi: iyiphi indlela yokuthuthukisa amakhono okuhumusha nokutolika engaholela ekuklanyweni kohlelo lwezifundo olungahlangabezana nezidingo zokuqasheka kwezitshudeni zaseMozambique? Ukufeza le nhloso, lolu cwaningo lusebenzisa uhlolo lokucwaninga olubizwa nge-action-research ngoba luyasiza ekuqondeni kangcono nasekuthuthukiseni inqubo yokuqeqesha (Cravo & Neves 2007). Kusetshenziswa amathuluzi amathathu okuqoqa iminingingobunjalo neminingingobunungi evela kubabambiqhaza abangaphezu kwabayi-120, okuyilokhu: (i) ngohlolocwaningo (i-survey), (ii) ngesivivinyo sesihumusho sesiNgisi (iii) nangesampula lezihumusho zesiPutukezi zabafundi baphambilini. Okutholakale kulo uhollocwango kuyeza isidingo sendlela yokuqeqesha abahumushi notolika kanye kanye ohlelweni lokufundiswa olufanayo. Ngaphezu kwalokho, imiphumela yokuhlaziywa kwemibhalo nezimo eyabhalwa ngaphansi kwazo ibonisa ukuthi, ngokubanzi, amakhono okuhumusha abafundi baphambilini awamahle, okuyinkomba yokuthi uhlolo lwezifundo lwamanje e-UEM luyehluleka ukukhiqiza ongoti bokuhumusha nokutolika ezingeni le-BA Honours. Isixazululo esiphakanyiswayo ngesendlela entsha esuselewa ekuthuthukiseni amakhono edidiyela ukuhumusha nokutolika, enalezi zinsika ezine ezilandelayo: amakhono kwezokuxhumana, ulwazi ngokubanzi, ikhono lokusebenzisa amasu, nokuhlinzekwa kwezidingo.
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**EVIDENCE FOR A NEW TRANSLATOR AND INTERPRETER TRAINING MODEL**

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ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS

CEFR  Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CI    Consecutive Interpreting
DTS   Descriptive Translation Studies
EHEA  European Higher Education Area
FLCS  Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences of Eduardo Mondlane University
IS    Interpreting Studies
IT    Information Technology
MS    Misspelling
PP    Poor Punctuation
SI    Simultaneous Interpreting
SL    Source Language
SLOE  Source-Language Originated Error
ST    Source Text
TC    Translation Competence
TE    Translation Error
T&I   Translation and Interpreting
TIS   Translation and Interpreting Studies
TL    Target Language
TLOE  Target-Language Originated Error
TS    Translation Studies
TT    Target Text
UEM   Universidade Eduardo Mondlane (Eduardo Mondlane University)
UNISA University of South Africa
WLC   Wrong Lexical Choice
CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1 Chapter overview

Following the background of the study and problem statement, this chapter presents the rationale and aims of the study, as well as the research questions. Also presented is the theoretical framework for this study, in which some key concepts in Translation Studies are defined. Next, a case is made for an African model of translation and interpreting competence development. This is followed by the definition of the following key terms: model, curriculum and competence-based curriculum, before a summary description of the methodology used in this study, after which the delimitations, assumptions and significance of the study are presented. The chapter ends with a section describing the organisation of this study.

1.2 Background of the study

Although Mozambique’s translator and interpreter training history dates back to the late seventies, when the Language Institute of Maputo offered intensive training for translators, interpreters and tourist guides, it was not until 2001 that a full-fledged BA Honours (Licenciatura)\(^1\) in Translation and Interpreting (T&I) was launched at Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM)\(^2\). Ever since, the course has been popular among students having a knack for languages. Prior to that year, the only option available at UEM for students speaking English or French was to attend a BA Honours in Linguistics, which gave them few opportunities to develop a career in these languages. The new T&I programme was initially

\(^1\) Unlike what happens in other countries such as South Africa, in Mozambique BA Honours degree, or licenciatura, is an undergraduate level, usually taught in four years.

\(^2\) Official name in Portuguese: Universidade Eduardo Mondlane, henceforth referred to as UEM.
designed to offer three language combinations, namely English-Portuguese, French-Portuguese and Bantu-Portuguese, but the latter has never been implemented.

The UEM T&I course programme was changed in 2009 when UEM set out to implement the Bologna Process. The Bologna Process is “an agreement among 45 European countries to harmonize their systems of higher education and create … a European Higher Education Area by 2010” (World Education Services 2007, 3), but which was subsequently adopted by many other non-European universities. The implementation of the Bologna Process at UEM meant that the training programme now had to be completed in 6 semesters, or three years, with a total of 180 credits. The total number of modules increased from 32 to 34 and the same happened to the total number of contact hours, which rose from 2,176 hours to 2,368 hours. A major change to the programme was the phasing out of the Interpreting component to give room to various new modules considered important for this new course format. This decision meant that students would only be trained to work with written text translations.

This move, which affected not only the T&I course but also all the other courses offered at UEM, was not without its share of criticism from various sectors of Mozambican society, which found the training period too short to produce qualified graduates. For instance, the majority contended that Mozambique, particularly UEM, was adopting a European higher education model without having met the requisite conditions. Moreover, potential employers showed some contempt towards the quality of education that would now be offered by UEM and other Mozambican universities, and demanded more time for training in order to accept the newly trained job candidates.

Significantly, the unfavourable reactions prompted by the Bologna-influenced curricular reform in Mozambique are comparable to those reported by Rico (2010) on the implementation of the Bologna Process in Europe. She observes that “given the sheer number and affiliations of the educational actors with a

---

3 “Bantu” was chosen as an umbrella term at UEM to refer to Mozambican indigenous languages.
stake in the reform process..., the first stages of the reform have prompted a wide range of reactions” (2010, 91). Moreover, she cites critics who viewed the new curricula simply as compressed versions of previous longer programmes, which would “undermine the quality of the degree’ and, ultimately, jeopardize the employability of the new graduates” (Rico 2010, 91).

Unsurprisingly, in 2010, UEM backed down on its decision to implement the Bologna Process in the initially envisaged fashion. However, it was faithful to the spirit of the Bologna model in that it maintained the competence and credit-based course design. Therefore, it slightly adapted its Bologna-based curriculum in such a way that its duration could again be stretched to four years. Nevertheless, its decision to phase out the Interpreting component from the BA Honours degree prevailed. Moreover, the modules chosen for the programme were simply stretched across four years, only adding a few modules which some considered essential, even though no empirical study had been conducted in support of this conclusion. Consequently, the current translator training programme consists of 37 modules totalling 2,624 contact hours and 240 credits – the highest increase ever in total workload and number of credits – divided into 8 semesters. Therefore, this adjustment purely and simply affected the course duration, and did nothing to improve the UEM translator and interpreter training curriculum.

Against this backdrop, the next section describes the research problem this study is concerned with.

1.3 Problem statement

Even though UEM has the longest history of BA Honours level translator and interpreter training in Mozambique, the university still lacks an effective model for the training of Mozambican professional translators and interpreters. This is due to the fact that there is currently no specific translation competence development model in place at UEM. The absence of one such model at UEM has resulted in a flawed curriculum design approach that, by and large, reflects a one-size-fits-all mind-set. For example, UEM currently has a compulsory core curriculum comprising many modules whose applicability to translation or
interpreting is questionable. On the other hand, most of the so-called optional modules now on offer at UEM contribute little or nothing to developing translation competence, let alone interpreting competence. However, the greatest proof of all that there is something wrong with either the model or the curriculum in place at UEM is found in available research conducted by the university's own researchers, which corroborates the general perception that the problems of UEM students lie in poor communicative competence in English and in Portuguese alike (See Siopa et al. 2003; Gonçalves and Siopa 2005; Felimone 2007; Companhia 2009; Magaia 2014).

Notwithstanding, while the studies so far conducted at UEM are praiseworthy for shedding light on important factors affecting the development of translation competence in UEM students, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no study has, as yet, been conducted specifically to find an appropriate model for the training of translators and interpreters, with the aim of developing a practical BA Honours level curriculum in Mozambique. This problem becomes more evident when one looks at the T&I course curriculum in place at UEM since 2001 both in its original design and its mutated format. From an observer's viewpoint, the UEM curriculum either is language-based or academisizing, rather than professionalizing in its approach to translator and interpreter training. To tackle this problem, there is a pressing need for a study that can investigate possible practical models – and, hopefully, an effective curriculum – for the training of professional translators and interpreters at BA Honours level in Mozambique as well as in other countries in Africa and beyond.

Following the presentation of the research problem to be tackled by this study, below is the rationale for conducting this research.

### 1.4 Rationale

There are a number of reasons why research aimed at finding an appropriate model for the training of professional translators and interpreters at UEM is needed. Firstly, an effective training model has the potential to guide efforts aimed at producing an adequate curriculum for educating Mozambican translators and interpreters. For the past four years, UEM has been trying, in
vain, to review its curriculum. It may be argued that one fundamental reason for failing to improve this curriculum is the lack of a clear guiding model outlining the main competences that a translator or an interpreter should have.

Secondly, and closely related to the first reason above, the researcher's awareness of his role in curriculum development at UEM has motivated him to embark on this study. Being a UEM alumnus and having been a lecturer in that university for over 10 years has enabled him to get fully acquainted with the T&I course programme. Therefore, the researcher could not shrug off his responsibility as a curriculum evaluator. According to one of Oliva's (2001, 38) ten axioms of curriculum development, “Curriculum development is a never-ending process.” Moreover, “Teachers have the responsibility of evaluating both the curriculum and instruction” (Oliva 2001, 56), as “effective curriculum evaluation begins in the classroom” (Henson 1995, 293). In addition, a teacher’s role is not limited to simply observing and evaluating the curriculum in the classroom because he/she is also “a curriculum worker who engages in curriculum planning in varying degrees, on different occasions” (Oliva 2001, 16).

This view is shared by McKernan (1996, 53), who observes that “Research by teachers can provide a curriculum knowledge in the same way that research by mathematicians and sociologists provides a basis for teaching those disciplines”. He adds that such teacher-driven research “will yield up new curriculum knowledge and contribute to the construction of new understandings and more sophisticated theories of curricularizing” (McKernan 1996, 53). Therefore, this study can be viewed as the researcher’s own modest attempt to contribute to the ongoing curriculum reform process at UEM.

Third, UEM is currently following a questionable policy according to which students should only practice translating from foreign languages (e.g. English) into Portuguese. This policy may be justified by the widely held – but likewise strongly disputed – belief that it is best if one translates from his/her L2 into his/her L1. Also, in the case of UEM, it has been argued that, since the students have difficulty in producing acceptable Portuguese texts, due to their African mother language interference, it would be even more difficult for them to produce good translations in English as a foreign language. However, there is enough evidence in favour of translating or interpreting into one’s L2 or foreign
language (see Campbell 1998, Rueckert 2011, IAPTI’s Ethics Committee 2015). For example, Kiraly (1995, 110) pinpoints the cause of poor L₂ translations when he says: “A flaw in most translation programs is the lack of emphasis on reading and using parallel texts in the L₂”. To solve this problem, he suggests establishing “curricula to compensate for incompletely developed L₂ communicative competence by emphasizing conscious strategy and the creation of a hypersensitive translation monitor” (Kiraly 1995, 110). Hence, instead of completely avoiding the inconveniences of training students to translate or interpret into L₂ (or foreign language), it seems that a robust training model should seek ways to offer this training.

Fourth, the particularities of Mozambican students and of the translation and interpreting market in Mozambique make a study such as this one timely. Unlike many translation students elsewhere, the bulk of Mozambican students are often trained to translate from and into two European languages where neither language may be their mother tongue. This happens because Portuguese is the only official language and the only medium of instruction for the vast majority, while English is a foreign language. This is a major disadvantage considering that, at least officially, students start to learn English at grade 6. This problem is compounded by the fact that, apart from the classroom environment, students do not often have any opportunity to practise and improve their English. Thus, the initial conditions for doing a university course in translation or interpreting are at best minimal, which calls for a different training model from those used in European universities, for example. Moreover, the drive for seeking training at university for most Mozambicans is because no formal training is available at lower levels in this country, while translation and interpreting services from English and into Portuguese and vice versa are in great demand.

Fifth, an adequate translation and interpreting competence development model could help UEM to design a conducive curriculum for educating professional interpreters at BA Honours level. As has been mentioned (see section 1.2 above), UEM has not offered any BA Honours level training in interpreting since 2009, allegedly because it would be difficult to train students to be good interpreters in four years at the same time as they are being trained to be translators. This has resulted in a training vacuum at this level, as training in
interpreting is only offered at MA level at the Pedagogical University. All of this suggests a lack of an appropriate training model and, therefore, a study such as this one could contribute to a solution.

Finally, if an effective training model could be found, it would potentially benefit the students by endowing them with the balanced translating and interpreting skills needed for the labour market. It is widely known that UEM translation graduates, as well as scores of other self-trained individuals, usually apply for a government licence allowing them to act as sworn translators and interpreters. Such a licence is currently granted based on academic or language proficiency certificates rather than on any specific translation or interpreting aptitude tests. In contrast, a credible training programme at UEM could ensure that its graduates are truly prepared to live up to the tasks of a sworn translator and interpreter based on actual competences rather than on a simple university degree. In other words, an effective training model can lead to a work-integrated approach to translator and interpreter education.

Following this brief presentation of the main reasons for conducting this research, the next section presents the aims of the study.

1.5 Aims of the study

This section focuses on the overall goal and specific objectives of this study.

1.5.1 Goal

The overriding goal of this study is to propose a new integrated translation and interpreting competence development model for the training of Mozambican professional translators and interpreters at BA Honours level, which can provide the foundation for building an improved translator and interpreter training curriculum at UEM, with the potential to enhance graduate employability.
1.5.2 Objectives

Specifically, this study pursues the following objectives:

1. To assess the effectiveness of the current UEM translation curriculum in leading to the development of translation and interpreting competence as perceived by stakeholders (students, lecturers, professional translators/interpreters and potential clients) and uncover the reasons for such perceptions.

2. To propose an integrated translation and interpreting competence development model that can provide a framework for designing conducive translator and interpreter training curricula.

In connection with such objectives, this research seeks to answer important questions on translator and interpreter training. These are presented below.

1.6 Study questions

The main research question this study is expected to answer is:

- What model for developing translation and interpreting competence could lead to an effective curriculum design that best meets the employment needs of Mozambican students?

It should be pointed out that, in line with the goal of this study, the question above focuses on finding a model for developing translation and interpreting competence. In this study, a model is seen as of paramount importance because it can inspire the design of appropriate curricula for developing translation and interpreting competence in university students. Therefore, the question is not what curriculum, but what model can lead to success in training professional translators and interpreters right at the first level of university education. Moreover, there are two sub-questions which should contribute towards answering the main question:

1. How do stakeholders (lecturers, students, professional translators/interpreters and clients) assess the current UEM translation/interpreting
curriculum so as to lead to the development of better translation and interpreting competence?

2. What are the stakeholders’ opinions about training translators and interpreters under:
   a) a single T&I programme,
   b) two separate T&I programmes; or
   c) a multi-competence Language Science programme?

The reason for the second question, particularly, is because some lecturers at UEM have argued in favour of a training model where translation and interpreting competencies are developed simultaneously under one single programme, while others are in favour of developing these competencies separately, and yet others think it best to offer a general Language Science course covering translation and interpreting among several competencies such as language teaching, secretarial skills, language revision and proofreading. Thus, the answers to the study questions will show the path that should be followed in order to maximize the training of competent translators and interpreters.

In the next section, the researcher provides the theoretical framework for this study. The aim of this section is to present key concepts and definitions on which this study is based.

1.7 Theoretical framework

As suggested by the title of this research, there is a pressing need to find an adequate model for training professional translators and interpreters at BA Honours level in Mozambique. This can be made possible by defining a specific translation and interpreting competence development model. Therefore, to achieve the aims of this study, it is crucial to first identify the discipline making up the context of the study. Likewise, it is important to understand the main concepts used throughout this study. Consequently, a summary review of Translation Studies and Interpreting Studies is provided below, highlighting the focus of this study, followed by a description of some critical issues found in this discipline. Finally, the main concepts used in this study are defined.
1.7.1 Translation Studies and Interpreting Studies

Translation is among the most studied phenomena in the history of humankind, having been “a complex subject of human reflection, one ridden with contradiction, from time immemorial” (Wilss 1982, 27). Ever since translation has existed, people have been trying to find a suitable definition for it, since doing so could shed light on how one ought to translate. More importantly, finding an appropriate definition for translation would, in theory, make it relatively easier to answer the question about how translation can – or should – be taught. In the quest to understand what translation is about, and how it should be done, one could virtually start from any point in history, since, as Wills (1982, 27) notes, nobody knows “exactly when preoccupation with the manifold problems of translation began”.

Therefore, bearing in mind the overall goal of this study, the review of the history of Translation Studies (TS) begins in the early 1970s of the 20th century, a period which saw the emergence of TS as “a new academic field, at once international and interdisciplinary” (Venuti 2004, 1). This was arguably the most significant period of translation research history, even though the stage was set in the previous decade.

According to Hatim and Munday (2004, 7), certain key issues like equivalence and the notion of translatability had become central to translation research in the 1960s and 1970s. Gentzler (2001, 77) adds that during the early 1970s there was an opposition between two modes of research in this field: the literary and the “scientific” approaches. It was during this period that “a handful of mostly younger scholars from the Netherlands and Belgium” intervened (Gentzler 2001, 77). Among such scholars was James Holmes, who “distanced himself from ‘theories’ of translation, which often merely reflect the attitude and approach of the writer, and from ‘sciences’ of translation, which may not be suited for an investigation of literary texts” (Gentzler 2001, 77). Dissatisfied with “diverse terms…used in writings dealing with translating and translations”, such as the art of translation, the craft of translation, principles of translation and translatology, Holmes (2004, 182-3) coined the term “Translation Studies”. This
term is generally accepted as providing a common framework for investigating translation and interpreting.

Holmes’ contribution has been praised for putting “forward an overall framework, describing what translation studies covers” (Munday 2001, 10). In addition, Toury (1995, 9-10) observes that

the main merit of Holmes’ program has always lain in its convincing notion of division; not as a mere necessary evil, that is, but as a basic principle of organization, implying as it clearly does a proper division of labour between various kinds of scholarly activity” (emphasis in original).

Figure 1 below illustrates the main applications of TS as mapped by Toury (1995, 10).

**Figure 1: The Holmes’ basic ‘map’ of Translation Studies**

Undoubtedly, Holmes contributed to translation research in ways that would greatly influence future research around the globe. It is noteworthy that Holmes (2004, 184) suggests that TS is an empirical discipline, whose aim is to conduct both pure and applied research. As he puts it,

translation studies thus has two main objectives: (1) to describe the phenomena of translating and translations(s) as they manifest themselves in the world of our experience, and (2) to establish general principles by means of which these phenomena can be explained and predicted (Holmes 2004, 184).

For this particular study, the true significance of Holmes’ contribution is the fact that he insightfully broadens the scope and applications of Translation Studies
by identifying teaching as one of “the applications that extend beyond the limits of the discipline itself” (Holmes 2004, 189). He further distinguishes two types of translation teaching, one applied to foreign-language teaching and foreign-language acquisition testing and the other applied to the training of professional translators (Holmes 2004, 189).

The above-mentioned applications of TS distinguish it as an academic field, or discipline, but other scholars (e.g. Snell-Hornby 1994; Hansen 2006; Sun 2014) have taken a step further by considering it an interdiscipline. For example, Sun (2014, 173) states that “TS has been borrowing from a whole range of disciplines including linguistics, cultural studies, philosophy, historical studies, literary studies, anthropology, psychology, cognitive science, and sociology, among others”. This author notes that TS “has also borrowed from various social theories (or schools of thought) such as feminist theory, critical theory, deconstructionism, postcolonial theory and social constructionism” (Sun 2014, 173), all of which adds evidence that it is an interdiscipline.

Yet, authors such as Odacioglu and Kocturk (2015, 18) go further when they observe that:

Translation Studies is currently thought to show a transition process from interdisciplinarity to transdisciplinarity because of the integration of ICT into the translation field, the effect of technologies tools on Translation Studies and the presence of the Localization industry in general because all of these contribute to the transgression of former borders in the translation field.

It can, then, be concluded that, even though TS today is accepted as a discipline, its interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary nature can allow several approaches to researching this field.

However, despite his commendable contribution, in his initial proposition, Holmes viewed interpreting as simply one of many objects of TS and thus saw “no need to designate it as a separate (sub)disciplinary entity” (Pochhacker and Shlesinger 2002, 3). Interpreting Studies (IS) as a discipline eventually emerged in the 1990s, sharing the aims with “its parent discipline, namely to describe the phenomenon of interpreting and interpretation(s) and to establish general explanatory and predictive principles” (Pochhacker and Shlesinger 2002, 3-4).
Showing the methodological divide between TS and IS, Kalina (2000, 15) points out that “early interpreting studies did not regard translation as very helpful”. By the same token, this scholar observes: “Translation studies, on its part, has not undertaken too many efforts to integrate interpreting into the models that it developed” (Kalina 2000, 15). However, the scholar shows an umbilical cord between TS and IS when she observes that “In the framework of T(translation) and I(nterpreting), and especially in a general theory of translation ..., interpreting and translation are regarded as two components or sub-disciplines of one single discipline” (Kalina 2000, 15). Perhaps what this means is that effective translator and interpreter training begins with the recognition of the existence of a new academic field called Translation and Interpreting Studies.

Following this broad introduction to Translation Studies, the next section focuses on the place of translator and interpreter training in Translation Studies.

1.7.2 Translator and Interpreter Training

As mentioned in section 1.7.1 above, the two main foci of TS are pure and applied research. This study falls in the applied research field of TS, as suggested by Holmes (2004, 189).

According to Homes (2004, 189), translator training has raised some key questions “that have to do primarily with teaching methods, testing techniques, and curriculum planning”. The author thus suggests that research in TS should come up with answers to questions regarding effective methods for teaching translation. In addition, TS research should shed light on effective testing techniques to be used in translator training. Yet, it can be argued that these crucial objectives would be unattainable if an appropriate curriculum did not exist. Therefore, Holmes (2004, 189) clearly shows that curriculum design investigation is also a central theme in TS. This specific application of TS can be seen in Figure 2 below, based on Munday (2001, 13).
Williams and Chesterman (2002, 25) agree with Holmes when they observe that curriculum design “relates to the content of translator-training programmes”, seeking answers to such questions as: “which elements are essential/desirable in (which) translator-training programmes and why? What is the relative importance (in which context) of training mother-tongue competence, subject-field knowledge, familiarity with translation software and so on?” They add that “Another hotly debated topic is whether translator training should take place at undergraduate or postgraduate level” (Williams and Chesterman (2002, 25). Answers to these questions can be found through research aimed at enhancing translator training, and curriculum planning seems an initial crucial step.

Against this background, this study is grounded in both Translation Studies and Interpreting Studies. In view of the intrinsic relationship between these two fields, the focus of this study (see figure 3 below) is curriculum design under one single field: Translation and Interpreting Studies (TIS).
It should be pointed out that the term “Translation and Interpreting Studies”, or “TIS”, has been used to bridge any perceived gap between TS and IS. This term will be used in this study to account for the dual scope of this investigation. Furthermore, curriculum design, or planning, is closely related to the aim of this study, which is to find a model for developing translation and interpreting competence in BA Honours students. Such a model can shed light on the most important elements of a translator and interpreter training programme, as suggested by Williams and Chesterman (2002, 25).

The next section provides summary definitions of some common concepts that will be touched upon in this study. Detailed definitions will be provided in Chapter 2.

1.7.3 Translation and Interpreting

At first sight, there may appear to be no need to define the concepts “translation” (or translating) and “interpretation” (or interpreting) separately as the former might be viewed as including the latter. That is why De Groot (1997, 25) states that the “term translation is used both in a broad and in a more narrow sense” (emphasis in original). In the first sense, translation “refers to all operations where an SL unit is turned into a TL unit, irrespective of the modality of input and output (writing, speech, sign language) (De Groot 1997, 25).” In the second
sense, the term translation “refers only to the activity of reformulating written SL text into written TL text” (De Groot 1997, 25).

Hinting at the methodological process involved in translation, Catford (1965, 20) defines it as “The replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)”. For Larson (1984, 3), “translation consists of transferring the meaning of the source language into the receptor language”. Along the same lines, Newmark (1998, 5) says that translation is “rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text”. In everyday use, people in general use the term translation in these two senses.

Notwithstanding, to help clarify the different roles involved in translating as an oral mode of communication, as opposed to a written one, scholars have consistently used the term interpreting or interpretation. Gile (1998, 40) defines interpreting as “the oral translation of oral discourse, as opposed to the oral translation of written texts”. Along these lines, Seleskovitch (1978, in Roy 2002, 345-6) states: “Translation converts a written text into another written text, while interpretation converts an oral message into another oral message”.

However, some have found this definition incomplete for excluding the type of interpreting which involves deaf communities. A more complete definition might be the one proposed by Brislin (1976, in Roy 2002, 346), who says interpreting is “the transfer of thoughts and ideas from one language to another, whether the languages are in written or oral form…or whether one or both languages is based on signs, as with sign languages of the deaf”. Pöchhacker and Shlesinger (2002, 3-4) expand and refine this understanding of interpreting when they define it “most broadly as interlingual, intercultural oral or signed mediation, enabling communication between individuals or groups who do not share, or do not choose to use, the same language(s)”. 
1.7.4 Translation competence

Despite a growing interest in the definition and development of translation competence over the years, there is still no uniform definition or model of translation competence (Orozco and Albir 2002, 375). As a result, various authors have proposed converging and diverging models based on what they believe to be the components of translation competence. For instance, although he does use the term “translation competence”, Gile (1995, 4-5) suggests that effective training of translators and interpreters would be possible if similar requirements were met. According to this author, translators and interpreters must have:

1. good passive knowledge of their passive working languages
2. good command of their active working language (s)
3. adequate world knowledge
4. good command of the principles and techniques of translation (Gile (1995, 20)).

The above model can be summarized as consisting of the following three components: (1) linguistic knowledge, (2) extra-linguistic knowledge and (3) knowledge about translation.

Comparably, Presas (2000, 28) defines translation competence as “the system of underlying kinds of knowledge, whether declarative or operative, which are needed for translation”. This scholar argues that, during the translation process, the translator effectively mobilises various kinds of knowledge and skills, namely:

1. Knowledge of the two languages;
2. Knowledge of the real world and of the material;
3. The ability to use tools (e.g. dictionaries and other sources of documentation); and
4. Cognitive qualities (e.g. creativity and attention, capacity to resolve specific problems) (Presas 2000, 28).

Significantly, while Presas (2000, 28) recognizes the importance of linguistic knowledge and world knowledge as does Gile (1995, 4-5), she takes a step
further when she adds (1) the importance of knowledge of the material a translator is translating, (2) the ability to use tools and (3) cognitive qualities.

On the other hand, Schäffner (2000, 146) argues that translation competence is “a complex notion which involves an awareness of and conscious reflection on all the relevant factors for the production of a target text (TT) that appropriately fulfils its specified function for its target addressees”. Schäffner (2000, 146) further provides the following list of specific competences involved in the translation process:

1. Linguistic competence of the languages concerned;
2. Cultural competence, i.e. general knowledge about historical, political, economic, cultural, etc. aspects in the respective countries;
3. Textual competence, i.e. knowledge of regularities and conventions of texts, genres, text types;
4. Domain/subject specific competence, i.e. knowledge of the relevant subject, the area of expertise;
5. (Re)search competence; i.e. a general strategy competence whose aim is the ability to resolve problems specific to the cross-cultural transfer of texts; and
6. Transfer competence, i.e. ability to produce target texts that satisfy the demands of the translation task.

Schäffner's model is self-explanatory and has the potential to indicate possible pathways to developing translation competence. More importantly, it is comprehensive and spells out what each component entails. Other scholars (e.g. Mason 1998; Neubert 2000; Nord 2005; Kelly 2005; PACTE Group 2005; and Göpferich 2009) have likewise proposed multi-component models, all of which have, in one way or another, influenced the design of translator training curricula around the globe.

Nevertheless, not all scholars believe translation competence is made up of multiple components. For example, Shreve (1997, 120) defines translation competence as “a specialized form of communicative competence” and argues that it “is both knowing about translation and about knowing how to do translation”. From this definition one can glean that translation competence
requires more than having theoretical knowledge of translation or even the ability to describe the translation process. As Shreve (1997, 121) puts it, translation competence “is about producing translations that are well formed, referentially accurate with respect to source texts, and socially appropriate in their cultural contexts”. Therefore, translation competence is not some vague concept or knowledge that can be demonstrated intellectually – it requires the production of some tangible products, i.e., acceptable translations.

It is quite significant that Shreve (1997, 121) suggests that translation competence requires a good amount of practicing when he says: “Not everyone can translate; those that learn how to translate do so by acquiring a history of translation experience”. Again, one can glean from this suggestion that a curriculum might fail to develop translation competence in students if it does not provide enough time for practicing translation.

By way of criticism, despite Shreve’s remarkable contribution, he does not describe the components of translation competence. This makes it difficult to use his definition as an ideal guide for designing appropriate translator training curricula.

On the other hand, Kiraly (2000, 13-14) speaks of translator competence, which entails “being able to use tools and information to create communicatively successful texts that are accepted as good translations within the community concerned”. He adds that translator competence “means knowing how to work co-operatively within the various overlapping communities of translators and subject matter experts to accomplish work collaboratively” (Kiraly 2000, 14). This suggests that a well-designed translator or interpreter training curriculum does more than simply equip students with language skills, world knowledge and knowledge of translation proper. It should prepare the student for real world translations.

Finally, Pym (2003, 487) criticizes multi-component models, claiming that these “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”. He postulates that “there is no neat definition of all the things that translators need to know and will be called upon to do” (Pym
Moreover, Pym (2013, 489) claims that multi-componential models of translation competence “bring together various areas in which a good translator is supposed to have skills and knowledge (know how and know that), as well as certain personal qualities, which remain poorly categorized”. Consequently, this author argues that the training of translators involves the creation of a two-fold functional competence, namely:

- The ability to generate a series of more than one viable target text ($TT_1$, $TT_2$ … $TT_n$) for a pertinent source text (ST); and
- The ability to select only one viable TT from this series, quickly and with justified confidence. (Pym 2003, 489)

Nevertheless, although Pym (2013, 489) disagrees with multi-component models of translation competence, he admits that there is “nothing particularly wrong with such models”. As he puts it: “In fact, they can be neither right nor wrong, since they are simply lists of training objectives, with no particular criteria for success or failure” (Pym 2013, 489). Furthermore, referring specifically to the EMT model, he suggests that this “configuration is nevertheless important precisely because it is the result of significant consensus, agreed to by a set of European experts and now providing the ideological backbone for some 54 university-level training programs in Europe, for better or worse” (Pym 2013, 489).

However, this scholar leaves a vacuum in the search for a translator training model, since his translation competence model seems to just remind trainers of the main focus of a translation training. Moreover, in a university setting, this objective is not achieved by singlehandedly focusing on the delivery of translation classes, but by giving careful consideration to the more comprehensive set of course components proven to contribute to the development of translation competence.

In summary, translation competence means different things to different authors. To some, translation competence is a list of skills, abilities, qualities or kind of knowledge, while to others it means anything that empowers students to act on the translation market. As a complement of translation competence, the next section takes a closer look at interpreting competence. This concept is likewise
important because it helps identify key areas to work on in an interpreter training course.

### 1.7.5 Interpreting competence

Similarly to translation competence, interpreting competence is hard to define. Therefore, it is impossible to have one single model of interpreting competence that can be used universally. Interpreting Studies literature usually concentrates on discussing major distinctions between the two modes of interpreting, namely simultaneous and consecutive interpreting, and there are few interpreting competence development models. On a positive note, there are a number of authors who have offered some interpreting competence definitions and models.

For instance, in modelling interpreting competence, Gile (1997, 197) proposes what he calls an *effort model* “to be used as a conceptual framework for interpretation students”. Therefore, it is of interest to this study because it concentrates on the cognitive process involved in interpreting. According to Gile (1997, 198), the simultaneous interpretation effort model consists of three efforts as follows:

1. The listening and analysis effort;
2. The production effort; and
3. The memory effort.

Gile (1997, 198) states that the first bundle consists of “all comprehension-oriented operations, from the analysis of the sound waves carrying the source language (SL) speech that reach the interpreter’s ears, through the identification of words, to the final decisions about the meaning of the sentence”. The second bundle is “the set of operations extending from the initial mental representation of the message to be delivered, through speech planning, and up to the implementation of the speech plan” (Gile 1997, 198). The third and last one is defined as “the high demand on short-term memory during simultaneous interpreting, due to the operation of several factors” (Gile 1997, 198). This author goes on to list such factors as follows:
1. The time interval between the moment SL speech sounds are heard and the moment their processing for comprehension is finished;
2. The time interval between the moment the message to be formulated in the target language (TL) speech is determined and the completion of its formulation;
3. Tactical moves, which are used, for instance, if an SL speech segment is unclear to the interpreter because of bad sound, strong accent, unclear logic, errors in the SL speech, and so on (the interpreter may decide to wait until more context is available to help understand the unclear segment); and

Furthermore, since in consecutive interpreting, “the interpreter alternates with the speaker, translating SL speech segments of at least several sentences after the speaker has completed them and has paused for translation”, Gile (1997, 201-2) theorizes that its effort model is made up of the following two effort phases:

1. Listening phase (during which the interpreter listens to the SL speech, and generally takes notes); and
2. Reformulation phase (during which the interpreter makes a TL speech from memory and from notes.

Gile (1997, 202) is careful enough to point out that the kind of note-taking involved in the listening phase differs from that in other circumstances because, rather than cover all information conveyed in the SL speech, it focuses on those aspects that can serve as “reminders to help the interpreter retrieve said information from memory”.

By way of criticism, although Gile (1997) does shed light on the process of interpreting, which may benefit both trainers and trainees, he fails to provide a comprehensive interpreting competence development model comparable to translation competence models such as those reviewed above (see section 1.7.4 above). Other authors, such as Al-Salman and Al-Khanji (2002) and Kermis (2008), have attempted to provide such a model.
Al-Salman and Al-Khanji (2002, 607) define an interpreter as “a transitional point of contact between the sender and the receiver or between two languages”. Moreover, they outline some requirements under “various types of both linguistic and non-linguistic skills” that will allow interpreters to act out their role, as follows:

1. Mastery of the active language;
2. Solid background of general knowledge;
3. Personal qualities: e.g. faculty of analysis and synthesis, ability to intuit meaning, capacity to adapt immediately to change in subject matter and different speakers and situations;
4. Other qualities: having good short and long term memory, ability to concentrate, a gift for public speaking, and physical endurance and good nerves (Al-Salman and Al-Khanji 2002, 608)

Nonetheless, Fraihat and Mahadi (2013, 178) critique the above model for mingling “competences and skills with each other though they are truly different”. In addition, given the key role played by comprehension of the source text in the process of interpreting, one may also wonder why Al-Salman and Al-Khanji’s model is silent on the importance of the interpreter’s other working language(s) apart from the active one.

In her turn, Kermis (2008, 41) theorizes that there are ten most important competences that professional interpreters need to develop. The first five of such competences are similar to those needed by professional translators, namely:

1. Linguistic Competence
2. Comprehension Competence
3. Production Competence
4. Subject Area Competence
5. Cultural Competence (Kermis 2008, 46)

Kermis also identifies five specific competences for interpreters as being:

1. General Knowledge
2. Memory Skills
3. Public Speaking
4. Moral Competence
5. Stress Tolerance (Kermis 2008, 46)

However, Fraihat and Mahadi (2013, 180) criticize this model for mixing skills and competences together, citing stress tolerance and memory skills as “physical and cognitive skills respectively”, rather than competences. By the same token, these scholars argue that Kermis' model lacks essential competences for professional interpreters (Fraihat and Mahadi (2013, 180). Moreover, Kermis' model does not serve the purpose of this study because it was not intended for designing interpreter training curricula.

In summary, there is a set of competencies or skills, knowledge, attitudes or qualities that interpreters should have. Interpreting Studies authors have suggested different definitions or models of interpreting competence, but all of these, taken together, can help isolate the most critical areas of knowledge and abilities an interpreter training programme should focus on.

Following this theoretical contextualization, it is noteworthy that available literature reveals a gap in TIS, as explained below.

1.7.6 A gap in Translation and Interpreting Studies

A major challenge facing TIS researchers is the dearth of research aimed at finding adequate models for the training of professional translators and interpreters in higher education. This perception is corroborated by Yan et al. (2015, 264), who contend that “despite the importance of T&I training and the exponentially increasing number of studies dedicated to this sub-field, there remain very few reviews of this applied branch of T&I research”. In a similar vein, Albir (2007, 163) argues that the formal training of translators and interpreters “lacks the curriculum research tradition of other disciplines with a longer academic standing”. This view echoes Newmark’s (1996, 18) previous concern when he says: “For many years there has been confusion about the purpose and place of translation in the educational system.”
At the same time, a literature review exposes a “trap” in TIS, as briefly explained below.

### 1.7.7 A “trap” in Translation and Interpreting Studies

Without due care, designing a translator/interpreter training curriculum can be treacherous. Hatim and Mason (1997, 7) point out that “it should not be assumed that because translating in the written and in the oral mode are known by different terms – translating and interpreting – they have little in common”. In fact, these scholars criticize the fact that translating and interpreting are usually separated on translator/interpreter training programmes, although they are marked by commonalities in using communication strategies (Hatim and Mason 1997, 7). Along these lines, Asensio (2007, 87) observes that there has been an overlap between translating and interpreting as professional activities, which “can give rise to repetition (or omission) in the curriculum between Translation and Interpreting courses”. Therefore, an effective curriculum design should avoid either repeating or omitting essential aspects inherent in each of these two professions.

Following the presentation of the theoretical underpinnings of this study, as well as a “gap” and a “trap” in TIS, the next section builds as case for the creation of an African translation and interpreting competence development model.

### 1.8 A case for an African model for translator and interpreter training

The above-mentioned gap in TIS (see section 1.7.6 above) affects the training of African translators and interpreters, in general, and of Mozambican translation and interpreting service providers, in particular, considering that most of the training models available in literature are Eurocentric. African universities cannot simply select among the many curricula followed in Western universities, which are built according to Western values and needs. For example, while in the past translators and interpreters could be thoroughly trained at BA level, today in most Western universities students are expected to attend an MA
The main reason behind this is often the model adopted for training translators and interpreters. This has the potential to deny many Africans an adequate training because they would lack the funds associated with getting a long term training if they were required to complete an MA level to become professional translators or interpreters. It is only reasonable and expectable that after four years of university training, the graduate should be able to deliver quality translation and interpreting services, which calls for a conducive training model.

To illustrate why Africans cannot simply import European models, let us take as a case in point the decision about the language combination that should be prescribed to students. In an effort to cater for European linguistic diversity and translation needs, Motaş et al. (1994, 432) propose the following three models of language combination for university training programmes:

(i) native language (A) + active foreign language (B) + passive foreign language (C);
(ii) native language (A) + B language + subject specialization; and
(iii) 1 foreign language + subject specialization.

At first glance, it might seem that the first of such models, for instance, has the advantage of offering skills in three languages at the same time. In Mozambique, one might think that this model has the potential to benefit students because they would have to learn two foreign languages simultaneously (English and French) to combine with the Portuguese language. However, this model may not be imported to African countries such as Mozambique, where local indigenous languages have not been given proper attention in formal education. Historical factors play an important role in this.

In colonial Mozambique, Portuguese was imposed as the only official language in which only the privileged few could be educated. Following the country’s independence in 1975, Mozambique adopted Portuguese as the official language and until the present this language has remained the country’s only official language despite the fact that there are some 17 indigenous languages whose orthography has recently been investigated and standardized (see Ngunga and Faquir 2011). Therefore, the fact that one’s native language in
Mozambique may not always be Portuguese (the official language) would mean that the model proposed by Motaş et al. (1994) ignores the role of the student’s African mother tongue. In addition, the goal of learning two foreign languages at the same time as the student is developing translation or interpreting competence might be illusive.

In fact, despite having an African mother tongue, hundreds of Mozambican sworn translators and interpreters are presently working with European language combinations (mainly Portuguese-English and Portuguese-French), which are profitable in today’s context of official/business communication, where most likely neither the source nor the target language is the translator’s or interpreter’s mother tongue. Evidence⁴ suggests that, although most of them may be proficient in Portuguese as their first language of instruction, they simply do not have Portuguese as their native language (A) to combine it with, for example, English as active foreign language (B) and French as passive foreign language C, as suggested in Motaş et al.’s (1994, 432.) model. Nevertheless, no one would, of course, expect capable English-Portuguese or French-Portuguese translators and interpreters to come from Europe only. On the contrary, there is a need to empower speakers of African indigenous languages to also master these European languages, which, in the case of Mozambique, are the main vehicles of scientific knowledge and international communication and trade.

This does not mean that Mozambican – or other African – universities should not train their citizens to translate or interpret from and into an indigenous language combined with the official language or with foreign languages. It simply illustrates the dilemma of choosing a model while considering historical, linguistic and socioeconomic factors at play in these contexts. It further shows that European translator and interpreter models cannot be taken at face value and, therefore, Africans do well to search for their own models.

⁴ In his previous research involving UEM translation students and lecturers, Magaia (2014, 71-73) found that 58% of the 50 students who took part in the study had an African indigenous language as their mother tongue against 46% who reported Portuguese as their mother tongue, where this language was often co-occurring with an African indigenous language.
In training African translators and interpreters, it is very important to bear in mind that the African Union currently uses the following working languages: Arabic, English, French and Portuguese. In the case of the Southern African region, the working languages are English, French and Portuguese. This is quite remarkable because it shows that most of the languages that are in the highest demand in official communication settings on the African continent are of European origin. This is also quite telling because if Africans were only trained to primarily translate or interpret from and into their diverse indigenous languages, they would not be in position to cater for official translation and interpreting needs of their own continent.

Additionally, even though it would make sense to build a case for the training of African translators and interpreters to combine an indigenous language with a European one, the current state of affairs is that

   colonial languages in Africa are sadly still perceived as means of socio-economic power – tools of economic and educational advancement, and are consequently still in such high demand by parents, students, and the public, because they lead to the more attractive and better-paid modern sector jobs (Wanchia and Dongho 2016, 140).

Even in countries such as South Africa where the status of nine African indigenous languages has been elevated to that of official languages beside English and Afrikaans, which dominated during the Apartheid regime, some have argued that

   This has brought about manifold issues in the scramble to establish language services that cater for all languages for a full gamut of services, from interpreting for parliament and government meetings to local government, health and legal services. In this instance, too, such revolutionary change has come in a situation of limited resources and immense poverty, making implementation of systems of certification, training and provision of services difficult (Ozolins 2010, 206).

In such a scenario, using indigenous languages as media of instruction right from the primary education level, as has been suggested by some, would certainly go a long way towards empowering African students whose mother tongue is not a European one with better cognitive skills and thus allow them faster development of translation competence. For instance Wanchia and Dongho (2016, 144) assert that “mother tongue (L1) ought to constitute the basis of the conception of translation programmes” (emphasis in original). They further argue that
L1 before FL as language of instruction makes learning ‘tearless’ for it is the L1 that sets up the frames for deciphering and understanding the world. L1 is the structuring element for culture and thus makes translation a parole-, and not a langue-based activity (Saussure, 1959), given that it is through parole that cultural elements and difference are perceivable (Wanchia and Dongho 2016, 144).

Wanchia and Dongho (2016, 144) use as evidence of their argument the fact that “most translation guilds have formally and very sternly forbidden non-natives from translating into their L2s (Language B)” In addition, “If for any reason the professional translated into his L2 because of market pressure, the quest for quality demands that such a text should, if not revised, be proofread by an educated native speaker” (Wanchia and Dongho 2016, 144). However, they are quick to admit that, despite UNESCO’s recommendation to use the “mother tongue from the beginning of school to as long as possible… the mother tongue has remained rare for education in Africa”, except in Kenya (using Kiswahili), Mali (using Bambara and Bamanan) and in Cameroon (using Fe’e-fe’e) (Wanchia and Dongho 2016, 144-145). They add that the linguistic map of post-colonial Africa shows dominance of European languages for education, administration, the media, international relations whereas mother tongues are still carefully and systematically evacuated from African public space including the educational (Wanchia and Dongho 2016, 145).

Clearly, their debate ends up being a language policy one rather than a quest for optimal models to train and empower African translators who are native speakers of indigenous languages to work with European languages, which they have – fortunately or unfortunately – inherited from colonialism. As long as the current situation prevails, there will be a need to train African professionals to translate and interpret from and into European languages. Since at times – if not often – neither the source language nor the target language is a translator’s mother tongue in Africa, there is a pressing need to find an African model.

The next section provides the definitions of three key terms forming the building blocks of this study will be provided.
1.9 Definitions of key terms

The purpose of this section is to provide the definitions of the following key terms used in this study: model, curriculum and competence-based curriculum.

1.9.1 Model

Since any training programme is based on a model, it is important to have a clear definition of this concept. According to Rivett (cited in Henson 1995, 112), a model is “a set of logical relationships, either qualitative or quantitative, which will link together the relevant features of the reality with which we are concerned”. Just like any other concept, the term model has various definitions. However, it is important to realize that “a model is not a reality”, but rather, “a visual or written description of someone’s perception of reality” (Henson 1995, 113). Moreover, “models are imperfect” (Henson 1995, 113), which calls for ongoing research towards improving them.

In this study, the term “model”, used in conjunction with the term “training”, is defined as an idealization of guiding principles, transformed into a visualizable schematization of key interrelated components of a training philosophy that can provide a framework for designing specific training curricula. In other words, a training model clearly articulates the main competencies constituting an envisaged profession but need not be inflated by detailing every single sub-competence, skill, knowledge area or attitude that might contribute towards developing such professional competence. A training model may be likened to a skeleton. Furthermore, to be practical, a model must allow its users to draw principles to guide training processes and ensure that these stay focused on the ultimate goal of equipping a student for work.

1.9.2 Curriculum

Again, no training programme can achieve its objectives without an effective curriculum. Effective curriculum development begins with finding a clear definition of this concept. With regard to the definition of “curriculum”, Henson (1995, 4) points out that, although this word has been traditionally interpreted
as a “list of courses”\textsuperscript{5}, “through the years the term has expanded, taking on several additional meanings”. Similarly, Oliva (2001, 3) notes that “The amorphous nature of the word curriculum has given rise over the years to many interpretations”. However, after listing a number of definitions proposed by others, Oliva (2001, 3) concludes that, essentially, a “curriculum can be conceived in a narrow way (as subjects taught) or in a broad way (all the experiences of learners, both in school and out, directed by the school)”. Richards (2001, 204) outlines the characteristics of an effective curriculum as follows:

- The range of courses\textsuperscript{6} offered corresponds to the needs of learners.
- The curriculum is coherent: The courses represent a rationale [sic] approach to achieving the school’s mission.
- Courses have been developed based on sound educational principles with due attention to recognized curriculum development processes.
- Course descriptions, including aims, goals, syllabuses, and course organization, have been developed.
- Teaching materials and tests are of high quality, have been carefully selected or developed, and are regularly reviewed and revised.
- Mechanisms are in place to monitor the quality of teaching and learning.
- The curriculum is subject to ongoing review and renewal. There is ongoing interest in identifying strengths and weaknesses and bringing about improvements in all aspects of the curriculum.

Against this background, the term “curriculum” is used in this study to refer to a set of selected course units or modules prescribed for a student to complete his/her cycle of training in an academic setting. Such course units should be selected according to the principles behind the components of the adopted training model. Thus, if a model may be compared to a skeleton, then a curriculum may be likened to a fleshed out skeleton in that it specifies the course

\textsuperscript{5}The term “courses” here may be interpreted as “course units”, “subjects” or “modules”.

\textsuperscript{6}Here, too, the term “courses” here may be interpreted as “course units”, “subjects” or “modules”.
units designed according to previously agreed upon components of the professional competence that such a curriculum is supposed to help students achieve at the end of a training cycle.

### 1.9.3 Competence-based curriculum

Albir (2007, 164) identifies “adapting teaching to new pedagogical models” as a major challenge facing today’s education, including translator and interpreter training. He highlights the need for “training that develops the necessary competences to perform well in the job market; and training that guarantees autonomous, multi-purpose and continuous or lifelong learning which can be adapted to a constantly changing world”. According to this author, an emerging pedagogical response is what has been called “competence-based training”, which comprises specific and general competences (Albir 2007, 165-168). Moreover, he sees advantages in this model, such as “greater transparency of professional profile in study programmes, greater emphasis on the outcome of learning, more flexibility and a greater integration of all aspects of a curriculum” (Albir 2007, 167-168). Hence translator and interpreter training curriculum design needs to be adapted to this training model, that is, it needs to be built on a clear model of translation and interpreting competence.

Therefore, the term “competence-based curriculum” in this study means a curriculum designed according to the broader professional profile and specific sub-competences, knowledge areas, skills and attitudes that a course intends to develop in students.

Following these definitions, the next section briefly describes the methodology used in this study.

### 1.10 Methodology

The purpose of this section is to briefly describe the design and method used for conducting this study. A comprehensive description can be found in Chapter 3 of this thesis.
1.10.1 Design and method

With regard to methodological implications of considering TS as an interdiscipline, Hansen (2006, 6) writes: “Disciplines and research patterns from psychology, phenomenology, natural sciences and social sciences provide empirical translation research with useful tools, methods and techniques”. Sun (2014, 176), in turn, says: “If we view TS as an interdiscipline, then almost all research methods in its feeder disciplines can be used in our research field”. This shows that research in TIS should not be restricted to a particular method. A TIS researcher may thus choose any methodological approach he/she finds most suitable for the object of his/her study (Cravo and Neves 2007, 94).

This study has been designed as action research, whose purpose is, according to Griffiths (1998, in Blaxter et al. 2001, 67), “always and explicitly, to improve practice”. Action research has been used in translation studies by scholars such as Cravo and Neves (2007, 96), who indicate that this allows researchers to “be involved with people and particularly with the people who will, in the end, benefit from their research: the translators themselves, the students of translation and translators-to-be, the teachers of translation, and, above all, the ‘consumers’ of the end product”.

To conduct this study, the researcher opted for the mixed methods approach, which “combines or associates both qualitative and quantitative forms” (Creswell 2009, 4). The advantages of using mixed methods in a research project are not limited to the mere possibility of combining or associating quantitative and qualitative data. According to Blaxter et al. (2001, 84), an additional advantage of mixed methods is that they allow the triangulation of data, which means a process of trying “to verify the validity of the information being collected”.

Following this summary description of the study design and method, the next section explains the research instruments and analytical framework used in this study.
1.10.2 Research instruments and analytical framework

To conduct this study, the researcher made use of quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments. The main instrument used, which is eminently quantitative, was a survey questionnaire comprising four sections explained below:

a) **Section I: Respondent Profile** – to collect data on the identity of the study participants;

b) **Section II: Assessing the Current UEM Translation Curriculum** – to capture data on respondent’s perceptions regarding the effectiveness of the current curriculum and reasons for such perceptions;

c) **Section III: Ideal Translator/Interpreter Training Model** – to gather data showing respondent’s views on an appropriate curriculum model for training translators and interpreters at UEM;

d) **Section IV: Proposing a New Translator/Interpreter Training Model and Improved Curricula for UEM** – to gather data on respondent’s reactions to a translation/interpreting competence development model proposed by the researcher, including three curriculum proposals for translator and interpreter training at UEM.

It is worth mentioning that even though questionnaires are highly quantitative tools, at times they do collect qualitative data (Allwood 2011, 1422). In this particular case, the questionnaire contains some open-ended questions that are aimed at capturing qualitative information. To illustrate this, under Section II (Assessment of the Current UEM Translation Curriculum), after asking the participant to tick the option that best expresses his/her opinion on the question: “How effective do you find the current UEM translator training curriculum in leading to the development of translation/interpreting competence?”, the questionnaire follows up with the question: “Why?”, thereby asking the participants to give reasons for their answers.

Even though the answers may be quantifiable, the fact that some of the answers captured in the questionnaire include qualitative judgements shows that this instrument has the potential to capture a substantial amount of qualitative data.
The fact that UEM students do not get any practice in translating into English while on campus, and yet once they graduate they take on English translation assignments, begs the question of what the quality of English translations produced by UEM graduates is. To answer this question, former students were asked to take a short translation test into English. This test, therefore, was the second data collection instrument used for macro- and micro-textual analysis in this study. Likewise, to enable data triangulation, former UEM students’ final Portuguese translation projects kept at the English section, where the researcher is based, were used as a source for extracting qualitative data for macro- and micro-textual analysis. Thus, archived final translation projects were the third data collection tool used in this study. Chapter 3 (Research Design and Methodology) further reports on the treatment and analysis of this data (see Section 3.7).

The quantitative data thus collected through the main instrument (survey questionnaire) was entered into a Microsoft Excel workbook and analysed with the aid of this statistical tool. Graphs yielded by Excel helped in the interpretation of the findings presented and discussed in detail in Chapter 4 (Findings and Interpretation).

On the other hand, qualitative data captured by some open-ended questions was analysed while paying attention to recurrent themes in the answers provided by respondents. This analytical method was also used with a positive outcome by the researcher in his previous study (Magaia 2014, 64-66). Likewise, the translations submitted by former UEM students were the object of a macro- and micro-textual analysis building on the researcher’s translation quality assessment method developed in his previous research (Magaia 2014, 65-66; Magaia 2016). A more complete description of these methods is presented in Chapter 3 (Research Design and Methodology, see section 3.7.2).
1.10.3 Subjects

The study was initially designed to cover at least 100 voluntary participants divided into six groups under the following categories:

1) current UEM translation students (at least 30);
2) former UEM translation students (at least 20);
3) potential translation students (at least 20);
4) UEM translator trainers (at least 10);
5) translation/interpreting service providers (at least 10); and
6) potential translation/interpreting service users (at least 10)

However, thanks to the positive response of participants, in total this study covered 123 eligible subjects. The details of these subjects are provided in Chapter 3 (Research Design and Methodology, see section 3.8).

1.10.4 Procedures and ethical considerations

Potential subjects were within the researcher’s reach and, therefore, there was no need to travel long distances. All participants were contacted either personally or by email and invited to participate voluntarily in the study. To this end, subjects were provided with an informed consent form (see Annexure I), which they signed after receiving background information on the aim of the study and confidentiality aspects. Then the subjects were asked to complete a survey questionnaire (see Annexure II) and return it at their earliest convenience.

As has been mentioned, in addition to returning the questionnaire, former students also submitted sample English translations for macro- and micro-textual analysis. This step was followed by a collection of a corpus of former students’ final Portuguese translation projects for macro- and micro-textual analysis too.

Finally, in keeping with UNISA ethical principles, the researcher submitted a formal request to conduct research at the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences (FLCS) and at the Language Institute of Maputo (see Annexures III and IV respectively). Moreover, data collection took place from mid-April to July 2017.
after ethical clearance was granted by UNISA’s relevant body (see Annexure V).

1.11 Delimitations of this study

It has been mentioned that the term “curriculum” has been given various interpretations (see section 1.9.2 above). This simple fact may raise different expectations. To avoid falling short of such expectations, it is worth mentioning that this study does not seek to theorize on the general curriculum development. Rather, it focuses on conceiving a model of translation and interpreting competence development that could enable the design of an improved competence-based curriculum for UEM. This means that the curriculum produced by this study shares the conception of curriculum as a programme of studies cited by Henson (1995, 5), which is “seen in most college catalogs, which often define a sequence of courses to describe a particular program of studies.”

Therefore, the curriculum improvements proposed in this study do not include a curriculum guide, which “is a teaching aid with helpful suggestions” (Oliva 2001, 579), nor do they include a course of study, “which is a detailed plan for a single course, including text materials (content)” (Oliva 2001, 579). At the same time, the curriculum proposals presented in this study do not provide a syllabus for each of the modules suggested, defined as “an outline of topics to be covered in a single course” (Oliva 2001, 580). It was thought that the first step would be to define an effective model which in turn can lead to an effective curriculum. In the future, if the proposed model is accepted at UEM, more work can be done to define the syllabus of each module, including instructional goals, instructional objectives, learning activities, evaluation techniques and resources, as suggested by Oliva (2001, 580).

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7 That is, course units, subjects or modules.
1.12 Assumptions

The design and conduct of this study were based on the following assumptions:

- *Participants are interested in improving translator/interpreter training in Mozambique.* This means that a common criterion for selecting participants was their interest in the training of translators and interpreters. This could be seen from the fact that some were lecturers or students at UEM, others were professional translators and interpreters, and yet others could be potential students at UEM or potential translation/interpreting service users.

- *Current UEM students are still developing translation competence.* This means that the students who were invited to participate in this study could be at different levels of training (from Year 1 to Year 4) and, therefore, an attempt to test their translation competence would be futile, as it could bias the study findings. This was the main reason why no translations were requested from these participants for macro- and micro-textual analysis.

- *Former UEM students have achieved a certain degree of competence in Portuguese translation.* Since these participants have already completed their training, the assumption was that they had met the minimum translation competence requirements. However, since the researcher saw the need to ask former students to submit English translations for macro- and micro-textual analysis, he considered that the findings of such analysis could be best triangulated with a similar analysis of translations into Portuguese. Furthermore, it was thought that the analysis of both types of data (English and Portuguese) would contribute to clarifying the question as to whether or not it should be mandatory to practise translation or interpreting into a foreign language (which may be one’s second or third language) during the training.
1.13 Significance of the study

First and foremost, this research is a modest contribution to the curriculum reform in progress at UEM by offering a solid, generally agreed-upon training model of translators and interpreters. This model should in turn yield a practical curriculum that might be experimented with at UEM as well as in other Mozambican universities. Likewise, in view of the common past of European colonization, other African universities may draw on this study in the attempt to improve the training of translation and interpreting professionals that are often expected to perform in European languages, usually as L₂ and L₃, especially when their mother tongues are not in high demand in official/business contexts.

In addition to this specific contribution, the study has the potential benefit of extending the applications of TS and IS as inter-related disciplines. Currently, there is a tendency to detach these two disciplines or – at the very best – to subsume IS under TS. Either approach has its own pitfalls. If TS and IS are regarded as two separate fields, then TS researchers are bound to ignore IS perspectives, and vice versa. Likewise, tagging IS onto TS might lead to a demeaning attitude towards the former. At the same time, although TS and IS (jointly or separately) have yielded an enormous body of knowledge, there is still a scarcity of joint TS and IS literature addressing the challenges of creating effective BA level curricula for training translators and interpreters in African universities. It is this curriculum research gap, alluded to by Newmark (1996, 18), Albir (2007, 163) and Yan et al. (2015, 264), that this study seeks to partially fill by simultaneously looking at the problem from both TS and IS perspectives.

The next section presents the organization of this study.

1.14 Organization of the study

This study has been structured in the following manner:

**Chapter 1: Introduction:** This chapter provides the background to this study, the research problem, the rationale, the research aims and the research questions. In addition, this chapter provides a theoretical framework with key definitions behind the model of translation/interpreting competence
development envisaged in this study. It also presents a short description of the methodology used in this study, followed by procedures and ethical considerations as well as the delimitations, assumptions and significance of the study.

Chapter 2: Training Professional Translators and Interpreters: In this chapter, the researcher conducts a systematic review of sources consulted with the aim of providing a more comprehensive context of this study. This in-depth review of contributions of previous TS and IS researchers on the subject of translator and interpreter training has allowed the researcher to better position himself for making his own proposal of a translation/interpreting competence development model, which is part of the main data collection instrument described in chapter 3 (see section 3.6.1).

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology: This chapter provides detailed information on the research design and methods adopted for this study. This chapter gives a complete description of the study subjects, materials, procedures, analytical framework and ethical considerations.

Chapter 4: Evidence for a New Translator and Interpreter Training Model: This chapter presents and discusses the results of the field work (data collection) according to the data instruments used: a survey, an English translation test and a sample of archived Portuguese translations produced by former UEM students. The results of the data analysis conducted and discussed in this chapter form the main basis for writing up the final chapter.

Chapter 5: Conclusion: This final chapter weighs up the contribution of the study against the objectives outlined in this chapter. Based on the findings of the study presented and discussed in chapter 4, this chapter recommends a model for improving the training curriculum of translators and interpreters at UEM. At the same time, the chapter identifies and elaborates on the main implications of implementing such a model. Likewise, the chapter identifies the limitations of the study and makes suggestions for further research.
1.15 Conclusion

In this chapter, it was shown that UEM lacks an appropriate model for the training of Mozambican translators and interpreters. The main points of this chapter were: (1) finding an effective translator and interpreter training model could lead to an adequate curriculum design; (2) a better curriculum can cater for translation and interpreting students’ needs alike; and (3) this research could be a modest contribution to the curriculum reform in progress at UEM and to the development of translator/interpreter training in African universities. The chapter included a short discussion of the theoretical background of this study: Translation and Interpreting Studies. In this section, the following key concepts were defined: translation, interpreting, translation competence, interpreting competence model, curriculum and competence-based curriculum. The study design and method were briefly described, followed by the presentation of procedures and ethical considerations as well as the delimitations, assumptions and significance of the study.
CHAPTER 2

Training professional translators and interpreters

2.1 Chapter overview

The purpose of this chapter is to conduct a review of available literature in order to obtain a complete picture of the various contours of translator and interpreter training, with special emphasis on the pursuit of a BA Honours degree curriculum that can enhance translators’ and interpreters’ skills and improve graduate employability in the labour market. The chapter starts with a short survey of translator and interpreter training around the world, followed by an overview of translator and interpreter training in Africa. The next section reviews the conditions for securing employment in the translation and interpreting industry, followed by a section discussing the concepts of “translation” and “interpreting”, as well as similarities and differences between these two concepts. The chapter then discusses the need for differentiated theoretical bases for Translation Studies and Interpreting Studies and goes on describing the techniques translators use in acting out their role, which is followed by a discussion of types of interpreting and interpreting strategies. The next two sections focus on different models of translation competence and interpreting competence. Following this is a section attempting to answer the study’s most critical question: “Which model for designing a conducive curriculum?” The chapter concludes by conducting a brief review of previous UEM studies and its curricula.

2.2 A short survey of translator and interpreter training around the world

Over the decades, translator training has evolved substantially around the globe. For example, according to Gentzler (2001, 5), in the early sixties, translation “was a marginal activity at best, not considered by academia as a proper field of study in the university system.” However, in the seventies,
“translation courses and workshops were being offered at several universities”, with some advanced degrees being conferred upon translation students Gentzler (2001, 5-6).

According to Pym et al. (2013, 50), in Finland, for example, translator training started in the mid-sixties at language institutes, which merged with universities in the early 1980s, “offering a wide range of BA and specialised MA programmes”. In Germany, the contemporary system for training translators began in university-based institutes in the 1930s and the late 1940s and today the training system “has grown to include at least 22 tertiary institutions across Germany, offering a wide range of BA and specialised MA programmes” (Pym et al. 2013, 61-62). In a similar vein, universities in Poland now offer various courses in translation and interpreting, including “specialised translation, audio-visual translation, conference interpreting, and community interpreting” (Pym et al. 2013, 71).

On the European continent, Spain and the United Kingdom stand out in terms of higher education institutions offering training in translation and interpreting. According to Pym et al. (2013, 76), as of 2013, there were some “27 Spanish universities with specialised translator-training institutions”. At the time there were also 36 university institutions in the United Kingdom offering translation or interpreting, or both, although only 13 did so as undergraduate courses (Pym et al. 2013, 76).

Other major countries outside Europe such as Australia and China have seen progress in university-level training of translators and interpreters. In Australia, for example, in addition to a Masters in Japanese Interpreting and Translation offered at the University of Queensland since 1980 and a Bachelor’s programme offered at Deakin University since 1981, as of 2013, there were some 20 institutions offering programmes of one kind or another, ranging from a BA programme to paraprofessional courses, most of which were at certificate or postgraduate level (Pym et al. 2013, 99-100).

Although China launched its BA programme in Translation and Interpreting relatively recently (in 2006), it has seen a “massive and very rapid expansion of translator training both at BA and MA level” (Pym et al. 2013, 110). Thus, “in
March 2011 there were 42 universities that offered a BA in Translation and Interpreting, while in September 2010 there were 158 universities in China offering an MA programme in Translation and Interpreting” (Pym et al. 2013, 110).

Thus, this brief survey of literature allows inferring that today it is an established practice to offer translator and interpreter training at university level. This training can be provided both at BA and MA level, although there seems to be a new trend to offer it more at postgraduate level.

2.3 An overview of translator and interpreter training in Africa

Even though documentary evidence is scarce, it seems that there is a high level of awareness of the need to train African language translators and interpreters, including at tertiary level. For example, Kelly et al. (2012, 14) report on the positive findings of their research where the “respondents were a highly educated group”. Their study found that 83.0% of the 364 translators they surveyed had a college degree, while “more than half (52.8%) had completed master’s or doctoral degrees” (Kelly et al. 2012, 14). Similarly, most of these African language translators had had training in the field of translation in addition to high levels of general education, with 32.6% holding university degrees in the discipline, while “more than a quarter (28.7%) had taken courses in translation” (Kelly et al. 2012, 15). Nevertheless, “many of Africa’s best students earn their advanced degrees at universities in Europe, Asia, and North America, but too few return to their homelands” (Kelly et al. 2012, 14). Thus, dependence on overseas training is still a drawback in African translator and interpreter training.

On the other hand, there is some progress in translator and interpreter training within the African continent, as reported by Okagbue (2017), who describes the achievements of a current MA level training programme under the PAMCIT® in top universities in six countries. The programme is operational in five

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8 PAMCIT stands for Pan-African Masters Consortium in Interpretation and Translation.
universities in Cameroon, Egypt, Ghana, Kenya and Mozambique; Senegal, the sixth country, was still in preparation at the time of reporting. However, it is worth noting that this training covers the four official languages of the African Union (which are also four of the six official languages of the United Nations), namely Arabic, English, French and Portuguese. Furthermore, although commendable, the existence of such training only at MA level does not contribute much to the aim of this study, which is to find an effective BA Honours training model for professional translators and interpreters in Africa, in general, and in Mozambique, in particular.

Since no source like Pym et al. (2013) was found that could describe the current situation of translator and interpreter training in Africa, it is not possible to know how many higher institutions offer this training and at what levels. However, this does not mean that African universities do not offer any translator or interpreter training. On the contrary, information on this kind of training can usually be obtained through specific university websites. Still, that information lacks the details typically found in a study offering scientific underpinnings of translator and interpreter training. A mere listing of subjects or modules taught in a BA or an MA programme offered by African universities in countries such as Mozambique, Zimbabwe, South Africa and Kenya, to name a few, is not enough to describe a model for training translators and interpreters. A study would still be needed to account for the choice of subjects or modules making up a translation or interpreting curriculum in a higher education institution. This is linked to the question about what conditions graduates need to meet in order to secure employment. The next section addresses this question.

2.4 Conditions for securing employment

Drugan (2013, 16) paints a bright picture when she states that “the development in international trade generated a need for translation and will continue to ensure the almost parallel growth of the translation sector”. Part of the reason for this positive outlook is globalization (Drugan 2013, 17). Therefore, training institutions are increasingly challenged to offer the kind of training which will enable their graduates to adequately respond to labour market needs. For
translators, this may be so whether they are self-employed, working as freelancers, or employed by a company.

As shown in section 2.3 above, across the world today individuals can attend a 3 to 4 year-BA course or a 1 to 2-year MA course in translation with relative ease. In terms of contents of such training, Newmark’s (1996, 19) description seems valid down to this day:

In almost all professional translator courses, students are trained to translate technological and business texts, to reduce foreign language texts to abstracts and summaries, to handle terminology, to use word-processors; they normally receive an introduction to machine translation and have a course in translation theory or principles and methods of translation that includes translation criticism; such courses ‘apply’ linguistics in various degrees.

This statement gives an indication of what university level training of translators should be like: a practical example of applied linguistics. If, in contrast, such a course is impregnated with linguistics, literary theories or even descriptive, grammar-based language courses, thereby allowing trainees very little time to practise and develop skills needed in the real world, it might prove to be time ill-spent.

Therefore, the training provided to translators in higher education institutions should enhance their employment potential. Regarding this, Pym (2003, 482) raises a thought-provoking question when he asks:

If the science is supposed to help train translators, and translators are going to be employed for whatever competence they acquire, surely we cannot just remain silent about what the market requires?

The point of this question is that a translator training programme, or lecturer, should bear in mind the need to equip students to meet the real labour market demands rather than merely focus on translation theories during the training. It is definitely important to give the students the tools they will need in the real world instead of giving them what any teaching institution, or instructor, believes to be the students’ needs. For example, in her research, Drugan (2013, 41) found from observing translators at work that “the majority used a limited range of familiar features and were unaware of key resources”. This finding is certainly a clear reminder that there is much more than just earning a university diploma after a relatively long period of training.
What emerges from this literature review finding is that it has always been a major challenge to ensure that students get the right instruction for the labour demand. For example, the market demands a high standard but there are no university graduates who are up to it (Kingscott 1996, 142). This has been a key concern for researchers as shown by Kingscott’s (1996, 142) sobering remark: “There is a definite demand for translators who can produce translation-for-information quickly and in volume, but no-one is training such people”. Worrying, though, as such a statement as might be, it can also be viewed as an appeal for scholars to ponder about the efficacy of translator training programmes delivered at university level to ensure translators’ employability. It would definitely be incorrect to assume that as long as an aspirant translator attends a translation course, he or she will be apt for the labour market.

On the other hand, this concern prompts further investigation into the true nature of translation and interpreting competence. This necessitates a clear definition of the very concepts of “translation” and “interpreting”. Although these terms were defined in the introductory chapter (see section 1.7.3), the next section adds some important details.

2.5 The meaning of translation and interpreting

The terms “Translation” and “Interpreting”, or “translating” and “interpreting”, have been used by Translation Studies (TS) scholars to distinguish between two principal modes of communication, namely written and oral. For example, De Groot (1997, 25) states that the “term translation is used both in a broad and in a more narrow sense”. Thus when used in the broad sense, translation “refers to all operations where an SL unit is turned into a TL unit, irrespective of the modality of input and output (writing, speech, sign language)” (De Groot 1997, 25). In this sense, the author contends that “The modalities of input and output may be the same or different” (De Groot 1997, 25). However, De Groot suggests that when used in its narrow sense, the term refers only to the activity of reformulating written SL texts into written TL texts. In such circumstances, translation “contrasts with the term interpretation, which denotes the activity of orally rephrasing SL speech in TL” (De Groot 1997, 26). It is noteworthy that De
Groot (1997, 26) points to the need to find consistent terminology when he says: “The ambiguity in terminology can be mildly confusing at times. More seriously, the use of a single cover term for both the written and the oral forms can be misleading” (De Groot 1997, 26).

As pointed out in Chapter 1 (see section 1.7.3), Gile (1998, 40) also defines interpreting as “the oral translation of oral discourse, as opposed to the oral translation of written texts”. By using the word “oral” three times in this sentence, this author places emphasis on the oral particularity of interpreting. Thus both Gile and De Groot agree with Seleskovitch (1978, in Roy 2002, 345-6), who suggests that translation converts written texts into other written texts, but interpretation converts oral messages into other oral messages. However, this assertion can be problematic, particularly considering that such a definition excludes the type of interpreting involving the deaf communities. While some, and perhaps the majority, will certainly need oral rephrasing, there are those who will require messages conveyed to them in signed language. That is why Brislin’s (1976, in Roy 2002, 346) definition, as previously cited in section 1.7.3, seems more elucidative because it refers to interpreting as

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\text{the transfer of thoughts and ideas from one language to another, whether the languages are in written or oral form; whether the languages have established orthographies or do not have such standardization; or whether one or both languages is based on signs, as with sign languages of the deaf.}
\]

While revising such definitions, one cannot fail to notice the intrinsic relationship between translating and interpreting as acts of communication. Yet, a deeper analysis reveals significant differences between these two activities, which is why the next section explores the similarities and dissimilarities between translating and interpreting.
2.6 Translating and interpreting – similar yet different professions

Despite the strong relationship between the concepts of translating and interpreting, it is compelling to study their similarities and dissimilarities in detail. In this regard, even though De Groot (1997, 26) acknowledges that translating and interpreting share many general features, he argues that “the use of a single term to refer to both may veil the – fundamental – differences between them”. He goes further when he says that “The differences, especially in terms of the processes involved, are in fact so substantial that the two may require a different set of skills to be performed optimally” (De Groot 1997, 26).

Neubert (1997, 14-15) agrees when he states that “there are striking differences in the way translators and interpreters act out their responsibility as managers of the subtle problems arising in the two modes of translation.” Consistent with this proposition, Gile (1998, 41) also argues that, although most scholars view translating and interpreting as essentially fulfilling the same function, “many – especially interpreters – consider that the two are very different, even incompatible professions”. To justify this view, Gile (1998, 41) suggests that in terms of actual translation and interpreting practice, the most obvious of the differences stem “from the fact that translators deal with written language and have time to polish their work, while interpreters deal with oral language and have no time to refine their output”.

It should, however, be noted that although the interpreting activity is marked by a great deal of pressure associated with its spontaneity, absent in the translating activity, this does not mean that the translator’s profession is always easy. One of the reasons for arriving at this conclusion is because “Adequate translation cannot be explained by lexical matching alone” (Neubert 1997, 11-12). As Neubert (1997, 12) goes on saying, there are numerous factors that condition a translator’s choices such as “systemic-linguistic, some under the semantic influence of the global text meaning, some under pressure of stylistic demands of the target culture, and others under the control of the pragmatics of the translation context”.

Despite the difficulties inherent in the task of translating, it appears that a translator may find him or herself in a less demanding situation than that of an interpreter. Danks and Griffin (1997, 164) corroborate this perception when they identify the immediate temporal constraints as a fundamental difference between readers and listeners as well as between translators and interpreters. Thus according to these scholars, “Just as readers typically have as much time as they need to understand a text, so do translators have plenty of time to comprehend and translate the text” (Danks and Griffin 1997, 164). They go further when they state that, indeed, “translators may well have more time than readers because readers are under the pressure of implicit social norms about how long it takes to read a text”, which may not apply to translators (Danks and Griffin 1997, 164).

Danks and Griffin (1997, 164) are quick to admit that such norms may indeed exist, but they assert that “at least implicitly, within the community of translators, the pressure to produce a good, accurate translation is often more important than how long it takes”. At the same time, these scholars acknowledge that “translators are faced with the demands of the commission and its associated deadlines, but the time constraints of deadlines are usually measured in days and not minutes and seconds as they are in listening and interpreting” (Danks and Griffin 1997, 164). In contrast, the time pressure on interpreters is heightened by the fact that, as these authors go on to say, “The listeners for the interpreted text are waiting for the speech in the target language and the speaker may (in the consecutive case) or may not (in the simultaneous case) be waiting for the interpreter to finish the interpretation” (Danks and Griffin 1997, 164-165). Likewise, Gile (1998, 41) suggests that, in contrast to translation, “interpreting requires attention sharing and involves severe time constraints”.

What comes to the surface is that the context, process and product of translating and interpreting are different, even though the two tasks share some features. Thus, a translator may not necessarily be an interpreter and, by the same token, an interpreter may not necessarily be a translator, unless he/she receives sound training in both professions. Accordingly, the next section briefly discusses why translating and interpreting need distinct theoretical foundations.
2.7 The need for differentiated theoretical bases for Translation Studies and Interpreting Studies

When investigating the teaching of translating and interpreting one may be startled by the fact that there is a significant lacuna in theoretical foundations of the interpreting activity. Perhaps this is because in his initial proposition Holmes viewed interpreting as simply one of many objects of TS and thus saw “no need to designate it as a separate (sub)disciplinary entity” (Pöchhacker and Shlesinger 2002, 3). In recent times, however, practitioners and supporters have actively promoted interpreting “as a discipline in its own right” (Roy 2002, 346). Nevertheless, the critical problem is the fact that so far “interpreting has relied on the theoretical framework supplied by the domain of translation, which draws most of its theoretical force from its application to written texts” (Roy 2002, 346).

Little wonder that Pöchhacker and Shlesinger (2002, 4) question “to what extent the theoretical foundations of TS would necessarily apply to research on interpreting”, since “very few authors draw upon the concepts and theories generated by translation scholars”. Pöchhacker and Shlesinger (2002, 4) go further when they claim that “very few TS scholars have actively engaged in interpreting research or even mentioned interpreting in their writings”. For them, “IS researchers have mostly been inspired by paradigms from other disciplines, especially psychology and linguistics” (2002, 4). Similarly, Roy (2002, 346-7) notes that

as interpreting becomes increasingly differentiated due to the nature of its face-to-face interaction, both practitioners and researchers are considering a theoretical base for interpretation which may not rest on translation theory but rather may construct its own theory.

It can be added that the types of products translators and interpreters are expected to deliver may provide evidence showing that the two professions require different strategies. For example, among products expected from translators, Newmark (1998, 7) cites multilingual notices in public places, instructions, tourist publicity, official documents (for example, treaties and contracts), reports, papers, articles, correspondence and textbooks conveying information or advice. Other authors (Albir 2007, 179; Eszenyi 2016, 25) have included legal, technical, scientific, literary, audiovisual, financial, economic and
medical translations and localization, which may require more advanced training.

By contrast, a professional interpreter may find him/herself playing the mediating role through conference interpreting, court interpreting, community/dialogue interpreting, TV interpreting, business interpreting or signed language interpreting (See Gile 1998, 40 and Alexieva 2002, 220). Such specialized forms of professional interpreting need specific training and practice in modes of delivery such as consecutive interpreting, simultaneous interpreting and whispered interpreting (also called chuchotage) (See Gile 1998, 41 and Alexieva 2002, 221-222). All of this contributes to making interpreting an even more demanding profession than translating. At the same time, it provides sufficient proof that adequate training in specific forms of professional interpreting is needed.

If such training is absent, special problems may arise. This might be illustrated by court interpreting. For example, in his study of the South African context, Lebese (2013, 36) observed that there is “no consensus among interpreting scholars as to the exact role of the court interpreter”, which “creates problems of exploitation in South African courts”. Consequently, he concludes: “The lack of a clear definition of the role of interpreters has a capacity to affect the very quality of interpreting because court interpreters would not know which model definition to follow during interpreting” (Lebese 2013, 36). This remark consubstantiates Gamal's earlier (1998, 56) concern that “There are virtually no academic institutions that provide training in court interpreting specifically”. Lebese (2014, 205) sees training as an important aspect of a statute on court interpreting that can solve the problem of undefined role of court interpreters in South Africa.

Another example of special problems raised by the lack of adequate training in specialized forms of interpreting is provided by Wehrmeyer (2013), who studied the comprehension of signed TV news interpretation in South Africa. This scholar observes from literature that “signed languages utilise a number of devices to signal grammatical categories and to organise syntax and discourse coherently, facilitating comprehension of a signed message”, but “interpreters do not always use these features correctly, either because of inadequate signing
skills, ST interference or over/under-compensation of these features during the interpreting process” (2013, 289). Furthermore, she identifies a gap in signed language interpreter training when she says: “Participants perceived interpreters as leaving training institutions without possessing adequate interpreting skills” (Wehrmeyer, 292).

The two examples discussed above point out the need to provide specific training in the interpreting profession according to the area in which the trainee is expected to act. Even a general training in interpreting might fail to produce an interpreter who is capable of working as a court interpreter, a conference interpreter, a community interpreter and a signed language interpreter at the same time.

The lesson that can be drawn here is: If translating and interpreting cannot be researched in the same way, the development of these two professions should not rest on the same foundation. Each needs its own theoretical foundation and, hence, its own teaching approach. Again, it is clear that the training of interpreters, especially in the most specialized forms of interpreting, is an activity that needs to be prioritized and not simply left as a by-product of the general training offered to translators. The next section describes how translators act out their role.

2.8 Techniques translators use in acting out their role

Regardless of the diversity and complexity of translation genres, the translator seems to be aided by the *skopos*, “a technical term for aim or purpose of a translation” (Vermeer 1989, 227). Vermeer (1989, 227) asserts that the “skopos and mode of realization must be adequately defined if the text-translator is to fulfil his task successfully”. This implies that studying the translation brief stating its purpose and mode of delivery is an initial and crucial step that may lead to the production of adequate translations.

In addition to knowing the purpose of a translation, in discharging of his or her duty, the translator needs to be aware of the strategic process leading to a successful completion of the project. According to Aula Int (2005, 137), this process involves a series of tasks which translators must carry out from the
moment they receive a translation brief until the delivery of the final product, namely:

- documentation, both in the source and the target languages;
- terminology;
- translation;
- revision, edition, and desktop publishing.

Documentation, terminology, revision, edition and desktop publishing are closely related to what Kelly (2005, 32-33) calls professional and instrumental competence in that they involve the use of “documentary resources of all kinds, terminological research, [and] information management for these purposes”. At the same time, these tasks are linked to what this author calls subject competence and strategic competence in so far as the following skills are concerned: access to specialized documentation to solve translation problems, self-assessment and revision (Kelly 2005, 32-33).

The third category in this series of tasks – translation – is apparently the most important one. It can be related to what Schäffner (2000, 146, 148) calls transfer competence, “i.e. ability to produce target texts that satisfy the demands of the translation task”. Likewise, it can, again, be linked to Kelly’s (2005, 33) strategic competence where organizational and planning skills as well as problem-identification and problem-solving abilities are put into practice.

The descriptions of types of translation and procedures provided by previous scholars throw light on how translation can be done according to its specific objectives. For example, Vinay and Darbelnet’s (2004, 128) model distinguishes between “direct, or literal translation and oblique translation”. According to these scholars, direct or literal translation is that in which “it may be possible to transpose the source language message element by element into the target language” (Vinay and Darbelnet 2004, 128). Two factors enabling this type of translation are: parallel categories (structural parallelism) and parallel concepts (metalinguistic parallelisms) (Vinay and Darbelnet 2004, 128). On the other hand, oblique translation is done when “because of structural or metalinguistic differences, certain stylistic effects cannot be transposed into the TL without
upsetting the syntactic order, or even the lexis” (Vinay and Darbelnet 2004, 128).

With regard to direct or literal translation, the following procedures may be used: borrowing, calque and literal or word for word translation. Borrowing can be employed to overcome a lacuna, usually a metalinguistic one, such as a new technical process or an unknown concept; calque is “a special kind of borrowing whereby a language borrows an expression form of another, but then translates each of its elements”; while literal or word for word translation is the direct transfer of a source-language text into a grammatically and idiomatically appropriate target-language text “in which the translator’s task is limited to observing the adherence to the linguistic servitudes of the TL” (Vinay and Darbelnet 2004, 129-130).

With regard to the last procedure above, it is noteworthy that Newmark (1998, 68) approves of it when he states that “literal translation is correct and must not be avoided, if it secures referential and pragmatic equivalence to the original”. He goes further when he says that literal translation “is the first step in translation, and a good translator abandons a literal version only when it is plainly inexact or, in the case of a vocative or informative text, badly written” (Newmark 1998, 76).

However, Vinay and Darbelnet (2004, 130) acknowledge that literal translation “is most common when translating between two languages of the same family (e.g. between French and Italian), and even more so when they also share the same culture”. Furthermore, these authors concede that, under certain circumstances, the employment of the three above-mentioned procedures (borrowing, calque and literal or word-for-word) may not solve translation problems. This would be the case when the literally translated message:

(i) gives another meaning, or
(ii) has no meaning, or
(iii) is structurally impossible, or
(iv) does not have a corresponding expression within the metalinguistic experience of the TL, or
Such cases would require the employment of the following four oblique translation procedures: transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation. Transposition “involves replacing one word class with another without changing the meaning of the message”; modulation “is a variation of the form of the message, obtained by a change in the point of view”; equivalence involves rendering “one and the same situation” by “two texts using completely different stylistic and structural methods”; and adaptation “is used in those cases where the type of situation being referred to by the SL message is unknown in the TL culture” (Vinay and Darbelnet, 2004 132-135). When trying to solve a translation problem, it is important for the translator to bear in mind that “several of these methods [including the literal translation ones] can be used within the same sentence, and that some translations come under a whole complex of methods so that it is difficult to distinguish them” (Vinay and Darbelnet 2004, 137).

On the other hand, Nida (2004, 153-254) cites five different types of translation, namely:

(i) ultraliteral translations (e.g., interlinear);
(ii) translations involving highly concordant relationships (e.g., the same source-language word being always translated by only one receptor-language word);
(iii) overtraditional and even archaizing translations (despite being quite devoid of artificial restrictions in form);
(iv) translations aiming at very close formal and semantic correspondence (but full of notes and commentary); and
(v) translations whose aim is to create in the reader something of the same mood as was conveyed by the original.

According to Nida (2004, 154), such differences in types of translation are due to three basic factors, namely “(1) the nature of the message, (2) the purpose or purposes of the author and, by proxy, of the translator, and (3) the type of audience”. However, he argues that “there are fundamentally two different types of equivalence: one which may be called formal and another which is primarily
dynamic” (Nida 2004, 156). Since the focus of formal equivalence is the message itself (in both form and content), the translator “is concerned with such correspondences as poetry to poetry, sentence to sentence, and concept to concept” (Nida 2004, 156). In other words, in this translation the translator aims at making sure that the receptor-language message matches “as closely as possible the different elements in the source language” (Nida 2004, 156).

In contrast, Nida (2004, 156) theorizes that

A translation of dynamic equivalence aims at complete naturalness of expression, and tries to relate the receptor to modes of behaviour relevant within the context of his own culture; does not insist that he (the translator) understand the cultural patterns of the source-language context in order to comprehend the message.

This type of translation matches the concept of meaning-based translation proposed by Larson (1984, 16), who argues that the goal of the translator should be to produce idiomatic translations, which “use the natural forms of the receptor language, both in the grammatical constructions and in the choice of lexical items”.

At this juncture, it must be said that, since translating may require more than simply following a recipe for good translation, a set of reminders such as the following may be timely:

[A translator] should be conscious of his twofold responsibility and must serve both the author of the work he translates and his readers as well as he possibly can. What a translator has to work with are texts. These texts may be structured in a variety of ways… The task of the translator is to transfer, as faithfully as he possibly can, the message of the original, even that part of the message that is carried by the form and structure of the original (Malmqvist 2005, 3-4).

In summary, in order to succeed in acting out their role, translators need to:

1. Determine the goal of a translation; and
2. Follow an appropriate strategy to achieve such a goal.

The next section is devoted to exploring types of interpreting services and strategies to deliver them.
2.9 Types of interpreting and interpreting strategies

It is, perhaps, fitting to begin this section by noting that, as is the case of Translation Studies, Interpreting Studies “has developed into a remarkably heterogeneous series of loosely connected paradigms”, which has resulted in a lack of cohesiveness (Pöchhacker and Shlesinger 2002, 4). Consequently, there is still no agreement among experts, for instance, “whether court interpreting needs to be regarded as an area of community-based interpreting; whether media interpreting or diplomatic interpreting are special types of conference interpreting; or whether business and psychiatric interpreting should both be subsumed under liaison interpreting” (Pöchhacker and Shlesinger 2002, 4). As a result, scholars’ use of terminology found in interpreting studies is at times contradictory.

For example, De Groot (1997, 26) suggests that simultaneous and consecutive interpreting are two main versions in which interpreting occurs, arguing that “In both of them, input as well as output consist of speech, but the two differ in the timing of the input and the output relative to one another”. In contrast, Gile (1998, 40-41) considers conference interpreting and community interpreting to be “specialized forms of professional interpreting”, listing them together with business interpreting, court interpreting and signed language interpreting. On the other hand, Alexieva (2002, 220) uses the term “interpreter-mediated events” to talk about conference interpreting, court interpreting, community/dialogue interpreting and TV interpreting, although she agrees with Gile (1998, 40-41) in viewing consecutive and simultaneous interpreting as modes of interpreting.

Meanwhile, Jiang (2007, 2-3) makes a distinction between conference interpreting and community interpreting, in which she suggests that the latter encompasses dialogue interpreting, liaison interpreting, court interpreting, public service interpreting, medical or health care interpreting, business interpreting, telephone interpreting, TV interpreting/media interpreting and sign language interpreting. Likewise, she refers to consecutive interpreting and simultaneous interpreting as “types of interpreting”, while Gile (1998, 40-41) considers these to be “modes” of interpreting. Jiang (2007) in some manner
agrees with the Healthcare Interpretation Network (2007,10), which says that “Other terms have been used to describe community interpreting such as ‘public service interpreting’, ‘cultural interpreting’, ‘dialogue interpreting’, ‘institutional interpreting’, ‘liaison interpreting’ and ‘ad hoc interpreting’”.

Finally, Horváth (2016, 139) suggests a categorization of interpreting services based on (1) mode of interpreting: for example, consecutive interpreting, simultaneous interpreting and chuchotage; and (2) subject- and/ or venue-based types of the interpreting event: for example, judicial, medical, church, community or conference interpreting.

Therefore, it can be seen that scholars diverge in the use of terms frequently occurring in IS. Nevertheless, despite this lack of consistency in framing the different phenomena in interpreting, finding conceptual definitions of key terms used in literature is important because it can help understand the different services that interpreters are expected to provide and how they should act out their role. Thus the next subsections attempt to catalogue and define different forms of interpreting services.

2.9.1 Conference interpreting

The Healthcare Interpretation Network (2007, 11) defines conference interpreting as a “form of interpreting that takes place in a conference typesetting, often interpreting speeches or presentations”, adding that it “may be either consecutive or simultaneous in mode, but involves the interpreter working in ‘one direction’ of language transfer only; usually from one language into their first or preferred language”. However, it appears that the “one direction” rule of language transfer advocated here is not shared by all interpreting studies scholars.

In view of the metamorphoses that conference interpreting has undergone over the years, having rendered it fit to describe the interpreting activities in various contexts from international conferences proper, or meetings, to radio and TV programmes, to lectures, to official State visits, and so on, Gile (1998, 40-41) considers the term a misnomer. For him, what distinguishes conference interpreting from other forms of interpreting today are its modes (consecutive
and simultaneous), and its high performance level (Gile 1998, 41). This scholar suggests that most conference interpreters may have two or three working languages, divided into A language(s), B language(s) or C language(s) (Gile 1998, 41). Thus, *A language(s)* means “the native tongue(s) of the interpreter or language(s) of which s/he has native or near-native command”; *B language(s)* refers to “non-native language(s) of which the interpreter has sufficient command but not to the same level as an A language”; and *C language(s)* are the interpreter’s passive language(s) (Gile 1998, 41).

Furthermore, unlike the Healthcare Interpretation Network’s premise that conference interpreting “involves the interpreter working in ‘one direction’ of transfer only” (2007, 11.), Gile (1998, 41) states that “Interpreters work into as well as out of their A language(s)”, which he claims is true of B language(s). The only exception is the third language category, where “Interpreters work from a C language into their A or B language, but they do not interpret into a C language” (Gile 1998, 41).

### 2.9.2 Community interpreting

According to Wadensjö (1998, 33), community interpreting is also known as *dialogue interpreting*, or *public service interpreting*, and it refers to the type of interpreting which takes place in the public service sphere to facilitate communication between officials and lay people: at police departments, immigration departments, social welfare centres, medical and mental health offices, schools and similar institutions.

In addition, it “is typically bidirectional and, as a rule, carried out consecutively” (Wadensjö 1998, 33). Moreover, this form of interpreting not only covers interpreting face-to-face situations but also interpreting provided over the telephone (Wadensjö 1998, 33).

The Healthcare Interpretation Network (2007, 10) agrees with the above author when it defines community interpreting as “Bidirectional interpreting that takes place in the course of communication among speakers of different languages”, adding that “The context is the provision of public services such as healthcare
or community services and in settings such as government agencies, community centres, legal settings, educational institutions, and social services”.

It is noteworthy that Jiang (2007, 3) highlights the aspect of bilaterality characterizing community interpreting, “meaning that the interpretation is rendered from a native language (A) to a foreign language (B) back and forth with a high degree of communicative competence required in the two languages both in terms of linguistic and cultural knowledge”. According to Jiang (2007, 3), the other common denominator of all types of community interpreting is “the aspect of communicative event implying that this type of interpreting takes place either in an everyday or in a specialized (institutional) communicative situation”. For Wadensjö (1998, 33), the role of the community interpreter is “as vital to successful communication as that of any other type of interpreter”. In addition, this author is cognizant of the added complexities of a typical interpreting scenario. As Wadensjö (1998, 33) observes:

> While the textual material for conference interpreting largely consists of prepared (often written) monologues in the source language, community interpreters have to handle real-time dialogue: more or less spontaneous and unpredictable exchange of talk between individuals speaking different languages, and they also have to interpret in both directions.

Even though there are other challenging types of face-to-face interpreting, Wadensjö (1998, 33) argues that professional community interpreting, such as in business and diplomatic settings, “differs from most other types of face-to-face interpreting in that it is often understood and/or required to involve a high level of neutrality and detachment”.

Although conference interpreting and community interpreting seem to be the two most comprehensive terms used to describe interpreting activities, a review of the conceptual definitions of other types or forms of interpreting, which are sometimes subsumed under either of these major categories, needs to be undertaken. Again, this knowledge may further clarify the role of an interpreter and how he/she ought to fulfil it.
2.9.3 Court interpreting

According to Gamal (1998, 53), court interpreting “is widely used to refer to any kind of legal interpreting but the courtroom is in fact only one of the several contexts in which legal interpreting may take place”, such as in police departments, customs offices, immigration authorities and barrister’s chambers. Still, as Gamal (1998, 53) points out, courtroom interpreting “has come to occupy a higher position than other types of legal interpreting”.

In terms of the mechanics and logistics of court interpreting, Gamal (1998, 55) shows that the main concern of court interpreting is to enable the client to understand what is going on in the courtroom and, therefore, various forms of interpreting – as well as translation – may be used to achieve this end. For example,

An interpreter might be asked to carry out consecutive interpreting when a witness is in the dock, simultaneous interpreting if the witness or accused is listening to another testimony or following other events in the courtroom (from depositions to sentencing), liaison interpreting outside the courtroom with council, and even chuchotage (i.e. whispered interpreting) in some cases (Gamal 1998, 55).

In exercising this profession, adherence to some basic rules is crucial. For example, use of first person, not sitting too far (in order to avoid acoustic problems for the court and the interpreter) or not sitting too close (in order not to give the impression that the interpreter is not impartial) all play a role in the success an interpreter might have in discharging of his/her duties (Gamal 1998, 55-56). Likewise, interpreters also “need to be briefed about the material they have to deal with, the likely topics to be raised and the documents to be sight-translated” (Gamal 1998, 56).

2.9.4 TV interpreting

Although TV interpreting is relatively less spoken of, it is a very important mode of interpreting in the modern world. According to Pöchhacker (2004, 15), TV interpreting is also called media interpreting or broadcast interpreting and it is “essentially designed to make foreign-language broadcasting content accessible to media users within the socio-cultural community.” This author
adds that “the community dimension of the media setting is fully evident when one considers broadcast interpreting into signed languages.” Showing that the performance of this activity requires adequate training, Andres and Fünfer (2011, 107) observe that the quality of interpreting “is primarily a function of the skills and abilities of the interpreters themselves”, even though it may be affected by technical conditions.

2.9.5 Signed language interpreting

Isham (1998, 231) defines signed languages as “a class of world languages that are received through the visual modality and expressed through manual and non-manual gestures”. This author mentions the differentiation often made between interpreters of spoken language and those of a signed language, who “are typically called ‘sign language interpreters’ or ‘interpreters for the Deaf’” (Isham 1998, 231). However, in Isham’s view, these terms are not satisfying because they only refer to one language or one community being served, while many practitioners simply refer to themselves as ‘interpreters’ “essentially performing the same task as interpreters working between two spoken languages” (Isham 1998, 231). According to Isham (1998, 132), the range of community settings where signed language interpreters work includes doctor’s appointments, schoolrooms, weddings, marriage counselling sessions, job interviews, and even psychotherapy.

Furthermore, with regard to the cognitive processes involved in signed interpreting, Isham (1998, 232) argues that there is little evidence showing that interpreters working between American Signed Language and English, for instance, “perform the task in a different way from spoken language interpreters, […] with the exception, perhaps, of the lower-level processing associated with the different modalities”. In a similar vein, in terms of the mechanics and logistics of this form of interpreting, Isham (1998, 132) states that in large gatherings such as conferences, “the sign interpreter needs to be in full view of the Deaf audience, and so stands next to the source-language speaker rather than sitting in a booth”.

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2.9.6 Consecutive interpreting

Describing the process of delivering consecutive interpreting, Gile suggests that there is a turn-taking between the speaker and the interpreter, where

…the interpreter listens to speech segment for a few minutes or so, takes notes, and then delivers the whole segment in the target language; then the speaker resumes for a few minutes, the interpreter delivers the next segment, and the process continues until the end of the speech (1998, 41).

Meanwhile, De Groot (1997, 26) identifies more subtle differences occurring between consecutive and semi-consecutive interpreting. According to this scholar, in consecutive interpreting, “the speaker completely finishes his or her speech before the interpreter starts his oral rendition”, while in semi-consecutive interpretation, “the speaker segments his or her speech and has the interpreter continue after each segment” (De Groot 1997, 26). That is why Gile (1998, 41) considers that the “sentence-by-sentence’ interpreting often found in liaison and community interpreting is not regarded by conference interpreters as ‘true consecutive”.

2.9.7 Simultaneous interpreting

Salevsky’s (1982, in Alexieva 2002, 221-222) list of varieties of interpreting under simultaneous interpreting shows that this mode of delivery may be:

1. in a booth, without a written source text – this is “SI proper”, with unrepeatable reception of the source text via the auditory channel alone, and with the use of technical equipment;
2. in a booth, with a written source text; the text is thus received via two channels: the auditory and the visual;
3. with the interpreters in the conference hall rather than in the booth but provided with the necessary technical equipment (headphones, microphones, partitions, etc.); or
4. in “half-voice” (chuchotage); this type is described as being closer to CI, because it is carried out without technical equipment and ensures immediate contact and feedback.
Gile (1998, 41) describes simultaneous interpreting in almost the same terms when he says that “the interpreter sits in an interpreting booth, listens to the speaker through a headset and interprets into a microphone while listening”. De Groot (1997, 26) also describes this aspect of simultaneity occurring in this activity in these words: “In simultaneous interpretation, the interpreter listens and speaks at the same time most of the time.” Likewise, Alexieva (2002, 222, states that a “prototypical simultaneous interpreting event (or SI proper) is characterized by non-stop delivery of the source text and parallel production of the target text; [and] this simultaneity can only be achieved with the mediation of ancillary equipment”. However, because interpreting is not only limited to oral speeches, Gile (1998, 41) says that simultaneous interpreting “is also done by signed language interpreters (or interpreters for the deaf) from a spoken into a signed language and vice versa”.

2.9.8 Whispered interpreting

This mode of delivery is also called chuchotage or half-voice. Alexieva (2002, 222) defines whispered interpreting as “a peripheral type of simultaneous interpreting [which] is usually resorted to when it is not feasible to use ancillary equipment, for instance when interpreting has to be provided for one or two speakers of a minority language”. Similarly, Gile (1998, 41) defines whispered interpreting as “a form of simultaneous interpreting in which the interpreter does not sit in a booth but in the conference room, next to the delegate who needs the interpreting, and whispers the target-language version of the speech in the delegate’s ears”.

2.9.9 Liaison interpreting

The list of the main modes of interpreting proposed by Hatim and Mason (1997, 41) includes liaison (together with consecutive and simultaneous interpreting). Likewise, the list suggested by Alexieva (2002, 222-223) includes liaison interpreting alongside simultaneous interpreting, chuchotage and consecutive interpreting. Alexieva (2002, 223) classifies liaison interpreting “as a peripheral member of the CI family of interpreter-mediated events”. For Henri van Hoof
liaison interpreting is “a form of interpreting practiced mainly in commercial negotiations.”

Describing the process of delivering liaison interpreting, Alexieva (2002, 223) says that, as is the case with consecutive interpreting, “there is a consecutive pattern of delivery of the source text and production of the target text”. Still, this scholar explains that “in liaison interpreting the communication tends to consist of spontaneous, improvised pieces of spoken discourse and the setting and communicative intention tends to be more ‘personal’” (Alexieva 2002, 223).

This description is no different than that made by Jiang (2007, 2), who simply says that liaison interpreting “verbalizes the link or contact between different groups of speakers who do not speak the same language”. It appears that liaison interpreting has less pressure and less formality compared to other circumstances where interpreters are called to act out their role. Nonetheless, nothing suggests that the liaison interpreters need less training than those engaged in other modes of interpreting.

2.9.10 The sight translation technique for interpreting

Literature suggests that sight translation can be used as an interpreting technique which may be useful in certain simultaneous interpreting contexts. For example, Gile (1997, 203) indicates that sight translation involves the translator or interpreter translating a source-language text aloud while reading it at the same time. De Groot (1997, 26) also describes this technique in a similar way when he writes: “In Sight translation, there is no speaker delivering a speech but, instead, a written SL text, which the interpreter translates orally into TL”.

Gile (1997, 203) offers some insight on the cognitive processes involved in this activity by saying: “The listening and analysis effort becomes a reading and analysis; the speech production effort remains, but there is no memory effort as in simultaneous or consecutive interpreting because the SL information is available on paper at any time”. This author goes on to distinguish simultaneous interpreting from sight translation when both are used simultaneously. He writes that:
SI with text (the speaker is reading a text that the interpreter also has in the booth) can be performed as a mixture of SI and sight translation going from “pure” SI (without any reference to the text) to “pure” sight translation (without any reference to the sound) (Gile 1997, 204).

Therefore, in view of the cognitive skills required by sight translation, it can be construed that a translator or an interpreter without prior adequate training might not succeed in applying this technique when needed.

In summary, perhaps it is of no benefit to seek a homogeneity in the definition or categorization of the terms used to describe interpreting services and ways in which these are delivered. Nonetheless, in light of the immediacy and spontaneity of the communicative situation required in interpreting, it is evident that interpreters are expected to have a high degree of communicative competence and domain knowledge. This is especially true in cases where such interpreting involves technical language, since here “The technical difficulty of the text may cause problems for the translator” (Danks and Griffin 1997, 168). Documentation and terminological research skills seem to be better used before the interpreting act takes place. That is why these scholars give the following advice: “If the text is on a technical topic, then the translator should be familiar with the topic and have the appropriate background knowledge” (Danks and Griffin 1997, 168).

Following this theoretical background on the definition of the concepts of “translation” and “interpreting” according to various authors, types of translation and interpreting services as well as strategies for delivering them, the next section dwells on translation competence. This concept is important because it can help identify key areas to work on in translator training.

2.10 Insight into translation competence

In Chapter 1 (see section 1.7.4), it was shown that there is still no uniform definition or model of translation competence (Orozco and Albir 2002, 375). This has led to a variety of converging and diverging models based on what each author believes to be the components of translation competence. In Chapter 1, limited examples were given, but this section brings additional examples of translation competence models.
2.10.1 Campbell’s model

Contributing to the debate about the definition of translation competence, it is noteworthy that, in his initial research, Campbell (1991) is cautious not to define translation competence. Instead, he offers what he calls “a tentative model of translation competence”, comprising two basic parts: disposition and proficiency (Campbell 1991, 339). Although this model was briefly reviewed by Magaia (2014, 13) in his previous research, it is worth taking a closer look at it again because of its insights.

According to Campbell (1991, 339), disposition “has to do with attitudes and psychological qualities that the translator brings to the task”. On the other hand, proficiency “has to do with certain special bilingual skills and has a developmental dimension” (Campbell 1991, 339). He claims that disposition can affect the quality of translation in that the translation will reveal the amount of the translator’s risk-taking versus prudence or persistence versus capitulation in the face of difficulties presented by a given text (Campbell 1991, 339). Moreover, proficiency involves lexical coding of meaning, global target language competence and lexical transfer (Campbell 1991, 339).

Notably, in another of his research studies of translation competence, Campbell (1998, 11) points out that most “writing on translation tacitly implies that translation is done into one’s first language”. He disagrees with this stance, contending that “for many parts of the world, translation into the second language is a regular and accepted practice” (Campbell 1998, 12). To consubstantiate his point, Campbell writes:

In virtually any post-colonial society in the developing world where a major European language still has a foothold, there will be people who regularly write and translate in that language as a second language. Similarly, in countries of high immigration, there will be second language speakers of the host language who write and translate in that language (1998, 12).

Note that European language dominance is touched upon here in a favourable light. That is, Campbell acknowledges that ‘regular writing’ in a language that is not one’s mother tongue is common in post-colonial societies. Hence, translating into a second language is also a normal process. Therefore, the author argues for a “model of translation competence for second language
translator education”, which, he proposes, should have three practical purposes, namely:

1. It should provide knowledge about the separate underlying components of translation competence, so that well-motivated curriculum objectives can be designed;
2. It should underpin the sequencing of the translation curriculum; and
3. It should lead to assessment techniques that are valid because they are based on a well-motivated theory of learning (Campbell 1998, 18).

Thereafter, the author rephrases the purposes of a second language translation competence model and says this should at least do the following:

1. It should show whether translation competence is divisible into components, and, if so, describe those components and their inter-relationships;
2. It should be able to describe the developmental pathway taken in learning how to translate; and
3. It should include means for describing the differences between the performance of different translators (Campbell 1998, 18).

In view of his subsequent research, Campbell (1998, 153-154) theorizes a model – that seems to be final – of second language translation competence (see Figure 4 below).

![Figure 4 Campbell’s model of second language translation competence](Source: Campbell (1998, 154))

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TARGET LANGUAGE TEXTUAL COMPETENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>substandard</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DISPOSITION**

- risk-taking vs prudent  
- persistent vs capitulating

**MONITORING COMPETENCE**

- low awareness of quality of output  
- ineffective editing strategies  
- high awareness of quality of output  
- effective editing strategies

Source: Campbell (1998, 154)
Figure 4 above shows that Campbell’s most recent model of second language translation competence comprises three components: (1) target language textual competence, (2) disposition and (3) monitoring competence. In justification of his model, Campbell (1998, 155) claims that these three components could be rephrased as three everyday questions that one might ask about a potential translator (especially a potential translator into the second language): (a) Can they produce translations in stylistically good English? (b) Do they have the right personality for translating? (c) Can they turn out text that needs the minimum of revising?

It is noteworthy that Campbell distances himself from models advocating the training of students to translate only into their mother tongues. However, by way of criticism, Campbell’s argument fails to defend the need to train students to translate into a possible third language in settings like Mozambique, where an African student’s mother tongue is not used in official communications, but where he/she may have been exposed to a European official language plus additional foreign languages through formal education.

2.10.2   Shreve’s model

Equally significant is Shreve’s (1997) contribution, which was briefly reviewed in Magaia (2014, 13-14). This scholar subsumes translation competence under the general heading of communicative competence. He defines translation competence as “a specialized form of communicative competence” (Shreve 1997, 120). Furthermore, Shreve (1997, 120) argues that translation competence “is both knowing about translation and about knowing how to do translation”. From this definition one can glean that translation competence requires more than having theoretical knowledge of translation or even the ability to describe the translation process. As Shreve (1997, 121) puts it, translation competence “is about producing translations that are well formed, referentially accurate with respect to source texts, and socially appropriate in their cultural contexts”. Therefore, translation competence is not some vague concept or knowledge that can be demonstrated intellectually – it requires the production of some tangible products, i.e., acceptable translations.
It is quite significant that Shreve (1997, 121) suggests that translation competence requires a good amount of practicing when he says: “Not everyone can translate; those that learn how to translate do so by acquiring a history of translation experience”. Even though this review will only elaborate on curricular aspects of translator training later on in this chapter, it is timely to note from this suggestion that a curriculum might fail to develop translation competence in students if it does not provide enough time for practicing translation. Despite Shreve’s remarkable contribution, he does not describe the components of translation competence. This makes it difficult to use his definition as an ideal guide for designing appropriate translator training models.

2.10.3 Wills’ model

Another contribution to the definition of translation competence is made by Wills (1976, in Shreve 1997, 122), who sees translation competence as a union of three partial competencies, as follows:

a) a receptive competence in the source language (the ability to decode and understand the source text),

b) a productive competence in the target language (the ability to use the linguistic and textual resources of the target language), and

c) a supercompetence, basically defined as an ability to transfer messages between linguistic and textual systems of the source culture and linguistic and textual systems of the target culture.

From this three-component model, it appears that the most central component is the transfer competence, which he calls a “supercompetence”, because it is the one that proves the translator’s ability to transfer messages from one language and culture into another. However, one can question this model because it basically says what is obvious. It suggests that a translator needs source language reading skills and target language writing skills, but it does not show to which extent the “supercompetence” is important in developing translation competence. In other words, it does not explain what enables a translator to transfer messages between different linguistic and textual systems.
2.10.4 Mason’s model

In his turn, Mason (1998, 31) does not use the term translation competence but, rather, he speaks of a “translator’s communicative competence” consisting of the following four elements:

1) Grammatical competence;
2) Sociolinguistic competence;
3) Discourse competence; and
4) Strategic competence.

The first competence “entails passive command of one and active command of another language system, in the sense of possessing the knowledge and skills required to understand and express accurately the literal meaning of utterances” (Mason 1998, 31). According to the same author, sociolinguistic competence refers to “the translator’s ability to judge the appropriateness of utterances to a context, in terms of such factors as the status of participants, purposes of the interaction and norms and conventions of interaction” (Mason 1998, 31). The third element refers to “the translator’s ability to perceive and produce cohesive and coherent text in different genres and discourses” (Mason 1998, 31). Finally, the strategic competence is “the translator’s ability to repair potential breakdowns in communication and to enhance the effectiveness of communication between source-text producer and target-text receiver” (Mason 1998, 31).

The term “strategic competence” would be greatly capitalized on, as will be seen in some of the next models of translation competence reviewed in this chapter, showing that Mason’s contribution is invaluable. However, this model seems to be a mere transfer of the linguistics concept of communicative competence (See Saleh 2013), which makes it less elucidative in describing translation competence development.
2.10.5 Neubert’s model

Similarly, Neubert (2000, 6) suggests that translators should develop what he calls “translational competence”, comprising the following five parameters:

1) Language competence;
2) Textual competence;
3) Subject competence;
4) Cultural competence; and
5) Transfer competence.

In defence of his theory, Neubert (2000, 7) says that “no doubt, language competence is a *sine qua non* of translation”. In other words, “a near-perfect knowledge of the niceties of the grammatical and the lexical systems of the source and target languages are basic ingredients of translation competence” Neubert (2000, 7). This competence includes, in particular, “a knowledge of the repertoires of the languages for special purposes, i.e. terminologies as well as preferred syntactic and morphological conventions” Neubert (2000, 8).

Textual competence will allow the translators to “identify textual features in addition to linguistic ones”, especially in the case of specialized texts such as technical, legal or even literary (Neubert 2000, 8). Regarding subject competence, this scholar says that this competence is related to textual competence, and signifies “the familiarity with what constitutes the body of knowledge of the area a translation is about” (Neubert 2000, 8). However, he warns that subject competence can “almost never be exhaustive” (Neubert 2000, 8). Thus, this author admits the limitation of a translator’s subject knowledge when he says that “Subject knowledge, i.e. encyclopaedic as well as highly specialist knowledge, is, of course, not necessarily active for [translators], and available all the time” (Neubert 2000, 9). Nevertheless, he argues that translators “must know the ways and means of how to access this [specialist knowledge] when they need it” (Neubert 2000, 9).

With regard to cultural competence Neubert (2000, 10) believes that literary and technical texts are often culture-bound and, therefore, “Translators cannot but mediate between the culture of the sender and that of the recipient”. Finally, for
this scholar the most important of these five sub competences is the transfer competence because it is here where translators have to bring about the transfer by employing “the tactics and strategies of converting L1 texts into L2 texts” (Neubert 2000, 10). This aspect is crucial because it is “not enough to know about translating, it has to be done” (Neubert 2000, 10; emphasis in original).

The emphasis on practical knowledge of translation in this model is remarkable. It stresses the need to develop translator training curricula in such a way that students are not only capable of describing translation phenomena, but also able to produce quality translations. One may, however, point out that, when it comes to illustrating how a translator training curriculum can be developed based on a definition or model of translation competence, Neubert’s model is as silent as the ones that have so far been reviewed.

2.10.6 Presas’ model

As shown in Chapter 1 (see section 1.7.4), Presas (2000, 28) argues that, during the translation process, the translator effectively mobilises the following kinds of knowledge and skills: (1) Knowledge of the two languages; (2) Knowledge of the real world and of the material; (3) The ability to use tools (e.g. dictionaries and other sources of documentation); and (4) Cognitive qualities (e.g. creativity and attention, capacity to resolve specific problems). Based on previous studies, Presas (2000, 19) asserts that “bilingual competence, while a necessary condition, is not in itself sufficient to guarantee translation competence, at least not in the academic sense of the term”. But she does not dismiss the role of bilingual competence altogether. She views bilingualism as preliminary stage to the development of translation competence and, therefore, “the translator must achieve sufficient mastery of his or her working languages (Presas 2000, 21; emphasis in original). Presas (2000, 21) further observes that

In terms of language skills, the notion bilingual is generally associated with someone capable of expressing himself or herself in two different languages, that is, bilingualism is identified prescriptively with the active or productive use of both languages” (emphasis in original).
Thus, from a prescriptive point of view, Presas considers that receptive and productive skills refer to the reception and production of texts. Presas’ (2000, 21-22) conceptualization of the bilingual competence in terms of specific language skills can be seen in Table 1 below.

Table 1 Specialized skills in the translator and interpreter according to Presas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Oral reception</th>
<th>Oral production</th>
<th>Written reception</th>
<th>Written production</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>L2</td>
<td></td>
<td>L1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inverse translation</td>
<td>L1</td>
<td>L2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct interpreting</td>
<td>L2</td>
<td>L1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inverse interpreting</td>
<td>L1</td>
<td>L2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Presas (2000, 22)

The above table suggests that:

a) Where the translator translates from his or her foreign language (L₂) into his or her mother tongue, or dominant language (L₁), he or she should master L₂ reading skills (written reception) and L₁ writing skills (written production);

b) Where the translator translates from his or her mother tongue, or dominant language (L₁), into his or her foreign language (L₂), he or she should master L₁ reading skills (written reception) and L₂ writing skills (written production);

c) Where the interpreter interprets from his or her foreign language (L₂) into his or her mother tongue, or dominant language (L₁), he or she should master L₂ listening skills (oral reception) and L₁ speaking skills (oral production); and

d) Where the interpreter interprets from his or her mother tongue, or dominant language (L₁), into his or her foreign language (L₂), he or she should master L₁ listening skills (oral reception) and L₂ speaking skills (oral production).
Nothing in such a model suggests a supremacy between the two languages one works with. Unless one has decided to translate or interpret unidirectionally, he/she will find that inverse translation or interpreting (i.e. from native into foreign language) requires the same skills as direct translation or interpreting (i.e. from foreign into native language). No conscientious professional can justify poor products delivered in either language.

Presas (2000, 22-24) finds that bilingual memory plays a role in translation competence, where she distinguishes four types of translators:

1. Associative translator;
2. Subordinated translator;
3. Compound translator; and
4. Coordinated translator.

This scholar does not rule out “the possibility that more than one of these four types could be operative in any given translator, nor that one type or another could be dominant at different stages of a translator’s training process” (Presas 2000, 25). However, she suggests that “the ideal type for expert translation competence is the coordinated translator” (Presas 2000, 25). The reason is because

The coordinated translator associates lexical elements of one language with their own repertory of mental content and then associates the specific mental content of this first repertory with specific mental content of a second repertory, which is associated in turn with lexical elements of the other language; in other words, each language has its own repertory of mental content and the reception-production process clearly distinguishes between the mental content of each language (Presas 2000, 24).

Furthermore, Presas’ (2000, 28) profile of an expert translator outlines the following skills as being at work:

- Specialized linguistic skills;
- Bilingual memory (coordinated);
- Control over interference in both reception and production;
- Heuristic text transference procedure; and
- Cognitive features such as flexibility, lateral thinking, capacity for remote association.
It must be noted that Presas (2000, 28) acknowledges that her and other scholars’ componential models “are still speculative to a great extent”, but she argues that “they do respond to the need to define didactic objectives in the pedagogy of translation”. Presas’ model will be revisited later in this chapter because it has some aspects of translation competence development that merit attention.

2.10.7 Kelly’s model

Correspondingly, Kelly’s (2005, 32) model of translation competence comprises a “useful list of areas of competence desirable in graduates from translation courses for the purpose of… curricular design”. These are:

1. Communicative and textual competence in at least two languages and cultures;
2. Cultural and intercultural competence;
3. Subject area competence;
4. Professional and instrumental competence;
5. Attitudinal or psych-physiological competence;
6. Interpersonal competence; and
7. Strategic competence.

Kelly (2005, 32) suggests that the first competence “covers both active and passive skills in the two languages involved, together with awareness of textuality and discourse, and textual and discourse conventions in the cultures involved”. As for the second competence, Kelly 2005, 32) points out that culture refers not only to encyclopaedic knowledge of history, geography, institutions and so on of the cultures involved (including the translator’s or students’ own), but also and more particularly, values, myths, perceptions, beliefs, behaviours and textual representations of these.

The author also remarks that “Awareness of issues of intercultural communication and translation as a special form thereof is also included” in cultural and intercultural competence (Kelly 2005, 32).

Kelly (2005, 32) also defines subject area competence as “Basic knowledge of subject areas the future translator will/may work in, to a degree sufficient to allow
comprehension of source texts and access to specialized documentation to solve translation problems”. On the other hand, professional and instrumental competence has to do with the use of “documentary resources of all kinds, terminological research, information management for these purposes; use of IT tools for professional practice (word-processing, desktop publishing, data bases, Internet, email…) together with more traditional tools such as fax, Dictaphone” (Kelly 2005, 32-33). This competence also includes “Basic notions for managing professional activity: contracts, tenders, billing, tax; ethics; professional associations” (Kelly 2005, 33).

Attitudinal or psych-physiological competence is related to qualities such as self-concept, self-confidence, attention/concentration, memory and initiative (Kelly 2005, 33). On the other hand, interpersonal competence is the “Ability to work with other professionals involved in translation process (translators, revisers, documentary researchers, terminologists, project managers, layout specialists), and other actors (clients, initiators, users, subject area experts)” (Kelly 2005, 33). This competence also builds team work, negotiation skills and leadership skills. Finally, strategic competence develops organizational and planning skills, problem identification and problem-solving, monitoring, self-assessment and revision (Kelly 2005, 33).

Kelly (2005, 64-65) believes that it is “probably true that there are elements which will be present in the vast majority of initial training courses (whether they be undergraduate or postgraduate), derived from her notion of translation competence above. Notably, however, Kelly (2005, 65) admits that “Whilst it is relatively simple to organize individual teaching modules around traditionally knowledge-based competences, that is not the case with skills-based and even less so with attitude-based competences”. Therefore, Kelly’s model of translation competence is also found inadequate for the purpose of this study of finding a model that can lead to an effective translator and interpreter training curriculum design.
2.10.8 The PACTE Group’s and Göpferich’s models

The models proposed by the PACTE Group (PACTE 2005, 610) and Göpferich (2009, 21-23) have been thoroughly reviewed and compared by Magaia in his previous research (Magaia 2014, 15-18). The PACTE Group’s model consists of five sub-competences and psycho-physiological components, namely:

1. Bilingual;
2. Extra-linguistic;
3. Knowledge about translation;
4. Instrumental; and

Similarly, Göpferich’s model (2009, 21-23.) consists of six components (see figure 6), namely:

1. Communicative competence in at least two languages;
2. Domain competence;
3. Tools and research competence;
4. Translation routine activation competence;
5. Psychomotor competence; and
6. Strategic competence.

The merit of both models resides in that they clearly identify some essential components making up translation competence (PACTE 2005, 610; Göpferich 2009, 21-23). The PACTE Group (2008, 106), for instance, proposes that bilingual sub-competence is predominantly procedural knowledge required to communicate in two languages comprising pragmatic, socio-linguistic, textual, grammatical and lexical knowledge. Göpferich (2009, 22) stresses the importance of communicative competence when she states that “Communicative competence in the source language is relevant primarily for source-text reception, whereas target-language competence determines the quality of the target text produced”. On the other hand, this scholar argues that “Target language receptive competence must not be neglected … because it is needed for monitoring processes in which source-language units and target-language units are compared for semantic equivalence, for example” (Göpferich
These propositions seem undeniable. However, it can be argued that neither model can provide an optimal framework for drafting a conducive training curriculum.

For example, the PACTE Group (2008, 107) argues that TC also “comprises psycho-physiological components that may be defined as different types of cognitive and attitudinal components and psycho-motor mechanisms”. According to this group, such components and mechanisms include cognitive components such as memory, perception, attention and emotion; attitudinal aspects such as intellectual curiosity, perseverance, rigour, critical spirit, knowledge pf 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).

Göpferich (2009, 22) agrees with the PACTE group when she associates the psychomotor competence with “the psychomotor abilities required for reading and writing (with electronic tools)”. Thus, Göpferich (2009, 22-23) argues that “the more developed these competences are, the less cognitive capacity is required, leaving more capacity for other cognitive tasks” while “the poorer the psychomotor skills are, the larger the cognitive capacity required by psychomotor activities is assumed to be”.

Nevertheless, while there is nothing wrong in the aspects referred to in these definitions, one can question what type of modules or course units can be fitted into a curriculum for developing psychomotor or psycho-physiological components in the way they are described in such models. Perhaps these and other aspects may be highlighted both in theoretical and practical translation classes, but it would be doubtful as to whether they deserve special treatment so as to yield specific sub-competencies. The other question one might put is whether such psycho-physiological components cannot be found in other professions. If they can, then they add nothing to the knowledge of the components that truly make up translation competence to enable focus during translator and interpreter training. Likewise, one may question whether “knowledge about translation” and “translation routine activation” are not intrinsic to the strategic competence proposed in both models. It is not quite clear how and when these aspects would be detached during translator training.
2.10.9 EMT model

Likewise, a group of experts known as European Master's in Translation (EMT) proposed a multi-component translation competence model for the training of translators at masters' level (Chodkiewicz 2012). This model has also been reviewed by Magaia (2014, 18-20) in his previous research. According to Chodkiewicz (2012, 39), the six competences making up the EMT model “are considered equally important, yet they are not entirely distinct categories as they are treated as interdependent or even overlapping”. These are:

(1) Translation service provision competence (combining the interpersonal and production dimensions);
(2) Language competence;
(3) Intercultural competence;
(4) Information mining competence;
(5) Thematic competence; and
(6) Technological competence.

Despite some similarities with the PACTE Group’s and Göpferich’s models, the EMT’s model of translation competence adds some perspectives. But, unlike the earlier, this model emphasises the role of translation service provision, which includes two dimensions, namely the interpersonal and production dimensions (Chodkiewicz (2012, 39). On the one hand, the *interpersonal dimension* is concerned primarily with the translator’s social role and with the translator-client relationship, while at the same time it also encompasses elements of planning, management and self-evaluation. Teamwork and complying with professional standards are other aspects subsumed under this category (Chodkiewicz 2012, 39). On the other hand, “The *production dimension* concerns the translation of the text according to the client’s request and the translation situation” (Chodkiewicz 2012, 39).

Chodkiewicz (2012, 40) draws attention to the significant contribution of the EMT model when she states that “some components of particular competences in the EMT reference framework have not been specifically mentioned in other models”. Specifically, identifying translation service provision as a central competence in translator training is a huge step forward in that it provides the
link between the training and the very purpose of training – that a student may provide acceptable translation services after graduation.

Nonetheless, since this model is intended for translator training at Masters’ Level, bearing in mind that this study aims to find an appropriate model for training translators and interpreters at undergraduate level, the EMT model is only reviewed here to allow comparison with other models.

Following this review of various translation competence definitions and models, the next section takes a closer look at interpreting competence.

2.11 Insight into interpreting competence

In view of the unique skills inherent in the interpreting profession, some scholars have attempted to provide what could be called an interpreting competence model. Similar to translation competence, as has just been discussed, interpreting competence is hard to define. Chapter 1 (see section 1.7.5) presented some definitions and models proposed by Gile (1997), Al-Salman and Al-Khanji (2002) and Kermis (2008) to illustrate how interpreting competence means different things to different authors. This chapter presents additional examples.

The first model in this review of literature is found in a document published by the Healthcare Interpretation Network of Canada. Even though such a document has been designed with community interpreting service in mind, it provides some useful insights into interpreting competence.

2.11.1 The Healthcare Interpretation Network’s model

The Healthcare Interpretation Network (2007, 15-16) outlines three major competences encompassing various skills that community interpreters should have (see Table 2 below).
Table 2: The Healthcare Interpretation Network's model of interpreting competence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTERPRETING COMPETENCE</th>
<th>LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE</th>
<th>RESEARCH AND TECHNICAL COMPETENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting skills</td>
<td>Language skills</td>
<td>Interpersonal skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- active listening</td>
<td>- deep knowledge and understanding of working languages and the required range of language registers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- good memory</td>
<td>- mental transposing and verbalizing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- note taking</td>
<td>- knowledge of subject areas and relevant terminology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- mental transposing</td>
<td></td>
<td>- strong communication skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- politeness, respectfulness and tactfulness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- ability to relate well to people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- good judgment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Table generated based on the Healthcare Interpretation Network (2007)

In this model, interpreting skills, language skills and interpersonal skills are respectively outlined under each of the three macro competences proposed by this organization. The first competence “comprises the ability to interpret a message from one language to the other in the applicable mode” and it “includes the ability to assess and comprehend the original message and render it in the target language without omissions, additions or distortions” (Healthcare Interpretation Network 2007, 15). This competence “also includes the knowledge/awareness of the interpreter’s own role in the interpreting encounter” (Healthcare Interpretation Network 2007, 15). According to the Healthcare Interpretation Network (2007, 15), the second competence “includes the ability to comprehend the source language and apply this knowledge to render the message as accurately as possible in the target language”. The third and last competence “includes the ability to efficiently acquire the additional linguistic and specialized knowledge necessary to interpret in specialized cases” (Healthcare Interpretation Network 2007, 16). Notably, the Healthcare Interpretation Network 2007 (16) points out that the research and technical component “also requires experience in the use of research tools and the ability
to develop suitable strategies for the efficient use of the information sources available”.

The contribution of this document to the definition of interpreting competence, especially for community interpreting, is commendable. However, it does not provide a solid foundation for developing a holistic interpreter training model, i.e. a model encompassing the competences or skills expected from interpreters providing different services.

2.11.2 The ALTA’s model

In the same vein, another model can be found in a report prepared by the ALTA Language Services, Inc. for the Judicial Council of California, Administrative Office of the Courts in 2007. Although it focuses specifically on court interpreters, its model of interpreting competence can be elucidative. The model consists of the following skill areas:

(1) Linguistic Skills;
(2) Speaking Skills;
(3) Listening Comprehension Skills;
(4) Reading Comprehension Skills;
(5) Interpreting Skills; and
(6) Behavioral Skills (ALTA 2007, 2).

*Linguistic skills* include, inter alia, native-like proficiency and ability to think and react communicatively in all working languages (ALTA 2007, 2). Similarly, *Speaking Skills* include the ability “to speak with proper pronunciation, diction, and intonation in all working languages”, while *Listening Comprehension Skills* include the ability to listen to and comprehend different rates of speech and various regional accents and/or dialectical differences in all working languages (ALTA 2007, 3). *Reading Comprehension Skills* mean that, among others, the interpreter is able “to read and comprehend overall meaning and specific details of written text in all working languages” as well as “read and recognize various written contexts, including formal and informal text, subject-specific vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, and colloquialisms” (ALTA 2007, 3).
The abilities under *Interpreting Skills* include concentration and focus, processing linguistic information quickly, making quick linguistic decisions regarding word choice or terminology selection, applying short-term memory skills in retaining small units of information, conveying meaning and so forth (ALTA 2007, 3). Finally, the list of *Behavioral Skills* includes practicing and following ethical standards, conducting business in a professional manner, knowledge and awareness of cultural aspects affecting language and so on (ALTA 2007, 3).

Similarly to the previous model, ALTA’s model applies specifically to court interpreters. Although it contains aspects of interpreting competence that are shared by other models, it is not adequate for designing an effective university interpreter training curriculum because it was not conceived for such a purpose.

### 2.11.3 Albl-Mikasa’s model

In her turn, Albl-Mikasa (2013, 19) defines interpreting competence as “the interpreting-specific skills involved in the simultaneous and consecutive modes”. The author distinguishes between interpreter competence and interpreting competence. The former refers to “everything an interpreter needs to know and be able to do to perform a professional task”, while the latter refers to “interpreting proper, that is, the interpreting-specific skills involved in the simultaneous and consecutive modes”. Furthermore, Albl-Mikasa’s (2013, 19) model suggests that an interpreter would need five macro skills and 23 micro skills, as depicted in Table 3 below.
Table 3: Albl-Mikasa’s model of interpreting competence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macro skills</th>
<th>Micro skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Pre-process skills:** | a) High-level command of working languages  
b) Low-key computer-assisted terminology management  
c) A generalist's informed semi-knowledge  
d) Streamlined assignment preparation |
| **Peri-process skills:** | a) Teamwork and a cooperative attitude  
b) Unimposing extrovertedness  
c) Professionalism between instinct and a sense of realism  
d) Pressure resistance and frustration tolerance |
| **In-process skills:** | • Comprehension skills  
a) Below-expert scanning, identifying, and matching  
b) Contextualization  
c) English as a lingua franca (ELF) compensation  
• Transfer skills  
a) Simultaneity  
b) Capacity relief measures  
• Production skills  
a) Synchronicity and decalage modulation  
b) Reduction  
c) Balancing act between high fidelity and audience design  
d) ELF accommodation  
e) Performance, presentation, prosody |
| **Post-process skills:** | a) Terminology wrap-up  
b) Quality control |
| **Para-process skills:** | a) Business know-how, customer relations, and professional standards  
b) Lifelong learning predilection  
c) Meta-reflection |

Source: Table generated based on Albl-Mikasa (2013, 18)

This model is quite revealing, but most of its micro skills seem just suitable for providing reminders in an interpreting class rather than a model for building interpreting competence as a whole.
2.11.4 Fraihat and Mahadi’s model

Finally, after an extensive review of available models of interpreting competence, Fraihat and Mahadi (2013, 183-4) conclude that “it is not easy to come up with a clear cut definition or catalogue for competence, since it incorporates many factors and viewpoints”. However, they propose a catalogue of “shared and distinctive competences, skills and personal traits” making up a professional consecutive and simultaneous interpreter’s competence (Fraihat and Mahadi 2013, 184), depicted in Table 4 below:

Table 4: Fraihat and Mahadi’s model of interpreting competence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shared Competences Required for PCSIs</th>
<th>Distinctive Cognitive Competences for Consecutive Interpreter</th>
<th>Distinctive Cognitive Competences for Simultaneous Interpreters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Linguistic Competence in the working languages (SL and TL) including grammar, Lexical &amp; Discourse Analysis</td>
<td>1. Long term memory</td>
<td>1. Short term memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Transfer Competence (Efficiency)</td>
<td>2. Concentration and pacing note taking intervals with listening and then TL oral production</td>
<td>2. Concentration and pacing listening, comprehension and coordination and TL oral production opportunely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Cultural and societal Competence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Strategic Competence (Communication &amp; interaction)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Extra Linguistic Knowledge in specialized areas (Academic, political, legal, business, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shared Physical and Personal Traits Required for PCSIs</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Physical and personal traits (mental and physical stress tolerance, monitoring responses, situation adaptation,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Willingness and motivation to be interpreters</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ethical Viability (Neutrality) trait</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shared Skills Required for PCSIs</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Public speaking skills, emotional intelligence skills i.e., anticipat[ing] the meaning of paralinguistic features).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Verbal and non-verbal communication skills.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Fraihat and Mahadi’s (2013, 184) catalogue
Fraihat and Mahadi (2013, 185) conclude their study by saying that the competences required of professional consecutive and simultaneous interpreters “are almost the same irrespective of diverse terminologies used by some interpretation scholars”. From their model, especially where they highlight the shared competences, one can gain some inputs for interpreter training curriculum planning. However, other details would inspire syllabus design more than the curriculum itself.

Thus far, we have seen that translation competence and interpreting competence can be defined in different ways, but these concepts are usually seen as sets comprising different skills, abilities, kinds of knowledge, attitudes and qualities. A critical question that still remains is: Which model can best guide the design of a successful translator and interpreter training curriculum? Therefore, the next section examines what literature has to say about models for designing a conducive curriculum, which is the study’s most important question.

2.12 Which model for designing a conducive curriculum?

Hatim and Mason (1997, 7) warn that it should not be assumed that translating and interpreting have little in common. Thus, these scholars suggest that effective translator/interpreter training programmes are those that do not separate translating and interpreting, since both activities are marked by commonalities in using communication strategies (Hatim and Mason 1997, 7). Similarly, although the concepts of translation and interpreting are different, Asensio (2007, 87) notes an increasing overlap between translating and interpreting as professional activities, “which can give rise to repetition (or omission) in the curriculum between Translation and Interpreting courses”.

These scholars raise the urgent question about how an effective curriculum for translator and interpreter training can be designed. Yet, the answer can be difficult to find. As Göpferich (2009, 23-24) observes: “Since…the translation competence models developed so far are still rather vague, it is obviously even more complicated to develop a translation competence acquisition model”.

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Nonetheless, significant contributions to translator and interpreter training curriculum development are available in literature.

For example, Presas (2000, 29) theorizes that

the development of translation competence consists basically of three kinds of processes: (1) the acquisition of previously non-existent competences; (2) the restructuring of already existing competences in order to facilitate transfer competence; (3) the acquisition of strategic competence.

In a similar vein, this scholar suggests that from the psycholinguistic point of view, the acquisition and development of the transfer competence consists of the following three processes:

(a) Specialising in communicative competence in two languages (oral, or written, reception or production);
(b) Restructuring, reorienting and broadening the mechanisms of code-switching and bilingual memory; and
(c) Integrating a mechanism to control interference (Presas 2009, 29).

This model suggests that a practical curriculum recognizes competence gaps that students entering training may have and tries to address them at the same time as it supplements their previous competence with a view to boosting their transfer competence. The ultimate goal is to help students to achieve strategic competence, that is, their practical knowledge of how to do translation. Presas' psycholinguistic inputs can be interpreted as implying that the development of communicative competence in the two languages is an initial critical step in a translation curriculum. But it appears that immediately afterwards, or even simultaneously, the curriculum should enable starting the development of translation competence by enhancing student's contrastive skills when translating.

On the other hand, before introducing a course structure for training functional translators, Nord (2005, 214) points to the long-held debate about the relationship between theory and practice when she writes: “There is often a debate on whether to start with theory (in a kind of land drill) or with practice (in a kind of swim-or-sink procedure)”. She adopts neither approach; instead, she is in favour of what she calls “a pig-tail method: starting out with a small portion of theory, which is then applied to practice, where the need for more theory
becomes obvious, which is then satisfied by another portion of theory, and so on” (2005, 215).

Nord explains why she rejects the two approaches in these words:

The land-drill procedure soon becomes sterile because when the students start practising they will have forgotten what they have learnt in theory, and the swim-or-sink procedure has the great disadvantage of risking that the students acquire bad translation habits which have to be cured afterwards (2005, 215).

This suggests that a good curriculum would seek to balance theory and practice, and the latter should be given more attention than the former. It is interesting that Nord’s pig-tail method is cautious about prescribing theory as an essential ingredient to developing a student’s professional competence. Table 5 below shows Nord’s curricular structure.

**Table 5: Nord’s curricular structure for training technical translators**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semester</th>
<th>Topics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>introduction to the theoretical and methodological concepts of intercultural communication and translation;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>introduction to translation practice of both general and specialized texts, into the native and into the foreign language, with constant references to the theoretical background;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>practical periods and/or university studies abroad;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-7</td>
<td>practice and theory of specialized translation, terminology, use of both traditional and electronic translation aids and tools, practical part of the final exams;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>diploma thesis and colloquium (i.e. theoretical part of the final exams).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Table generated based on Nord (2005, 215)
On the other hand, Asensio (2007, 88) is more vocal when he argues that in designing translator-/interpreter training curriculum “it would be disastrous … to depend on theory for the development of practice”, since the “development of translation theory is only incipient, and depends to a great extent on information drawn from professional practice” (Asensio 2007, 88). Moreover, he identifies a weakness in translation theory when he states that it “does not cover all aspects of translation process, all its problems or all its resources, and when it does cover an aspect, it does not do so in a reliable fashion” (Asensio 2007, 88). Therefore, Asensio (2007, 88) finds it “more efficient to introduce practical experience of translation before any attempt to theorize”, although he admits it is practically impossible to avoid an overlap between theory and practice.

Therefore, the lesson that can be learnt is that an effective curriculum aims at balancing theory and practice. There is no doubt that translation students do need to be “aware of some of the processes and principles that operate within translation theory” (Lockett 1996, 280) to operate well, but a practical curriculum would certainly avoid the academicizing trend which only leaves students with too much authority to talk about translation and interpreting but with little capacity to translate or interpret.

In the same vein, Yazici (2004, 311) offers a glimpse of the translator and interpreter training curriculum of a Turkish university when she says that: “The subjects in the curriculum are arranged in a hierarchy to establish both vertical and horizontal relations between the subjects and aim at developing the cognitive skills of the trainee to bridge professional and theoretical knowledge.” The curriculum comprises both theoretical and practical modules (see Table 6 below).
Yazici’s (2004, 312) curriculum suggests a strong emphasis on theoretical and practical modules that are directly related to translator and interpreter training. As this author explains:

Moreover, subjects related both to the applied and to the theoretical field are placed in a logical sequence to complement one another. For example, while trainees are instructed in translation for specific purposes, they can apply methods they have learned in classes on translation research techniques and on how to retrieve information for translation. The practical learning in the first years can thus be applied in theoretical classes in the following years, to rationalise the reasons why the trainee has had to give up conventional methods and past habits of translation (Yazici 2004, 312).
The above curriculum is no doubt praiseworthy for emphasising a strong translation-oriented content, but one may find it intriguing that the same omits a module aimed at boosting student’s professional identity. This contradicts Yazici’s (2004, 312) own statement that “The aim of translation pedagogics is to provide trainees with a professional identity” and that this is achieved “only when trainees develop self-confidence based on knowledge, which will provide them with a professional identity as opposed to the amateurish identity many critics attribute to them”. Other scholars have argued that such a “professional identity” is not only made possible by translating or interpreting well, but also by knowing how to interact with the market (See Kelly 2005, 32-33).

In contrast, Kiraly (2016, 130) criticizes the current curricula in place in Europe when he observes that:

In today’s Bologna-influenced translation-studies curricula, skills and knowledge to be acquired are commonly represented with geometrical shapes or containers that are labelled with learning outcomes to represent the achievement of predefined educational outcomes and objectives – which may or may not be aligned with the demands of the market.

Referring to the curricular framework of the MA in Translation programme at his university, Kiraly (2016, 131) observes that students choose from a list of modules that comprises either three or four courses available in a given semester, where there is “no room for progression in terms of difficulty, complexity, depth of topics – or pedagogical approach.” He goes as far as stating:

The panoply of courses offered becomes little more than a patchwork quilt of content to be accumulated in a sequence that is based more on the chance of getting into classes one wants to take and fitting them into one’s schedule than anything else (Kiraly 2016, 131).

Clearly, this scholar is pointing to a crisis in finding an effective translator training model experienced even in Europe. Hence, Kiraly (2016, 137-8) proposes a multi-vortex model of translator competence development which emphasises the role of experience afforded by different sets of sources such as (1) tasks and projects, (2) material and human resources, (3) personal and interpersonal dispositions and (4) ideational, cultural and linguistic resources leading to the development of instrumental, thematic, inter-personal, organizational, inter-
cultural and communicative competences. Kiraly (2016, 137) justifies his model by saying that

rather than having a smorgasbord of courses to be sampled in modules spread over a course of study, the model suggests that there can be a progression in terms of learning and also presumably with respect to teaching strategies over the course of a programme of studies, as students move along the continuum from novice to competent or even proficient or expert translator.

Finally, with regard to the current trends in the training of interpreters, Dewolf (2016) refers to a model crafted in light of the Bologna Declaration in place in the European Higher Education Area since 2010. Dewolf (2016, 120) observes that

the interpreting programme trains students to be able to deal with any type of written production (commercial, legal, literary, political, technical...) and to transmit contents in an immediate fashion while respecting the context and the speaker’s intent”.

This scholar (2016, 120) further says that the “programme focuses on the discipline through a practical pedagogical approach.” Such a programme requires that the student take 3 years to complete the first cycle (bachelor’s degree) in Translation and Interpreting, and one year to complete the second cycle (master’s degree) in translation or interpretation.

As can be seen, in such a model only at a later stage (MA level) can a student be given training to be able “to translate specialists’ speeches either simultaneously or consecutively” (Dewolf 2016, 120). Moreover, the master’s programme “includes a compulsory professional internship, which gives students an actual opportunity to apply their new skills to the professional world” (Dewolf 2016, 120). Evidently, this model is not suitable for someone looking for a training model at undergraduate level in a context such as Mozambique, where the first cycle (BA Honours) takes four years and it is unlikely for the majority of graduates to engage in MA level training immediately afterwards.

In fact, statistics show that even in the EHEA BA graduates do not automatically continue to the next cycle. According to a European Commission report (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice 2015, 62), the number of European countries where 76-100 % students continue to the second cycle shrunk from 13 in 2011 to 6 in 2014, and although the share of students continuing to MA
remained in the 76-100 % interval in some of these six countries, it had decreased during that period. The report conjectures that, among various reasons, “it is also possible that students do not continue higher education studies for economic reasons” (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice 2015, 62). Therefore, a BA training model that relies on continued MA studies for full development of professional competences is far from ideal.

It is fair to conclude that, as yet, European models of translation and interpreting competence development have not yielded satisfactory BA level training models and curricula, which could be exported to other regions. The goal of becoming a competent translator or interpreter is increasingly becoming beyond reach of undergraduate students, thereby forcing them to aim higher for a masters’ level where there are good chances that they may still come out unprepared for the market demands. Nonetheless, although the models discussed above are not the same, they are positive because they all put an emphasis on developing specific-area cognitive skills through theory and practice leading to the professionalization rather than academicization of translation or interpreting students.

At this juncture, to further provide the context of this study, a brief review of previous UEM translation studies is conducted in the next section.

2.13 Insights from previous UEM studies

The findings of previous studies conducted by UEM researchers, thoroughly reviewed by Magaia (2014, 39-43), consistently suggest that the training model followed by this university is ineffective. Although these studies primarily focus on improving Portuguese language didactics at UEM, they reveal to a great extent how translation students seriously lack communicative competence in that language. For example, according to Siopa et al. (2003, 7), the main problem UEM students face when writing is their inability to produce formal error-free texts. UEM students’ writings are marked by poor spelling and grammatical mistakes. A similar study conducted by Gonçalves and Siopa (2005) yielded comparable results. On the other hand, Felimone’s (2007) and
Companhia’s (2009) studies conclude that UEM students’ problems are mainly syntax, text organization and lexical choice.

Realizing an important research gap at UEM regarding the impact of poor source-language (English) command on the quality of students’ translations, Magaia (2014) conducted a study involving UEM students and lecturers with a focus on barriers to developing student’s translation competence. The study concludes that curricular, attitudinal/motivational, pedagogical and instrumental factors, coupled with substandard language skills, hamper the development of translation competence (Magaia 2014, 77-83). Magaia’s (2014, 37-38) study also draws attention to the fact that the curriculum in place at UEM allocates too little time to translation competence development. Therefore, the next section takes a closer look at the model that has been followed at UEM in training translators and interpreters.

2.14 UEM translator/interpreter training model under scrutiny

Neither the original nor the mutated formats of the translation/interpreting course curriculum are fashioned after a clear translation or interpreting competence model. For instance, in its original structure (see Annexure VI), English and Portuguese learning took the largest amount of the contact time, that is, 40% (23% and 17% respectively). Theoretical and practical Translation and Interpreting modules were allotted 30% of the learning time, where theory took 12% and translation practice and interpreting practice each took 9% of the contact time. Linguistics, literature and study skills together were allocated 18% of the time, that is 6% each, while the rest of the time (12%) was for free elective courses. Although it was not formally written in any of UEM guiding documents, one cannot help but conclude from its initial curriculum format that there was a belief that language mastery was by far the most important requirement for students to become translators and interpreters.

Likewise, in its current format, the translation curriculum (see Annexure VII), which, as has already been mentioned, no longer includes the interpreting component, seems to favour language mastery and descriptive linguistics and literature more than the development of translation competence in itself.
According to the latest prospectus published by the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences (FLCS 2011), UEM currently has a compulsory core curriculum comprising many modules whose applicability to translation or interpreting is questionable. On the other hand, most of the so-called optional modules now on offer at UEM contribute little or nothing to developing translation or interpreting competence.

In addition, the extant UEM translator-training programme is built on three of the so-called four pillars of learning. For instance, with regard to “learning to know”, which is the first pillar, the FLCS prospectus (FLCS 2011, 128) says that the student should have knowledge of basic linguistic theory, key concepts in literary theory, key translation theories, key interpreting concepts, key concepts for terminological analysis, Portuguese and foreign-language structures and techniques for textual analysis. However, there is a blatant inconsistency in this document when it mentions “key interpreting concepts” while it omits practical training in interpreting skills.

Likewise, on “learning to do”, which is the second pillar, the FLCS prospectus (2011, 128) says that the student is expected to (1) translate various texts with different registers, including specialized texts from the student’s foreign language into Portuguese and (2) consult and manage terminology databases and information sources. Nevertheless, it makes no mention of developing the student’s competence to translate into his/her foreign language.

Finally, in terms of the third pillar, “learning to be” (FLCS 2011, 129), the student is supposed to:

1. be sociable and willing to work in a team and share experiences;
2. be able to manage diversity and change in the workplace and in society in general;
3. be aware of the world in general and Mozambique in particular, from a historical, artistic and literary point of view;
4. be capable of formulating informed ethical and aesthetical judgments which are relevant to the domain of his/her professional performance;
5. be capable of taking initiative, making choices and bearing responsibility for his/her choices; and
6. enterprising and predisposed to accept risks.

However, in practice, the current curriculum at UEM has failed to allocate sufficient time to translation competence development as a whole. As a case in point, although English learning is still given more time (22%) than Portuguese (15%), English and Portuguese descriptive linguistics and other modules such as Introduction to Linguistics, Introduction to Literature, Introduction to Linguistic Anthropology, History of Ideas, Mozambican Literature and Culture, among others, take up to 46% of the learning time, while theoretical and practical translation modules only receive 7% and 10% respectively. Moreover, the allocation of such modules to the translation curriculum was not based on any empirical study suggesting the validity of these modules, nor is there a translation competence model at UEM that can be referred to in assessing its translator training course. Furthermore, today’s translation curriculum does not include any specific module helping students to be “enterprising and predisposed to accept risks”, as claimed in the FLCS prospectus (2011, 129).

It is noteworthy that the issue of imbalance in terms of disciplines offered in a translation course has been studied by Kogut et al. (2009, 464-481) in Brazilian universities. Their study finds that most universities in Brazil have a striking imbalance in terms of subjects taught in both specialized and non-specialized translation courses. Furthermore, Kogut et al. (2009, 481) conclude from their findings that, despite the fact that translation studies has evolved as a discipline, there is still a trend to believe that linguistic competence per se is the core of translation competence – at times even construed as the competence itself.

To conclude this review of the current UEM training model, a summary is provided below outlining the main concerns raised in this section. It can be said that the UEM curriculum:

1. is not built on a clear translation and interpreting competence model;
2. does not enable the acquisition of interpreting skills;
3. lays emphasis on language competence and linguistics-/literature-based modules;
4. allocates too little time to the development translation competence; and
5. does not enhance learner’s ability to translate let alone interpret into English.

2.15 Conclusion

This chapter showed, through a review of sources, that translation and interpreting competence means different things for different authors. Nonetheless, the different models of translation and interpreting competence highlighted the kind of knowledge, skills and attitudes that are most required of translators and interpreters. Further, the chapter showed that efforts aimed at adequately training translators and interpreters are being made under different training models, and that these still need to be improved in order to ensure student professionalization. Also, the literature review showed that professionalization is prized over academicization in many translation and interpreting competence development models. It was also shown that when students are well trained they may well improve their chances of employment, since the Translation and Interpreting industry seems to be here to stay.
CHAPTER 3
Research Design and Methodology

3.1 Chapter overview

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research design and methods used in this study. After discussing the interdisciplinary nature of Translation and Interpreting Studies (TIS), the chapter shows how the study was designed as action research using mixed methods. The research instruments used in this study are then described, followed by sections devoted to data treatment and analysis as well as the study subjects, procedures and ethical considerations. The chapter ends by summarizing how the pilot study influenced the design, conduct and outcomes of this study.

3.2 Approaches to Translation and Interpreting Studies

In his previous study, the researcher noted that the way a study is designed “may affect the conduct and outcomes of research; therefore, the choice of research design must not be made lightly” (Magaia 2014, 45). In the same study, the researcher resorted to Cravo and Neves (2007, 94), who state that “in any research methodology, the relationship that a researcher establishes with the object of study will determine the kind of research to undergo”. Therefore, the researcher’s choice of a research method must always “keep in mind the object of his/her study” (Magaia 2014, 45).

In the introductory chapter (see Chapter 1, section 1.7.1), it was briefly mentioned that Translation Studies (TS) and Interpreting Studies (IS) emerged as new disciplines in the 1970s and the 1990s respectively (See Gentzler 2001, 77; Pöchhacker and Shlesinger 2002, 3-4). With regard to Translation Studies, Munday (2001, 182) points out that “despite the boom in interest in the field at the end of the twentieth century, there still remains a reluctance within some sections of the academic world to place translation studies on an equal footing with longer-established disciplines”. In a similar vein, Lan et al. (2009, 177)
observe that “It is not unclear whether translation studies are yet recognized as an independent academic discipline”. Munday (2001, 182) conjectures that Translation Studies has seen “some moves in recent years ... towards establishing links across disciplines”, adding that these “interdisciplinary approaches break down barriers and reflect the rapid exchange of knowledge in an increasingly globalized and information-rich society.”

This opinion is also shared by Hansen (2005; 2006), who argues for interdisciplinary approaches to investigating translation. Hansen (2006, 6) equates “interdisciplinarity” with what she calls “intermethodology”. The author shows one of the advantages of interdisciplinarity when she writes: “Disciplines and research patterns from psychology, phenomenology, natural sciences and social sciences provide empirical translation research with useful tools, methods and techniques” (Hansen 2006, 6). Saldanha and O’Brien (2013, 3) agree when they state that “Translation studies is interdisciplinary not only because it borrows from a wide range of disciplines but also because it covers a wide range of practices”. Similarly, Sun (2014, 176) suggests that viewing TS as an interdiscipline implies accepting the fact that nearly all research methods in its feeder disciplines may be used in this research field.

On the other hand, it can be said that the trend to view TS as interdisciplinary has a spill over effect on IS. For example, Liu (2011, 104) is assertive in saying that “translation and interpreting research has become and will continue to be more interdisciplinary”. Yan et al. (2015, 278) also note that

The relationship between theory and training ... and the development of specific theories in training as informed by studies in communication, sociology, information processing, etc., indicate the interdisciplinary feature of T&I [Translation and Interpreting] research.

However, it is wise to take into account the following sobering remark on interdisciplinarity:

Yet the construction of an interdisciplinary methodology is not straightforward, since few researchers possess the necessary expertise in a wide range of subject areas, and the original academic background of the individual researcher inevitably conditions the focus of their approach (Munday 2001, 189).
Clearly, in conducting TIS, as any other type of research, it is important to give serious consideration to the design and methods, which should be compatible with the study’s objectives. In the next section, the study design and methods are described together with their theoretical rationale.

### 3.3 Study design and methods

This study has been designed as action research. Action research has been defined as

> any systematic inquiry conducted by teacher researchers, principals, school counsellors, or other stakeholders in the teaching/learning environment to gather information about how their particular schools operate, how they teach, and how their students learn. This information is gathered with the goals of gaining insight, developing reflective practice, effective positive changes in the school environment (and educational practices in general), and improving student outcomes and the lives of those involved (Mills (2003, 5).

According to Hine (2013, 151), action research is “a process of systematic inquiry that seeks to improve social issues affecting the lives of everyday people”. Hine (2013, 152) further states that “action research in education can be defined as the process of studying a school situation to understand and improve the quality of the educative process”. These definitions are consistent with Griffiths’ (1998, in Blaxter et al. 2001, 67) proposition that the purpose of action research is “always and explicitly, to improve practice”.

Action research design in TS is not new. For example, action research has been used in TS by scholars such as Cravo and Neves (2007, 96), because it allows researchers to

> be involved with people and particularly with the people who will, in the end, benefit from their research: the translators themselves, the students of translation and translators-to-be, the teachers of translation, and, above all, the ‘consumers’ of the end product.

Similarly, Saldanha and O’Brien (2013, 16) suggest that action research is appropriate in TS because it is “collaborative: it seeks to empower the stakeholders and moves away from the concepts of the ‘researcher’ and the ‘researched’”.
The choice of action research design was made bearing in mind the applied branch of TS this study falls into, namely translator training, with a particular focus on curriculum planning (see Holmes 2004, 189). As mentioned in the introductory chapter (see Chapter One, section 1.5), the aim of this study is to find an effective model that can guide the design of an ideal curriculum for training translators and interpreters in Mozambique, in particular, and in Africa, in general. In Mozambique, particularly, this research is aimed at benefiting Translation and Interpreting students in the first place, but UEM lecturers and potential Translation and Interpreting service users, too, should reap the benefits of the findings of this study if it achieves the goal of changing the *status quo*.

The research design had a bearing on the methods chosen for this study. It was felt that mixed methods were most appropriate for this study. One of the advantages of the mixed methods approach is that it “combines or associates both qualitative and quantitative forms” (Creswell 2009, 4). According to Blaxter et al. (2001, 84), an additional advantage of mixed methods is that they allow triangulation of data, which means a process of trying “to verify the validity of the information being collected”.

In this study, the choice of the mixed methods approach was made with the awareness that the dichotomy between qualitative and quantitative methods could lead to failure to achieve the goal of the study. Therefore, it was thought that neither qualitative nor quantitative methods – taken in isolation – could be appropriate for this study. For example, Allwood (2011, 1417) argues that the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research methods is problematic and that this distinction is “unclear, poor and therefore of limited value”. To prove his point, this author states that “Any *phenomenon* has both a qualitative and a quantitative aspect in the sense that it can be categorized and that it has some degree of ‘much-ness’” (Allwood 2001, 1422; emphasis in original). He goes further when he says:

One and the same data-collection method can usually be used to collect both qualitative and quantitative data. For example, *questionnaires* can contain both open-ended questions and numerical scales and questions in *interviews* can concern both numerical aspects (e.g., frequency of visits to the health center) and qualitative aspects (e.g., how an informant felt when receiving the news that his or her operation had been delayed for three weeks)... Thus data-
collection methods are for various reasons not clearly quantitative or qualitative. (Allwood 2001, 1422; emphasis in original)

Thus this study does not favour qualitative over quantitative methods, and vice versa. Rather, both methods are used in combination within the research action design.

3.4 Rationale for adopting action research approaches

In section 1.4 of Chapter One, it was explained that the researcher’s awareness of his role in curriculum development at UEM was one of the reasons for embarking on this investigation. Being a UEM lecturer for over 10 years, the researcher found that action research approaches were the best way to tackle the problem identified: the lack of a translator and interpreter training model. This is consistent with McKernan’s (1996, 5) remark, according to which:

The rationale for action research rests, initially, on three pillars: first, that naturalistic settings are best studied and researcher by those participants experiencing the problem; second, that behaviour is highly influenced by the naturalistic surroundings in which it occurs; and third, that qualitative methodologies are perhaps best suited for researching naturalistic setting. Taken as a triad, these hypotheses suggest a rationale in the form of a critical-participant observation mode of practitioner inquiry.

McKernan goes on to say that if we believe that “the participant is best placed to conduct inquiry into pressing professional problems, then it follows that practitioners must engage in curriculum inquiry to improve their art and practice” (1996, 5). Similarly, Blaxter et al. (2001, 67) state that “the teacher who is concerned to improve performance in the classroom may find action research useful because it offers a systematic approach to the definition, solution and evaluation of problems and concerns”. In this case, the UEM teacher-researcher was moved to do this research by the realization that the improvement of classroom performance in translator and interpreter training might be impossible if the problems associated with the current curriculum were not addressed in the first place. Still, it is important to understand the principles of action research.
3.5 Action research model applied in UEM study

The action research model adopted for this study is that recommended by Calloun’s (1994) action research cycle (1994, in Mills 2003, 16-17), which follows the steps depicted in figure 5 below.

*Figure 5: Calloun’s action research cycle*

By observing Calloun’s model, one can see that action research is an ongoing process wherein the last step (taking action) may immediately lead to the identification of a new problem to be investigated.

It is important to note that this is just one of the many action research models that “have enjoyed varying degrees of popularity, depending on the context in which they have been applied” Mills (2003, 18). Nonetheless, as the author highlights:

> these action research models share some common elements: a sense of purpose based on a “problem” or “area of focus” (identification of an area of focus), observation or monitoring of practice (collection of data), synthesis of information gathered (analysis and interpretation of data), and some form of “action” that invariably “spirals” the researcher back into the process repeatedly (developing of an action plan) (Mills 2003, 18).
Against this background, a detailed description of the research instruments used in this study, as well as the study analytical framework, subjects, procedures and ethical considerations is provided below.

3.6 Research instruments

In action research, data can be gathered from multiple sources, including field notes, audiotapes, videotapes, photos, pupil diaries, interviews, questionnaires, sociometry, documentary evidence, case studies, matrices, artefacts and tests (See Mills 2003, 168-169; Hopkins 2002, 102-128 and Cohen et al. 2002, 317). Thus, in this study, data was collected through a survey, an English translation test and a sample of students’ final Portuguese translations archived in the English section where the researcher is based.

3.6.1 Survey

A survey questionnaire (see Annexure II) was used as the main data collection tool. The questionnaire consisted mainly of Likert-type items divided into four sections, which gathered quantitative data. However, open-ended questions were included in order to capture qualitative data with the very same instrument. This was possible because even though participants were mostly asked to tick applicable answers among five options, they were equally encouraged to share their deep thoughts by providing reasons for their answers in each of the questions. The description of the survey content is provided below.

SECTION I: RESPONDENT PROFILE

This introductory section of the survey questionnaire was designed to allow the researcher to verify the eligibility of the study participants, who were identified according to their categories:

Subsection 1: Former, current and potential students:

This subsection captured the first three categories of participants and was aimed at gathering information on the participant’s name, age, gender, mother
tongue(s) and first language of formal education and year of graduation, where applicable. In addition, it was here where it was determined whether the subject was participating as a former, current or potential student.

Subsection 2: Translator trainers:
This subsection captured the participant’s name, gender, department/section where the participant was based, the participant’s lecturing experience at UEM and the modules he/she has taught. These participants belonged to the second category.

Subsection 3: Translation and interpreting service providers
This subsection captured the participant’s name, gender, language pair(s) the subject worked with, type of services provided (whether translation and interpreting together or just one of these activities) and years of experience. These were in the fifth category.

Subsection 4: Potential translation/interpreting service users
This subsection gathered data on the name of potential client organizations and their working languages. It should be pointed out that not all subjects invited to participate in the study were actual translation or interpreting service users; they were assumed to be potential clients. Therefore, this subsection included a specific question about whether the participating organization makes use of translation and/or interpreting services. This was the sixth and last category of participants.

SECTION II: ASSESSING THE CURRENT UEM TRANSLATION CURRICULUM

Through this section, which was made up of two subsections, the researcher expected to achieve the first objective of this study, which was to:

- assess the effectiveness of the current UEM translation curriculum in leading to the development of translation and interpreting competence as perceived by stakeholders (students, lecturers, professional
translators/interpreters and potential clients) and uncover the reasons for such perceptions (see section 1.5.2).

The assessment of the current UEM translation curriculum focused on these topics:

- effectiveness of current curriculum in leading to translation/interpreting competence development;
- recommendability of current UEM course;
- relevance of modules included in the present curriculum;
- former students’ confidence to provide translation and interpreting services from English into Portuguese and vice versa;
- graduate employability;
- relevance of UEM translation course to finding employment; and
- client satisfaction with the quality of graduates’ translations.

SECTION III: IDEAL TRANSLATOR/INTERPRETER TRAINING MODEL

The third section of the survey asked all participants to express their opinions about the best curriculum model for training translators and interpreters. This section basically sought to find out whether the participants would approve of a model in favour of:

(i) a unified translation and interpreting course, or
(ii) two separate courses: one in translation and the other in interpreting, or
(iii) a multi-competence course which includes translation and interpreting training.⁹

Likewise, this section attempted to determine whether an ideal translator/interpreter training model, from the respondents’ perspective, would

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⁹ Section 1.10.2 explains why this question was included in the survey and section 4.2.3.3 reports on the findings.
or would not include a compulsory policy of practising translating and interpreting into the students’ second or third language during classes.

SECTION IV: PROPOSING A NEW TRANSLATOR / INTERPRETER TRAINING MODEL AND IMPROVED CURRICULA FOR UEM

In this section, the researcher presented his model proposal for developing translation and interpreting competence and three curriculum proposals for training translators and interpreters at UEM. The subjects were asked to appraise the proposed training model as well as the curriculum proposals and make suggestions, if any, for improving the proposal they found most promising. This section was intended to lead to the second objective of this study:

- To propose a translation and interpreting competence development model that can provide a framework for designing conducive translator and interpreter training curricula (see section 1.5.2.).

3.6.2 Translation test

The fact that UEM students do not get any practice in translating into English while on campus, and yet once they graduate, they take on English translation assignments, begs the question of what the quality of English translations produced by UEM graduates is. To answer this question, the consent form informed former students that they would be asked to take a translation test into English for macro- and micro-textual analysis (see Annexure I). This data collection method was found appropriate as it is in harmony with Cohen et al.’s (2000, 317) remark that: “In tests, researchers have at their disposal a powerful method of data collection”. Thus a sample text originally written in Portuguese was used in this study to collect data for macro- and micro-textual analysis, which is a distinctive characteristic of TS research.

The translations submitted by former students constitute the main corpus of this study qualitative data. Granted, this data collection method is mainly qualitative
but, again, it is quite difficult to disagree with Allwood (2011, 1423), when he says:

A further general reason as to why it is problematic to classify research methods as qualitative or quantitative is that it is difficult to show that a certain research method necessarily has to be linked to a certain research philosophy (for example “quantitative”).

In this case, the difficulty lies with the fact that the analysis and interpretation of the students’ translations will in one way or another lead not only to descriptions of their attributes (e.g. acceptable/unacceptable, correct/incorrect), but also quantitative analysis such as how many of such translations are acceptable/unacceptable or correct/incorrect. In this regard, one has to simply agree with Allwood (2011, 1422) when he says: “The identity of any phenomenon (including e.g., attributes and components) is qualitative, but it always has a quantitative aspect (how much of it is there”).

### 3.6.3 Students’ final translation projects

The third and last source of data used in this study was a corpus of former UEM students’ final translation projects. These translation projects are the final requirement UEM translation students have to meet in order to complete their programme. The projects consist of translating around 20 pages of text from English into Portuguese and presenting a short written report on the translation process (between 4 and 6 pages). Finding these documents was relatively easy for the researcher because they are archived in the English Section, where he is based. The extracted corpus was the object of macro- and micro-textual analysis, and this data source was deemed indispensable for triangulation purposes. For example, the quality of the last Portuguese translation assignments of former students archived at UEM would be compared with that of English translations produced by these during this study to weigh up their claim, if any, that the quality of their English and Portuguese translation and interpreting services is acceptable.
3.7 Data treatment and analysis

3.7.1 Survey data

With regard to the role of statistical tools in research, Begum and Ahmed (2015, 50) point out that “The Statistical analysis depends on the objective of the study”. They also mention that “Researchers use a wide range of statistical methods to analyze survey data…using statistical software packages that are designed for research professionals” (Begum and Ahmed 2015, 51). However, the authors remark that “many forms of survey data analysis can be done with a spreadsheet program such as EXCEL”, which is “user-friendly and excellent for entering, coding and storing survey data” (Begum and Ahmed 2015, 50).

Consistent with these authors, the survey data was entered into a Microsoft Excel workbook according to the category of the participants. Each spreadsheet contained all data collected from participants belonging to the same category under variables such as age, place of birth, gender, mother tongue, opinion about the effectiveness of the UEM curriculum, irrelevant modules, and so forth. This allowed for partial pictures according to each category of participants to be obtained. The data was then aggregated into one single spreadsheet to allow for a full picture according to all categories of participants. Totals and means were then calculated and the graphs that were generated by Excel helped in the interpretation of the findings presented and discussed in detail in Chapter 4 (Findings and Interpretation). An example of data entry by category is provided in figure 6 below.
It should be pointed out that the qualitative data included in this data collection instrument was critical to understanding the reasons behind the quantitative data yielded. Therefore, this data was transcribed according to the questions it was answering. At the same time, the answers were analysed paying attention to recurrent themes in the likeness of the analytical framework used in the researcher’s previous case study (Magaia 2014, 64-66), building on Rowley’s (2002) strategy for analysing case study data. In this strategy, “a framework of sections reflecting the themes in the case study are developed and evidence is gathered within relevant themes, and analysed and compared in these categories” (Rowley 2002, 24).

**3.7.2 Translation error analysis method**

In section 3.6.2 above, it was explained that former UEM translation students were asked to take a translation test. Thus, the translations provided by former students as well as the archived student translation projects constituted the main qualitative data for macro- and micro-analysis in this study. As has been mentioned, this analysis was needed to partially complement the quantitative data analysis of the students’ own assessment of the quality of their English and Portuguese translation services. In other words, this stage enabled the
triangulation of data sources recommended by Hopkins (2002, 135), which can greatly increase the validity and reliability of research.

Of course, it must be acknowledged that the assessment of translation competence through a translation test, such as the one given to former UEM students in this study, may lend itself to criticism, given its focus on the product rather than on the process. Nonetheless, even if it might be product-oriented, a translation test has the advantage of allowing better macro- and micro-textual analysis. Moreover, justified concerns that a translation test might only assess the product, and not the process, can be minimized by the use of marking methods that correctly distinguish translation errors from linguistic ones.

For example, Waddington’s (2001; 2003) methods A, B, C and D have been well studied and summarized in Magaia (2014, 30-32) in his previous research. Based on these and other methods he reviewed, Magaia (2014, 65-66; 2016, 58-60) built his own error analysis method, which he used successfully in his assessment of UEM students’ translation quality. In such a translation error analysis method, a translation examiner or reviser would focus primarily on two criteria: **message accuracy** and **text effectiveness**.

According to Magaia (2014, 84) message accuracy “first and foremost measures the degree to which the target language message corresponds to the source-language message”. In other words, message accuracy is when the translation message reflects the same message as the one in the source text, i.e. it has no distortions or undue additions and omissions. Distortions might be manifested by inadequate problem identification and solving strategies. Examples include failing to identify and resolve a lexical, terminological, structural, idiomatic, pragmatic, cultural, register and stylistic problem.

On the other hand, as pointed out by Magaia (2014, 85), text effectiveness “affects the target-text language at the same time as it is being affected by it”. In other words, text effectiveness is the extent to which the translation text is in accordance with the target-text language norms or text production rules. If the translated text is not effective, it fails to convey any message in a natural way in the target language.
That *message accuracy* is a valid criterion in translation test evaluation is attested to by Stansfield et al. (1992, in Waddington 2001, 312), who conducted a study “based on work carried out for the U.S. Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) to develop and validate job-related tests of translation ability”. Hague et al. (2011, 252) also confirm that in FBI translation tests accuracy is weighed against expression. According to Hague et al. (2001, 252), accuracy “refers to information content, which must be conveyed without changes, omissions or unnecessary additions”. Expression, on the other hand, “refers to mechanics of the target language (spelling, grammar, capitalization and punctuation) and to usage and style (the translation must be intelligible and idiomatic)” (Hague et al. 2011, 152-153). Hague et al. go on to say that “For FBI translations, when there is a conflict between accuracy and expression, accuracy is paramount” (Hague et al. 2011, 253). That is why in Magaia’s method, *message accuracy* is more prized over *text effectiveness*, which corresponds to *expression* mentioned in Hague et al.

Therefore, the framework used to analyse the students’ translations in this study distinguishes between source-language-originated errors (SLOEs) and target-language-originated errors (TLOEs). A translation error “is defined as an instance of underperformance during a translation act, observed through the lack of translation message accuracy and target text effectiveness” (Magaia 2016, 59). In other words, a translation error is one that a corrector or reviser would forcibly and justifiably need to correct to improve the quality of a translation. A corrector or reviser usually does this by checking the translated text against its original source to see whether it preserves the message of the source text at the same time as he/she examines whether the translation is produced in harmony with the target text production norms. In the process, the corrector or reviser would change – or at least highlight – what he/she justifiably feels is incorrect.

As a consequence, a SLOE “is any error being caused by flawed interpretation of the source-language text, in part or in whole” (Magaia 2016, 59). Under the broader category of SLOEs, the following micro-level translation errors are found: wrong meaning (WM), wrong lexical choice (WLC), omission (O) and nonsense (NS). Paraphrasing Magaia (2014, 84):
a) **wrong meaning** means that the source language text message has been distorted in the target language text either by undue additions or omissions;

b) **wrong lexical choice** means the use of false friends or other ineffective lexical or terminological items according to the context, purpose, register and style of the text and target audience;

c) **omission** is when a content-rich element (word or phrase) in the source text is unduly removed from the target text; and

d) **nonsense** is when the message delivered does not make any sense at all.

Likewise, “a TLOE is any mistake or error exposing a translator’s poor mastery of the target language/culture norms and conventions, but which is not necessarily identifiable through source-text vs. target-text comparison” (Magaia 2014, 84). Thus, under the umbrella category of TLOEs, the following micro-level errors are distinguished: target language norm deviation (ND), misspelling (MS), poor punctuation (PP) and unnaturalness (UN). Target language norm deviation corresponds to the “grammar” criterion in Waddington’s (2001, 313) Method A. The idea is to warn the student against the occurrence of ungrammatical utterances. Similarly, misspelling corresponds to the “spelling” criterion in the same method (Waddington 2001, 313). Poor punctuation highlights any problem with punctuation observed in the student’s translation.

The last feature (poor punctuation) is included in this translation error analysis method because “Punctuation is an essential aspect of discourse analysis, since it gives a semantic indication of the relationship between sentences and clauses, which may vary according to languages” (Newmark 1998, 58). Thus, this aspect is examined under target language punctuation rules regardless of the punctuation conventions used in the source language text. Finally, unnaturalness indicates cases where, for instance, a word, a phrase, word order, or grammar usage may not sound natural to the readers of the target language text. In this translation error analysis, Newmark’s (1998, 20) viewpoint is endorsed, according to which “‘naturalness’ is both grammatical and lexical, and is a touchstone at every level of a text, from paragraph to word, from title to punctuation”.

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This translation error analysis method was used with the awareness that other categories or subcategories of errors could be used. However, in the context of this study, the translation error analysis method used bears in mind its pedagogical purpose, i.e., to provide an objective lesson to the student whose work is being corrected. Similarly, it is here recognized that the above categories and subcategories of errors suggested by Magaia (2014) “do not exclude each other as they can sometimes co-occur and therefore explain the same phenomenon in translation error analysis” (Magaia 2016, 60). For this reason, “in a situation where a SLOE and a TLOE occur simultaneously to explain one same phenomenon, the two-angle analysis may prove beyond doubt that the translation quality is low (Magaia 2016, 60). Likewise, the correction of the students’ translations was done following this principle: “the weight of a TLOE penalty should be half that of a SLOE” (Magaia 2016, 60).

This principle is based on Waddington’s (2001, 313) method referred to in Magaia (2014, 30), which “suggests making a distinction between serious errors and minor ones in each of Hurtado’s (1995) categories”. In such a method, “serious errors are penalized more (with -2 or -3 marks out of 10, depending on degree of gravity) while minor ones are penalized less (-1 mark out of 10)” (Magaia 2014, 30). Thus, the marking principle adopted in this study attaches more importance to source-language-originated errors than target-language-originated errors because the latter would usually be more (easily solvable) language errors.

In addition, this principle is consistent with Pym’s (1992, 4-5) theory of binary errors versus non-binary errors, where binary errors are basically language errors. As explained in Magaia (2014, 27), in Pym’s correction model, “a language error is a manifestation of language norm deviation; so it can easily be solved in a language class”. In contrast, “non-binary errors are translation errors, and these often denote poor selection among possible answers and can only be solved in a translation class” (Magaia 2014, 27).

Against this background, the next section describes the marking scheme used in analysing the students’ translations.
3.7.2.1 SLOE/TLOE marking scheme

The marking scheme used in this study is based on a 0-20 mark range, which is customarily followed at UEM, and it stipulates that the total number of words in a source text be divided by 20 to know the number of words affected by each error. Then 20 is divided by the quotient of the first operation. The quotient of the second operation is divided by 2 to know the weight of the SLOE penalty. Finally, the quotient of the third operation is divided by 2 to know the weight of the TLOE penalty. Here is an example:

Example 1

If the source text has 100 words, then:

- Step 1: 100÷20 = 5;
- Step 2: 20÷5 = 4;
- Step 3: divide the quotient of operation in step 2 by 2 (in this case, 4 divided by 2 equals 2, which means the penalty for each SLOE is 2 marks);
- Step 4: divide the quotient of operation in step 3 by 2 (in this case, 2 divided by 2 equals 1, which means the penalty for each TLOE is 1 mark).

In other words, the weight of a TLOE penalty is always 50% of that of a SLOE. Moreover, in a test like this, a student would only be allowed to have up to 5 SLOEs or up to 10 TLOEs.

This simple arithmetical exercise may have the advantage of allowing the student to make more errors as the number of words in the source text increases, but it can be argued that such allowance is fair and proportional. Here is an example:

Example 2:

If the source text has 7642 words, then:

- Step 1: 7642÷20 = 382.1;
- Step 2: 20÷382.1 = 0.0523423;
• Step 3: divide the quotient of operation in step 2 by 2 (in this case, 0.0523423 divided by 2 equals 0.0261711, which means the penalty for each SLOE is 0.0261711 marks);
• Step 4: divide the quotient of operation in step 3 by 2 (in this case, 0.0261711 divided by 2 equals is 0.0130855, which means the penalty for each TLOE is 0.0130855 marks).

In other words, in this test a student would only be allowed to have nearly 400 SLOEs or about 800 TLOEs and still have an acceptable quality translation.

Moreover, each individual student’s performance was classified according to the translation quality classification grid provided in see Table 7 below.

Table 7 Translation quality classification grid

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Mark</th>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0% – 24%</td>
<td>Highly unacceptable</td>
<td>Has not acquired TC and very far from acquiring it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>25% – 49%</td>
<td>Unacceptable</td>
<td>Has not acquired TC but could be close to acquiring it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>50% – 74%</td>
<td>Acceptable</td>
<td>Has acquired basic TC to a minimum extent and may progress with more practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>75% – 100%</td>
<td>Highly acceptable</td>
<td>Has acquired advanced TC. The higher the performance, the more evidence that the translator has developed full translation competence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in Table 7 above, in harmony with Goff-Kfouri (2004), only students scoring at least 75% (or 15 marks out of 20) in this study were viewed as having developed full translation competence.
3.8 Subjects

As has been mentioned in Chapter 1 (section 1.8.3.), this study was initially designed to cover at least 100 voluntary participants distributed under six categories namely, current UEM translation students, former UEM translation students, potential translation students, UEM translator trainers, translation/interpreting service providers and potential translation/interpreting service users. Thanks to the positive response in the field, however, a total of 125 respondents participated in the study. Nonetheless, this figure was then adjusted to 123 following the exclusion of 2 potential students who did not meet the minimum age eligibility criterion described below.

3.8.1 Eligibility Criteria

Participants were invited to take part if they met the following criteria:

- **Category 1** – Being a current UEM translation student at any level from Year 1 to Year 4.
- **Category 2** – Being a former UEM translation student having graduated at least one year before the survey was conducted.
- **Category 3** – Being a potential translation student, assumed so by showing a strong interest in English language. The student could be attending an English course at the Language Institute.
- **Category 4** – Being a UEM translator trainer in charge of any module making up the current translation curriculum.
- **Category 5** – Being a professional translator and/or an interpreter working with any language pair.
- **Category 6** – Being a public or private institution, or a non-governmental organization.
3.9 Procedures

Potential subjects were contacted either personally or by email and invited to voluntarily participate in the study. Most of the study participants, especially current translation students and lecturers, were contacted personally at the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences. Potential translation students were also contacted personally at the Language Institute both in Maputo City and Matola City. Former translation students were contacted by email. Some translation service providers were contacted personally at the Language Institute alongside data collection from potential students, since most of the language teachers there are also professional translators and interpreters. Others were contacted by email. Finally, potential translation and interpreting service users were contacted personally in various organizations based in Maputo city.

To this end, potential subjects were provided with an informed consent form, which they signed after receiving background information on the aim of the study and confidentiality aspects (see Annexure I). Then those consenting to participate in the study were asked to complete a survey questionnaire (see Annexure II) and return it at their earliest convenience. As has been mentioned, in addition to returning the questionnaire, former students also submitted sample translations for macro- and micro-textual analysis. Moreover, archived translations of these students were retrieved for the extraction of data.

3.10 Ethical considerations

It might be stated that the “ethically correct” action research participation process starts with an informed consent. Mills (2003, 91) defines informed consent as “the principle that seeks to ensure that all human subjects retain autonomy and the ability to judge for themselves what risks are worth taking for the purpose of furthering scientific knowledge”. A central characteristic of informed consent is the confidentiality guarantee explicitly made in it. The consent form, provided to the participants in this study, complies with these norms (see Annexure I).
Furthermore, there are social principles that must be adhered to in action research. According to Mills (2003, 93), these are:

- You should be able to identify broader social principles that are an integral part of who you are as a teacher and a contributing member of the community in which you live.
- There is no room for deception in action research.
- Ensuring the accuracy of your data is a central concern of action research.

The researcher hereby gives the assurance that he tried to adhere to these principles to the best of his ability.

Moreover, in keeping with UNISA ethical principles, the researcher submitted a formal request to conduct research at the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences and at the Language Institute of Maputo, having collected data for the pilot study only after permission was granted by the these institutions, which was in the context of his research proposal module (see Annexures III and IV). However, data collection for the main study only took place between Mid-April and July 2017 after ethical clearance was granted by UNISA’s relevant body.

### 3.10.1 Participant Coding

An ethical implication for this study was the need to ensure participant confidentiality and anonymity by using a code that would not in any way leave any traceable marks that could lead to the identification of participants. For this reason, the code used in the main study only bears the marks of the participants’ category and the sequential order in which their data was entered in the Excel spreadsheet described under sections 1.8.2 and 3.7.1. Therefore, all participants’ codes are prefixed by MS, which stands for Main Study, followed by their category as seen below:

1. CS, standing for Current Student
2. FS, standing for Former Student
3. PS, standing for Potential Translation/Interpreting Student
4. TT, standing for Translator Trainer (UEM lecturer)
5. SP, standing for Translation/Interpreting Service Provider
6. PU, stands for Potential Translation/Interpreting Service User

For example, MSFS19 means that this was the nineteenth participant in the former UEM student category whose data was entered in the Excel spreadsheet.

3.11 The pilot study phase

A pilot study was conducted from June to July 2016 in Maputo, with a total of 57 participants, 70.18% of whom were students. This figure was outstanding because it was far more than 10-20% of the recommended sample (Simon 2011), bearing in mind that the main study was to cover at least 100 participants. The researcher used the feedback he received during this phase to improve the research methodology, especially the survey questionnaire. For example, instead of designing a specific questionnaire for each category of participants, which was done in the pilot study phase, it was found more practical to have only one instrument specifying where each participant was to play a role. This would greatly improve the data systematization and analysis.

In addition, the response from the pilot study helped the researcher to rethink his proposal of a translation and interpreting competence development model and the three curriculum proposals put under respondents’ scrutiny. Although the pilot study was a success, the researcher appreciated suggestions made by some respondents and thought of ways of incorporating them in the main study. This reflection led to the conceptualization of the researcher’s translator and interpreter training model proposal, which formed part of Section 4 of the Survey questionnaire.

3.12 Conclusion

The focus of this chapter was the methodology applied to this study. Action research was highlighted as the design of this study. It was shown that the mixed methods approach was the most appropriate for the aims of this study. Accordingly, much attention in this chapter has been devoted to explaining how the data was collected by means of three tools: a survey, archival evidence (filed
students’ projects) and a translation test. Moreover, the chapter provided details of the study data treatment and analysis, subjects, procedures and ethical considerations. The last part of this chapter consisted of a brief report on how the pilot study influenced the design and conduct of this study.
CHAPTER 4
Evidence for a New Translator and Interpreter Training Model

4.1 Chapter overview

In this chapter, the findings of this research are presented and discussed. The chapter is divided into two parts. The first part reports on the findings of the survey data analysis and the second on the findings of macro- and micro-textual analysis of former UEM students’ translations. The specific themes covered are: respondents’ profiles, assessment of the current UEM translation curriculum, course recommendability, irrelevant modules, former students’ confidence to provide translation and interpreting services, graduate employability, relevancy of translation course to graduate employability, clients’ satisfaction with graduates’ translation quality, ideal translator and interpreter training model, enforcement of a mandatory two-way translation/interpreting policy in practical classes and respondents’ feedback on the researcher’s proposed model for developing translation and interpreting competence in university students.

4.2 PART I: SURVEY DATA RESULTS

The first set of data results reported in this chapter comes from the survey described in section 3.6.1 (also, see Annexure II), which was completed by 123 eligible participants. As has been mentioned (see sections 1.8.4 and 3.9), data collection took place from mid-April to July 2017 immediately after ethical clearance was granted by UNISA’s relevant body (see Annexure V). Moreover, as explained in section 3.7, the study data, obtained through the survey and translation tests and samples described in 3.6, was organized and analysed using Microsoft Excel, which allowed for the generation of the graphs presented in this chapter.
4.2.1 Respondent Profile

According to figure 7 below, taken together, students make up the vast majority of the participants of this study, with a total of 90 respondents, equivalent to 73%. This means 20 additional participants relative to the initial target of 70 students. Of these, current translation students at the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences gain prominence for having shown most interest in the study, which resulted in an extra number of 21 participants in addition to the initial target of 30. Lecturers, professional translators/interpreters and potential translation and interpreting service users together make up 33% of the participants, with each category having 11 participants. This means one additional participant in each of these categories in relation to the target number of participants set for the study.

Figure 7: Study participants

With regard to the category of potential students, it must be pointed out that the validated number of participants was 18 against 20 initially envisaged. This was because all potential students attending an advanced English course at the Language Institute were invited under the assumption that they were at least 18 years old, but during data entry two were found to be only 16 years old (see Section 3.8).
4.2.1.1 Current students’ sociolinguist profile

As can be seen in Table 8 below, the current UEM translation students are mainly young to adult, between 18 and 45 years old. The majority of students are 20 to 25 years old. Likewise, the majority of students are male (80%), which reflects a general trend of gender imbalance in Mozambican higher education institutions (Hunguana 2014, 8). Moreover, although the majority of students (58%) have an African language as their mother tongue, a significant number of these (42%) claim to have Portuguese as their mother tongue. Quite predictably, all current students had Portuguese as their first medium of formal education.

Table 8: Current translation students’ sociolinguistic profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-20 years old</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25 years old</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30 years old</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35 years old</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40 years old</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45 years old</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mother tongue</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shangaan</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ronga</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chuwabu</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chopi</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tshwa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyanja</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guitonga</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>First language of instruction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total No. of participants</strong></td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is possible to infer the students’ origin from their mother tongues observed in Table 8 above, if the Portuguese language is excluded. Shangaan, Ronga, Tshwa, Chopi and Guitonga are predominantly spoken in the Southern region of Mozambique, which suggests that the students are probably from Maputo, Gaza and Inhambane provinces. Chuwabu and Nyanja are mainly spoken in Zambézia and Niassa provinces respectively, which are in the north of Mozambique. Thus, although this is not the focus of this study, one can conclude from this sociolinguistic profile that students from the South of Mozambique have more access to university translation and interpreting training than those from the Centre and the North.

4.2.1.2 Former students’ sociolinguistic profile

Table 9 below shows that former UEM translation students are mainly young to adult, aged between 21 and 45 years. Of the four age groups presented in the table, the 26-30 year-old group is by far the largest, with 50%. The table also shows that most students are male (82%), a trend similar to the one noticed in Table 8 above for current students. Again, although the majority of students (66%) have an African language as their mother tongue, a relatively considerable number (34%) claim to have Portuguese as their mother tongue, in some cases concurring with an African language, thus making them bilinguals. Similarly to current students, all former students had Portuguese as their first medium of formal education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25 years old</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30 years old</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35 years old</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45 years old</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Again, it is possible to infer from this sociolinguistic profile that students from the South of Mozambique have more access to university translation and interpreting training than those from the Centre and the North. Table 9 above shows that Makonde, (mainly spoken in Cabo Delgado province), Makhuwa, (mainly spoken in Nampula province) and Ndau (predominantly spoken in Sofala province) are the mother tongues of only three students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mother tongue</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shangaan</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ronga</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makonde</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makhuwa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chupi</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ndau</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guitonga</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First language of instruction</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total No. of participants | 21     |

4.2.1.3 Potential students’ sociolinguistic profile

Similarly to current and former students, potential students are mainly young to adult, aged between 18 and 45, with the 18-20 year-old group making up the majority. Table 10 below shows that the number of male students is double that of female ones. Unlike the first set of students, most of the potential students surveyed (56%) claim to have Portuguese as their mother tongue.
As observed from this sociolinguistic profile, only one student has Makhuwa as mother tongue, suggesting that this participant was probably born in Nampula province. This confirms the remark that university translation and interpreting training is least likely to be accessed by students from the Centre and North of Mozambique.

### 4.2.1.4 Lecturers' professional profile

Of the eleven UEM lecturers who participated in the study, eight are male and three female. On average, they have lectured at UEM for 19 years. Two participants were found in this category with the longest lecturing experience at UEM: 32 and 25 years respectively. The shortest lecturing experience was seen

![Table 10: Potential translation students’ sociolinguistic profile](image-url)
in one participant who has been working in this capacity for eleven years. The curriculum units which these lecturers have delivered at UEM are:

- Bantu Descriptive Linguistics
- Comparative Literature
- English Descriptive Linguistics,
- English Literature
- English Language
- French Language
- History of Ideas
- History of Literary Criticism
- Interpreting Theory
- Introduction to Linguistics
- Introduction to Literary Studies
- Linguistic Revision
- Mozambican Literature and Culture
- Oral and Written Communication
- Phonology
- Portuguese Language
- Portuguese Descriptive Linguistics
- Research Methodology
- Rhetoric
- Study Skills
- Theory of Literature
- Translation and Interpreting Practice
- Translation Methodology
- Translation Theory

This feedback was relevant since almost all these course units are taught in the current translation course. Table 11 below shows the departments and specific sections participating lecturers work in.
Table 11: Participating UEM lecturer distribution by department/section

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Section</th>
<th>No. of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>French</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistics &amp; Literature</td>
<td>Literature</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linguistics</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total No. of participants</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.1.5 Translation/interpreting service providers’ profiles

Of the eleven translation/interpreting service providers who participated in the study, ten are male and one is female. On average, they have offered translation and/or interpreting services for nearly ten years. As shown in Table 12 below, the most common language pair that professionals offer services in is English-Portuguese and vice versa.

Table 12: Professional translators/interpreters’ profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language pair</th>
<th>No. of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English-Portuguese-English</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French-Portuguese-French</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sena-Portuguese-Sena</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total No. of participants</strong></td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of service provided</th>
<th>No. of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Translation &amp; interpreting</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation only</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total No. of participants</strong></td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.1.6 Potential translation/interpreting service users’ profile

Regarding potential translation/interpreting service users’ profiles, the study captured their working languages and how often they use translation and/or interpreting services. Figure 8 below shows that half of potential clients use Portuguese as their working language and a third also use English as their working language.

![Figure 8: Potential T/I service users’ working languages](image)

Figure 8 below shows how often potential clients use translation and/or interpreting services.

![Figure 9: Potential clients' frequency of use of T/I services](image)
It is noteworthy that a significant number of these respondents report using translation and/or interpreting services, suggesting that these services will, at some point in time, be in demand.

Following the presentation of the respondents’ profiles, the next section presents data on the assessment of the current translation curriculum at UEM.

4.2.2 Assessing the current UEM translation curriculum

This section reports on the study respondents’ opinions about the efficacy of the current translation curriculum at UEM. As already mentioned in Chapter 1 (see section 1.5.2), the first objective of this study was to assess the effectiveness of the current UEM translation curriculum in leading to the development of translation and interpreting competence as perceived by stakeholders and uncover the reasons for such perceptions. The presentation of findings in each subsequent subsection will follow the order mentioned in section 3.6.1 of Chapter 3 (Research Design and Methodology), namely effectiveness of the current UEM translation curriculum, course recommendability, irrelevant modules, former students’ confidence to provide translation and interpreting services, graduate employability, relevancy of translation course to graduate employability and clients’ satisfaction with graduates’ translation quality.

4.2.2.1 Findings on the effectiveness of the UEM curriculum

A substantial number of the study respondents share a positive opinion about the effectiveness of the current UEM curriculum in developing translation and interpreting competence. As depicted in figure 10 below, 37% find the current curriculum “effective” and 9% “very effective”. This means that 46% of the respondents approve of the curriculum in its present format. Nonetheless, the fact that 26% prefer to say “Not sure” and 19% rate it “ineffective”, plus 2% considering it “very ineffective”, casts doubt about the effectiveness of the current curriculum.
Some of the reasons why respondents find the current Translation Curriculum effective are:

- “It allows you to get to know multiple processes of translation and how to deal with many of the issues during the translation process” (MSCS14);

- “The course has modules which make sense to translation studies” (MSCS30);

- “It meets all the needs of a good translator. For instance, the translator has to master the two languages of translation, and this curriculum emphasizes that. Consolidating theories and practice leads to a well-rounded translator. Apart from that, UEM has excellent translation teachers” (MSFS04);

- “It seems to be a rich course in terms of essential content to achieve the final objective, which is English-Portuguese translation and interpreting practice” (MSPS02); and

- “Apart from technical modules linked to translation, there are crosscutting modules, which may help the student have technical competence laid upon solid general knowledge” (MSTT05).

On the other hand, negative and doubtful opinions about the current curriculum are influenced by perceptions such as:
“We’re only learning translation. What about interpreting? If we are to be translators and interpreters, we should learn both, not only one” (MSCS01);

“Most translation students are more likely to develop skills in literature, history of ideas and linguistics rather than in translation as such” (MSCS07);

“There are a lot of modules that have nothing to do with our course. We only have modules related to translation almost at the end of the course. We study more linguistic subjects than translation subjects” (MSCS12);

“I strongly believe that some people apply for the translation course at UEM because no other local institution provides it, apart from the fact that they need the license to operate in the market” (MSCS17);

“There are many modules in the current curriculum being taught in Portuguese while students need to practise more English” (MSCS18);

“There is no equipment for translation students such as computers, a specific room for the translation practice, and there is a lack of instructors to train students in the use of ICT. In addition, there are many irrelevant modules” (MSCS40);

“The major bottleneck of the current curriculum is that it leaves the best part for the end (where most of the students are already busy looking for job opportunities and are no longer full-time students)” (MSFS07);

“By looking at the grid, one can see that certain modules are a bit out of context in terms of what we imagine when we hear or look at the definition of the course” (MSPS01);

“This curriculum does not meet our market needs, i.e., we only have 3 translation practice modules, while, in my opinion, we should have translation practice from year 2” (MSCS11);

“There is an excess of modules with little relevance to endow the translator with solid tools for the profession (especially in year 1)” (MSTT09); and

“Many graduates still struggle to translate” (MSPU07).

These conflicting views make it impossible to assert that the current UEM translation curriculum is effective and that it should, therefore, be sustained. On the contrary, they suggest that this curriculum has some strengths and
weaknesses that cannot go unnoticed. At the same time, they allow one to infer that the current curriculum does need improvement.

### 4.2.2.2 Findings on the recommendability of UEM curriculum

Participants were also asked whether they would recommend the current UEM translation course to others. As can be observed from figure 11 below, in contrast to the first question on the effectiveness of the current curriculum, there appears to be a less doubtful stance of respondents with regard to recommending the current UEM translation course to the other people. Collectively, 57% of the respondents would recommend it compared to 20% who would do so hesitantly and 5% who would not do it at all.

*Figure 11: Respondents’ viewpoints on the recommendability of UEM curriculum*

Reasons for recommending the current UEM translation course include:

- “I believe this is the place where you can become a good translator, and by studying at UEM you become a researcher; it helps you to broaden your horizons” (MSCS02);
- “Translation lecturers are qualified, patient and ready to give any explanation and provide advanced tools for the translation course” (MSCS10);
- “It is a very interesting course with highly qualified trainers with long years of experience” (MSCS24);
- “This course is eligible for those candidates who love languages and would like to engage in a professional linguistic career” (MSCS26);
- “The translation course has many market opportunities (employment)” MSCS44;
- “I still believe UEM is the best university in Mozambique in terms of lecturers’ qualifications” (MSCS30);
- “It is the only BA degree course in translation offered in the country at the moment” (MSFS02);
- “Honestly speaking, it is a course that gives money working for a company or freelance; the other reason is that Mozambique is still in need of many translators” (MSFS20);
- “It's an extremely important course because we have many foreigners in our country in various areas such as tourism, politics etc.” (MSPS10);
- “I've used translation services of some former UEM students and I found them efficient” (MSTT01); and
- “Despite its shortcomings, the curriculum does have the potential to train future translators” (MSPU01).

Reasons for not recommending the current UEM course, or being doubtful about doing so, include:

- “I believe there are no medical students who would like to enrol to study medicine and end up studying law. That's what is happening in our curriculum. We're not focused on translating and interpreting” (MSCS07);
- “I'm not happy with the current UEM translation curriculum. I'd like to recommend something that is worth it or that will make that person happy and not disappointed once inside” (MSCS29);
- “At the beginning, in the first years of the course, one doesn’t feel like a translator because you start late with modules directly related to translation” (MSCS45);
- “I haven’t found what I expected before coming here” (MSCS48);
"I think many students would get frustrated with the current curriculum and would think I misled them" (MSFS07);
- "The current Translation course does not include Interpreting" (MSFS19);
- "I consider the students’ entry level low” (MSTT10); and
- "The curriculum doesn't comprise relevant modules for a translation course” (MSPU08).

Although the majority would recommend the current UEM translation course, it is striking to observe from the comments above that more value is attached to the university and its lecturers than to the curriculum itself. We can also notice from the respondents’ comments, that recommending the course has to do with perceived economic/employment advantages the translator profession offers, rather than the merit of the UEM training curriculum itself. This, again, suggests that the curriculum does need improvement so that the translation course can maintain its prestige in society.

4.2.2.3 Findings on irrelevant modules

The third question under section two of the survey asked respondents to express what they considered to be irrelevant modules in the current UEM course. Figure 12 below gives an overview of such irrelevant modules. According to the graph, History of Ideas was found to be the most irrelevant, with a negative rating by 47 participants (38%). Negatively rated by 36 respondents (29%), Mozambican Literature and Culture comes second, followed by Introduction to Literary Studies II and Introduction to Linguistic Anthropology, each considered irrelevant by 31 participants (25%). Introduction to Literary Studies I and Optional Modules are viewed as irrelevant by 27 (22%) and 25 (20%) participants, respectively. Equally disapproved, although by fewer, are Introduction to Linguistics II, Portuguese Descriptive Linguistics III and English Descriptive Linguistics II and English Descriptive Linguistics III.
Such modules are considered irrelevant to the development of translation and interpreting competence because:

- “Their focus is not on what we, translators, need; these modules embarrass and confuse us” (MSCS06);
- “These modules do not meet our specific needs. The content of these modules is useful for other courses except for translation/interpreting” (MSCS13);
- “I believe that to develop our translation skills, we just need a lot of practice more than theory and these modules have a lot of theory that we hardly ever use” (MSCS14);
- “They don’t help much in solving translation problems” (MSCS15);
- “There are no benefits of compulsory inclusion of these modules because in the end students can decide to take them or not as they are considered optional modules” (MSCS17);
- “They are not the necessary tools because some are quite demanding and tend to deviate the students’ attention from their focus” (MSCS42);
- “Some don’t have anything to do with the course; others are repetitive” (MSCS50);
- “There's no added value, most of these modules are taught in Portuguese and, based on the grid, only English and Study Skills are taught in English” (MSFS01);
- “Translation students do not have to spend two semesters learning Linguistics and Literature and a semester learning History of Ideas” (MSFS07);
- “They are not useful when you have to deal with a translation assignment. Apart from that, I think that there too many optional modules, and it would be much better to make use of that time for translation/interpretation-related subjects” (MSFS11);
- “I don’t see the need to study History of Ideas and Mozambican Literature and Culture in the context of translation” (MSPS16); and
- “Optional modules are vague! Learners may choose something which is far detached from translation” (MSTT08).

This feedback is important, for it allows identifying modules that may be replaced, or otherwise improved, in the revised translation curriculum. For example, some have argued that a module such as History of Ideas is essential not only for translation students but also for any university student, as it builds their general knowledge of fundamental philosophical constructions. Likewise, others have attached much relevance to modules built on Literature and Linguistics as offering students essential linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge. However, in view of the above comments, it is clear that these beliefs need to be re-examined in light of the perceived needs of translation students. On the other hand, the above feedback highlights the need to transform optional modules into empowering instruments for translation and interpreting students. The gamut of optional modules needs to be revised in such a way that the students can feel that it is them making choices, rather than the lecturers wanting to keep themselves busy with students.
4.2.2.4. Findings on former students’ confidence to provide translation and interpreting services

The survey included a subsection aimed at former students only, which asked them whether they were confident in their own capacity to provide translation services from English into Portuguese and vice versa. As pictured in figure 13 below, a vast majority expressed a positive opinion about their capacity in this respect.

*Figure 13: Graduates’ confidence to provide English-Portuguese and vice-versa translation services*

Reasons behind such confidence are summed up by views like these:

- “The experienced translators who usually edit my ‘translation works’ usually accept them without big concerns. Apart from that, I have not received too many complaints from my clients, both individuals and companies” (MSFS03);
- “I am confident that I have almost all the tools and techniques needed to translate any text” (MSFS04);
- “I learned enough to work with any kind of text” (MSFS05);
- “I have undergone this training programme. I have had some theoretical and practical lectures that helped me build self-confidence, but mostly practice” (MSFS06);
- “I have never doubted my translation skills and my capacity to provide translation services from English into Portuguese and vice versa, nor have I ever noticed a doubt (or at least lack of confidence) in my clients when they trust me very important translations and they do return for more translation services afterwards” (MSFS09);
- “I think my language and translation skills are good enough, and I have always had good feedback” (MSFS11); and
- “My clients have never complained and continue to keep me busy” (MSFS13).

The views of those who are not quite confident can be illustrated by expressions like:

- I feel more confident about translating from English into Portuguese than from Portuguese into English although I’ve developed my own techniques and procedures through individual practice, as practical lessons in translating from Portuguese into English were, in my opinion, insufficient” (MSFS17); and
- “I haven’t started translating documents, especially official ones” (MSFS20).

Similarly, the survey contained a question prompting former students to express how they felt about their own capacity to provide interpreting services from English into Portuguese and vice versa. Here it is noticeable that graduates do not feel as confident about interpreting as they do about translating. For example, figure 14 below shows that only 5 percent feel their confidence is “more than enough”, while 38 percent have “enough” confidence. Thus, the collective figure of 43 percent of students who have a positive opinion about their interpreting skills is outweighed by the 43 percent who declare they are only confident “to some extent”, in addition to 5% who say they not confident at all, not mention the 9% who are “not sure”.

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The few respondents who are confident about their interpreting competence gave reasons such as:

- “I have dedicated a considerable amount of years to practicing, plus my MA course in conference interpreting helps develop the skills needed” (MSFS02);
- “Although I did not have a previous training, I am confident enough because I have done it a few times and the feedback I had was positive” (MSFS10);
- “I have done it and got good at it, although my comfort zone is translation” (MSFS16); and
- “I earn a living as an interpreter as well” (MSFS18).

Conversely, reasons for lack of self-confidence to provide interpreting services are quite predictable and include:

- “I have not learnt how to interpret properly and sometimes I find some accents really difficult to interpret. Although I have been interpreting, I still think that there is a lot more to learn” (MSFS04);
- “I have provided interpreting services once and I took it as a challenge because during the course I never learned about interpreting” (MSFS05);
- “Most of my confidence in providing translation services was built within the classroom amongst my other peers and the lecturer, so as the interpreting component was not part of the programme, I didn’t have the chance to develop this skill” (MSFS06);
- “Interpreting is very ‘tricky’ and it requires (in my viewpoint) more compared to translating” (MSFS09);
- “I keep running away from interpreting because it is difficult, but I have done a couple of jobs locally” (MSFS13);
- “I feel more like a fish in the water translating than interpreting because I didn’t have interpreting lessons” (MSFS14); and
- “I don’t feel quite confident about interpreting because I had no training in interpreting; I don’t feel I have the methodologies and procedures required for interpreting services, as interpreting was not part of the translation curriculum I took” (MSFS17).

It is, therefore, clear that although the level of graduates’ confidence in their own capacity to provide translation services is high, they lack confidence in their ability to offer interpreting services simply because they are presently not given such training at UEM. This suggests that a major change to the current translation course would necessitate the reintegration of an interpreting component into the curriculum.

4.2.2.5 Findings on graduate employability and course relevance

In terms of graduate employability, the current UEM translation course seems to be able to boost the students’ chances of getting a job not very long after graduation (see figure 15 below). In this regard, 82% of former translation students said they had a job at the time of data collection. Of these, 67% said they had a full-time job while 33% were working freelance. At least 10 of the graduates having either a full-time or a freelance job took less than 1 year to get their first job.
Those who found the translation course very relevant to securing their current job did so because, among others:

- “One of the requirements for the position was a Certificate in Translation or Interpretation” (MSFS03);
- “Thanks to my English and Portuguese competences that I acquired during the course, it was easy for me to be hired” (MSFS04); and
- “The certificate I received from UEM has proven to be the correct password to access translation jobs” (MSFS13).

One graduate even shared his story this way:

- “After graduating, my first job was as an English and a Portuguese Teacher in a private institution because the employer got really interested in my academic profile in terms of training, although I hadn’t been trained in Pedagogy.... Later, I moved to a big company, an industry, where I was hired to work as a Translator, and funny enough I wasn’t even interviewed for that position after applying for it, as I was the only person with a Translation course amongst all who had applied for the vacancy” (MSFS09).
When he told this story, this ex-student was teaching English and Translation, the latter offered as a minor at a university in central Mozambique.

However, some did not see much relevance in the translation course because, as they said:

- “I think with or without the course I would eventually get the job I have now. It surely did help on the quality but not on the choice” (MSFS02);
- “Employers don’t give much value to translators – they want employees who translate and do something else” (MSFS14); and
- “My job has nothing to do with translation but deals with people from different cultures. However, the fact that I had English as a subject contributed somehow” (MSFS17).

It appears that the translation training that former students had at UEM does not have a direct relationship with their current job, since only 6 of the students who reported having a job describe their task as being related to translation and/or interpreting, compared to 6 whose job involves neither translation nor interpreting and another 5 who do other tasks plus a little translation and interpreting. Thus, the chances of being hired solely for translation and/or interpreting are fewer than for performing other tasks and perhaps being ready to do translation and interpreting when circumstances require it. Nevertheless, 11 out of 18 former students find the translation course they did at UEM “very relevant” for obtaining their first job.

Moreover, data on former students also revealed another positive finding in that clients are satisfied with the quality of their services. Thus, 8 of the 18 respondents who have provided some translation and interpreting services since graduating have received “very positive” feedback, while 9 have received “positive” feedback. In contrast, only 1 has received “negative feedback”, because of “lack of thorough proofreading, which is due to the timeframe that is usually agreed with the translators” (MSFS03).

These findings on customer satisfaction are particularly important, for customers’ assessment of graduates’ service quality helps to indirectly evaluate the curriculum. Moreover, this data will be triangulated later on with graduates’
translation test results to confirm or disprove their allegation that their quality of translation services is acceptable.

In summary, the assessment of the current UEM curriculum included five main variables: (i) overall assessment of the curriculum’s efficacy to develop translation and interpreting competence; (ii) recommendability of UEM translation course; (iii) irrelevant modules; (iv) graduate’s confidence to provide English and Portuguese and vice versa translation and interpreting services; and (v) graduate employability. The latter included themes such as: course relevance to finding a job and level of customer satisfaction with graduate service quality. The general conclusion drawn is that the current UEM translation curriculum has both positive and negative aspects and the latter provide enough reasons for wanting to improve it in order to make it more conducive to translation and interpreting competence development.

Now attention is centred on the search for an ideal translator training model for UEM. The reason for including this kind of data is because some lecturers at UEM have argued in favour of a training model where translation and interpreting competences are developed simultaneously under one single programme, while others are in favour of developing these competences separately, and yet others think it best to offer a general language science course which covers translation and interpreting among several competencies such as language teaching, secretarial skills, linguistic revision and proofreading.

4.2.3 In search of an ideal translator/interpreter training model

The main focus of this section is the search for an ideal translator and interpreter model in a context where three options have been proposed:

(i) training students under one single programme to become both translators and interpreters;
(ii) training translators and interpreters separately under two stand-alone programmes; and
(iii) training translators and interpreters under an umbrella language science programme.

4.2.3.1 Findings on the idea of training translators and interpreters under one single programme

As depicted in figure 16 below, most stakeholders (80%) are in favour of a model where translators and interpreters are trained simultaneously under one single programme.

*Figure 16: Participants’ opinion about training translators and interpreters under one single programme*

![Pie chart showing participants' opinion](image)

Among the arguments in favour of a single translation and interpreting course are the following:

- “We can learn translating and interpreting, have good skills in either if we want to, and we could have more opportunities to get a job in either of the areas” (MSCS01);
- “Translation and interpreting go together, so the procedures, techniques, methods are the same” (MSCS10);
- “A single course would empower the students and those modules that are ‘useless’ would be replaced by interpreting lessons” (MSCS11);
- “I believe that these skills somehow complement each other in terms of professionalism” (MSCS12);
- “By designing a single course, perhaps it would be easier to focus on a single curriculum and provide the main training needed” (MSCS19);
- “I don’t think graduates from this course will ever work solely in one of the two streams, that is, either only as a translator or only as an interpreter – they co-occur” (MSCS39);
- “I believe that it’s a good thing to be a translator and an interpreter. Whenever there's work to do (translation/interpreting), one would be able to do it” (MSCS41);
- “The skills required are almost the same and at the end of the day graduates end up doing one or the other in the real market” (MSCS51);
- “When people hear that you are a translator, they automatically think that you are also an interpreter, so if you say that you are unable to do one thing or the other, they think that you are incompetent” (MSFS04);
- “By the time the student graduates, he will be complete and ready to carry out the two activities, which would greatly improve his performance” (MSPS07);
- “It would be convenient because it would save one's time, which is important nowadays” (MSPS13);
- “Both entail code switch from a given language into another and enhance employment chances” (MSTT04);
- “Many translators end up interpreting without the requisite competencies. It’s far better to endow the students with everything they need” (MSTT10);
- “I don't think people should waste time studying the same things in different moments” (MSSP05); and
- “If they can do both, it will help them seek for the market. It will also reduce the cost for the users” (MSSP09).

Those who disagree or are doubtful have reasons such as:

- “I don’t think a student must be obliged to do what he doesn't want to do” (MSCS29);
“I think each person has his own skills so one can have competence for translation while the other can have for interpreting” (MSCS48);

“This would be too much for the students because it would add more modules and workload than the current one, which is also too much as the focus is also given to non-translation related subjects” (MSFS17);

“Anecdotal evidence shows that few in this training would be able to develop satisfactory competences in the interpreting area” (MSTT03);

“The competences acquired in translation and interpreting are different, hence the need to specify the study of each area/branch” (MSSP01); and

“There are students with difficulties in assimilating both areas simultaneously” (MSSP11).

From the comments of those who are in favour of a single course in translation and interpreting, it is possible to see the respondents’ emphasis on the complementarity of the two activities (translation and interpreting) and the potential benefit of cost-effectiveness and time efficiency. From the comments of those opposing this suggestion, we can notice the fear that a student would be “obliged” to study two areas or activities perceived to be different. But students entering university are far from being obliged to take any course – it is a choice they make. Moreover, as we have just seen, there are more perceived gains to developing translation and interpreting competences in tandem than separately. Thus, the suggestion to offer translation and interpreting training under one single programme is worth considering.

4.2.3.2 Findings on the idea of training translators and interpreters under two separate courses

In stark contrast, figure 17 below shows that very few agree with the idea of offering two separate programmes for translation and interpreting training. More than half of the respondents are against separating translation from interpreting compared to 17 percent who are in favour. It is interesting to note from the graph that 13 percent of the respondents either were not sure or did not say anything about this issue, suggesting that it is, perhaps, an unnecessary debate.
Those opposing the idea of detaching translation from interpreting do so because:

- “It may not allow us to have an open market and it may not explore our abilities” (MSCS03);
- “I see these two fields branching from the same node” (MSCS09);
- “It’s not rewarding to have an interpreter who cannot write what he says. Writing (translation) and speaking (interpreting) should always be developed together, as they complement each other” (MSCS13);
- “It'll be a waste of time” (MSCS27);
- “Translation and interpreting should be learned in the same course because at the end of the day, for instance, the market will regard the Translator as an Interpreter” (MSFS18); and
- “I think it's important to have an overview of these issues and this will make students better prepared to face possible future difficulties” (MSPS04).

The reasons given by respondents arguing for separating translation from interpreting include the following:

- “The two courses are difficult and sensitive. It's better to train separately” (MSCS49);
- “This would ease the workload and result in competent translators and interpreters” (MSFS13);
- “It’s possible to train students in only one course. It’s only more burdensome in terms of resources, which are scanty” (MSTT06);
- “I’d be more in favour of separation but not at this level. Translation could be offered at Honours degree level and interpreting at Master’s level having the same target audience” (MSTT09); and
- “Too many things aimed at the same audience might cause some confusion” (MSPS03).

In sum, both the data in figure 17 above and the comments that have just been presented lead to the conclusion that, from the stakeholders’ point of view, an ideal training model does not separate translation from interpreting.

4.2.3.3 Findings on the idea of training translators and interpreters under an umbrella language science course

As already mentioned (see section 1.6 in Chapter 1), some lecturers at UEM have suggested that an effective training model for translators and interpreters would be one that trains them under one umbrella Language Science course, where they could also choose to learn other competencies such as language teaching, text revision/editing, secretarial skills, and so on. Some lecturers have proposed that under such a model, it would be perfectly possible for a student to opt for translation and teaching, for instance, instead of interpreting. Moreover, others are convinced that such a model makes the graduate more “knowledgeable” because he/she is exposed to a wealth of knowledge from literature and linguistics, which may prevent him/her from being “narrow-minded” as just a translator or an interpreter.

With regard to this strand of thought, the survey data shows that a considerable number of stakeholders (28 percent) would agree (see figure 18 below). However, it is striking that the same number of people are not sure whether this would be the best way to train translators and interpreters, while 33 percent overtly express their disapproval of this approach.
Those in support of this model justify their position as follows:

- “Some students work more effectively in some modules than others, so if they can choose what they want to study, they will improve their knowledge in what they really want to study” (MSCS04);
- “The student knows which his scope is and, with free choice, he would choose the modules that best fill his needs” (MSCS31);
- “It would open more job opportunities and would offer more options” (MSCS34);
- “Translators may strongly develop their understanding of how to go deeper in every purpose, translation, interpreting, or even teaching” (MSCS44);
- “This is also a procedure that would bring very productive results, as students would choose according to what they want or how they feel concerning these fields” (MSFS17); and
- “This allows the student a wide range of employment options in the context of our fragile economy and a very limited labour market” (MSTT03).

On the contrary, opposing participants feel this model would be inappropriate because:

- “We need to have a focus” (MSCS03);
“I believe that focus on one field is what can lead to very well-trained translators and interpreters. There are linguistics and literature courses/modules which students can do as optional modules if they like” (MSCS12);

“Students may relax and end up doing only one thing” (MSCS18);

“Designing a course like that would be a complex task and even confusing for the students” (MSCS19);

“It can make the course very extended, less objective and sometimes boring” (MSCS21);

“It would be too many duties for a single professional to perform” (MSCS22);

“Translation and interpreting is a course just like other courses; this course deserves equality and must be recognized officially” (MSCS23);

“Students should have a focus on their studies, so this kind of course would not only complicate the students but the university as well in terms of course design” (MSCS26);

“The student would have the choice to study exactly what they wanted to, but in that case we would not be talking about training translators or interpreters only” (MSFS08);

“There would not be enough time to develop translation and/or interpreting competence” (MSFS11);

“An umbrella course ‘disperses’ the training contents” (MSTT06); and

“A translator should focus on translation issues right from the start” (MSTT11).

It can, thus, be concluded that the perceived benefits of a multi-competence umbrella language science course are outweighed by the concerns that the model would not be fit for developing translation and interpreting competence in students.

On the other hand, because UEM students are presently trained to translate into Portuguese, the search for an ideal translator and interpreter training model in this study included a question on the translation directionality policy, i.e. a policy
stating whether or not students should practise translating and interpreting into their L2 or L3 during their training. The findings thereof are presented below.

4.2.3.4 Findings on a mandatory bidirectional translation / interpreting practice policy

The last question under section 3 of the survey asked whether translation and/or interpreting practice from and into English should be made mandatory. In this regard, 83 percent expressed support for this policy. Significantly, according to figure 19 below, 66 percent of the respondents strongly agree with this idea, against just 3 percent who disagree.

*Figure 19: Participants' opinion about a mandatory bidirectional translation/interpreting practice policy*

There are various reasons for supporting the mandatory bidirectional translation/interpreting practice policy. Among these, for example, are:

- “For one to become a good translator and interpreter, linguistic competences are needed” (MSCS05);
- “This can make the student double skilled” (MSCS06);
- The translator and/or interpreter never knows what he will be translating and must be versatile and able to handle either language” (MSCS07);
- “The translator needs to be fluent in both languages to be successful in his career” (MSCS09);
- “For you to be good at translating or interpreting, you need more practice; so if you don’t practise a lot, you probably won’t be good and competent enough to face this challenging market” (MSCS21);
- “It would provide solid understanding of both languages for translators and interpreters” (MSCS22);
- “Since we are studying both Portuguese and English, the students should master both languages” (MSCS23);
- “Most companies prefer hiring those who work in both directions” (MSCS48);
- “A truly skilled translator is the one who is comfortable translating either way” (MSFS08);
- “Although we live in a Portuguese speaking country, it does not mean that as Translators we should only translate into Portuguese (i.e., only from English). The reality has proven that the other way round will always be needed” (MSFS09);
- “I strongly agree because that is the reality in the Mozambican translation market. Even if the translator does not feel they can provide high quality services in translating from Portuguese into English, they will end up doing that, otherwise they can lose a client” (MSFS11);
- “If the interpreter can’t do it in both languages he or she is not ready to work on it for he or she must have a good command of both languages” (MSFS20);
- “It’s a way for a translator/interpreter to develop communicative competences in both languages” (MSTT01);
- “Students should be competent and fluent in both languages in order to successfully cope with the demands of the translation/interpreting market” (MSTT08); and
- “Thus the student develops the needed competences to use them later in his/her activity” (MSTT11).

The few who disagree, or hesitate, provided the following reasons:
- “It would be a huge challenge, as we need to have such a great command of the English language (MSCS15);
- This is in fact the ideal scenario, although the reality might show that few acquire equivalent competences in both directions” (MSTT03); and
- “I believe that there’s need for the student to have more target language command” (MSTT05).

The analysis of the data presented in this subsection can lead to the following conclusion: An ideal translator and interpreter training model includes a mandatory policy according to which students must practise translating and interpreting from and into a foreign language, whether that is their second language (if Portuguese is their mother tongue) or it is their third language (if a Mozambican indigenous language is their mother tongue with Portuguese as their primary medium of instruction).

Now attention is directed toward a provisional proposal that the researcher included in the survey (see Annexure II).

4.2.4 Proposing a new translator/interpreter training model and improved curricula for UEM

In line with objective 3 of this study (see Chapter 1, section 1.5.2), namely “To propose a translation and interpreting competence development model that can provide a framework for designing conducive translator and interpreter training curricula”, the survey captured data on respondents’ reactions reported on below. It should be pointed out that such a model proposal was made based on the researcher’s findings during his pilot study. As can be seen in Annexure II, this model was incorporated into the survey together with three examples of curriculum proposals fashioned after such a model. The aim of including this proposal was to get feedback from respondents in order to see the perceived (non)feasibility of such a model, as it was expected that after completion of this study, the proposed model would be submitted to decision-makers at UEM as a modest contribution to the ongoing curriculum review process.
4.2.4.1 Feedback on the researcher’s model proposed as a framework for guiding the training of Mozambican translators/interpreters

According to figure 20 below, 84 percent of the respondents approve of the proposed model, with 42% finding it “very practical” and 42% judging it “practical”, against 4% considering it just “a little practical” and 5% being uncertain. Significantly, no participant considered it impractical.

**Figure 20: Respondents’ reactions to the researcher’s proposed training model**

Among others, reasons for accepting the proposed translation and interpreting competence development model are the following:

- “Mostly because of the service provision part. It teaches us how to behave in the employment market” (MSCS01);
- “It offers students all the tools they need when they go for a BA honours degree, particularly in this field of knowledge” (MSCS12);
- “The proposed model is the ideal one as it encompasses all the language tools needed for the course and so it responds to the needs of professionals” (MSCS13);
- “This will enable students to practise translation and focus on translation as a whole with enough accuracy” (MSCS15);
“It gathers all the competences and skills that a translator or an interpreter should have” (MSCS19);

“It is realistic, well compounded and brings the most relevant aspects in respect of translation/interpreting competence development” (MSCS21);

“It just reflects the reality. For a successful training process, we should take this model into consideration” (MSCS26);

“Astonishing, a translation/interpreting service provider that gathers all these qualities is the ideal one” (MSCS47);

“It fills all the gaps; I believe with this model students can feel confident to face the market” (MSCS48);

“It's clear that the model covers and provides a wide range of skills and competences that the students will have acquired by the end of their training” (MSPS03);

“This model has a holistic and strategic view which essentially aims at training translators” (MSPS08);

“First, it teaches you languages; then it gives you the chance to choose what you like; then it teaches you how to deal with people; it prepares you to deal with the real world/life situations” (MSPS18);

“I believe it presents the different components that should be included in translator training” (MSTT03);

“The first focus is communicative competence because this stage will give a picture of who is linguistically mature/prepared to face the demands of the course” (MSTT08);

“It truly encompasses the dimensions that empower the translator/interpreter; I think it covers the various existential areas of a competent translator/interpreter” (MSTT09); and

“It comprises all the tools that a translation/interpreting student needs, from translation/interpreting competence to service provision competence. One of the most difficulties faced by former students is related to finding a job. So, this model gives important tools, such as entrepreneurial skills, self-marketing, etc., which enable former students to opt for self-employment” (MSFS19).
The few finding it “a little practical”, or hesitating, justified their choice as follows:

- “A translator or an interpreter will no longer have competences in linguistics, pragmatics and other fields at all” (MSCS10);
- “We lack some materials that would improve the curriculum such as audio-visual materials” (MSCS28);
- “I think communicative competence should cover more space than general knowledge (MSCS36); and
- “With regard to communicative competence, semantic competence, lexical competence and syntactic competence are missing” (MSCS49).

Thus, although some may feel that the proposed model is restrictive; most respondents find the model appropriate because it promises to professionalize the student.

4.2.4.2 Suggestions for improving the proposed model

From the suggestions made by respondents, it seems that they are more concerned with the operationalization of the proposed model for training translators and interpreters. For example, some respondents made suggestions touching on the following themes:

- interaction with different embassies to enable contact with the culture related to the language – MSCS03;
- designing lectures, study tours and cultural exchange programmes – MSPU02;
- providing more and advanced tools for research – MSCS10;
- providing short computer courses – MSCS11;
- adding more modules in English – MSCS18;
- more investment in equipment – MSCS19;
- providing students with a traineeship to get involved with the market – MSCS26;
- providing other study materials such as audio-visual materials and specially equipped-rooms – MSCS26;
- more focus on general knowledge and service provision – MSFS08;
removing optional modules and replacing them with modules such as translation of legal documents/economics etc., and adding modules covering syntax and semantics – MSTT07

- early start of translation/interpreting practice (from year 1); and
- introducing exchange programmes between universities and challenging students to create ICT-based programmes – MSPU03.

Some of these suggestions, for example, exchange programmes, seem beyond the scope of the proposed model, but reveal the extent to which stakeholders would like to see a better translator and interpreter training environment at UEM.

The next subsection reports on the respondents’ reactions to the researcher’s curriculum proposals made based on the model commented on above.

4.2.4.3 Feedback on three curriculum proposals to replace the current UEM curriculum

The survey asked participants to rank the best, second best and worst curriculum proposal among three proposals made by the researcher based on his proposed translation/interpreting competence model. As can be observed in the graphs below (Figures 21, 22 and 23), proposal 1 was ranked first by 64 out of 123 participants, i.e. more than half of the respondents.

Some of the reasons why proposal 1 was prized by the majority were:

- “Joining translation and interpreting will help students improve their competences and give them more employment options when they finish the course” (MSCS04);
- “It is very practical, and it doesn’t only train a translation student but a professional” (MSCS07);
- “The proposal is inclusive: it gathers both courses and offers enough number of optional modules” (MSCS09);
- “It covers various areas of knowledge, which makes teaching and learning flexible, dynamic and effective” (MSCS20);
- “It embraces the most relevant points or modules; I can't imagine translation/interpreting without these modules” (MSCS21);
- “It allows the candidates/students greater freedom of choice according to their interest” (MSCS39);
- “The proposal is focused and goes straight to the point. It gives you the sign of translating right from the beginning” (MSCS45);
- “This is perfect because it gives the student a chance to choose specialization according to his/her abilities” (MSCS48);
- “It is ideal for our market and clients” (MSFS05);
- “I think this is the most comprehensive proposal of all with many translation and interpreting modules” (MSFS07);
- “The competences are taught simultaneously and the student is given the chance to specialize either in translation or interpreting and to freely choose any other field to study a different field which may become useful when providing translation/interpreting, since a good translator has to be well versed in different areas” (MSFS10);
- “It advances the idea of letting the student develop their and translation and interpreting competences simultaneously” (MSPS03);
- “It essentially focuses on the training of translators/interpreters and is based on specific skills which the student chooses at the end of his training” (MSPS08);
- “It’s encompassing and consistent with the translation and interpreter training philosophy” (MSTT06);
- “It’s dynamic and straightforward. Right at the beginning students get the feeling of their future job. The modules are pragmatic” (MSTT08);
- “It enables the individual to deal with the two most common ways of using two languages simultaneously without prioritizing neither (MSTT10); and
- “Although the student only specializes in one of the two areas, he or she has sufficient basic notions in the other area” (MSSP01).

Figure 22: Second best curriculum proposal

Proposal two was mainly found to be the second best curriculum alternative to the current translation because even though it does not enable simultaneous development of both translation and interpreting competences, it still has a clear focus either on translation or interpreting. For example, the following comments were made about proposal 2:

- “Students will have freedom to choose an area of their interest which can be somehow an area of specialization. E.g. it can be an interpreter/translator of macroeconomic texts” (MSCS12);
“Although the specializations are separate, this proposal would be eligible to be option B” (MSCS26);

“I think this is the perfect model; I rank it second because it is not ideal for the Mozambican market, as the professional feels obliged to provide both services” (MSFS12);

“If you aren’t, for instance, very good at interpreting, you can opt for Translation course to avoid wasting time learning interpreting” (MSFS18); and

“It enables accommodating the undecided/least confident, in case they want to do both tasks, by giving them good preparation all the same” (MSTT10).

Figure 23: Worst ranked curriculum proposal

Finally, the views expressed earlier on about the idea of training translators and interpreters under an umbrella language science course deeply influenced the rating of proposal three as the worst. For example, the following was stated by the respondents regarding proposal 3:

“It’s not really bad; there are more modules and we don’t see the relevance of some of them; they are so complicated and we would waste our time” (MSCS08);
- “I believe that this curriculum is really confusing. Candidates hardly meet their goals. In fact, module placement is also confusing. It seems that one is studying everything. They forget that different courses should have different compulsory modules” (MSCS17);
- “It involves many modules that are not object of study in this course, i.e., modules that will not be used at all in real life translation” (MSCS36);
- “It is not deeply focused on developing translation/interpreting competence. Apart from that, it does not prepare the students for translation/interpreting service provision” (MSFS12);
- “It is quite monotonous. It covers subjects that only waste the trainee’s time, especially in year 1” (MSFS14);
- “We would return to the dilemma we face in Mozambique: unnecessary modules and without any application being introduced in degree courses with different contents; scattered knowledge” (MSPS01);
- “It doesn’t achieve the aims of a translation and interpreting course” (MSSP01);
- “It corresponds to the insufficiencies of the current scenario. It has superfluous modules” (MTT09); and
- “Too generalistic with little likelihood to train competitive graduates, exacerbated by the current low level of entry” (MSTT11).

The above comments, taken together with those on the first two curriculum proposals, are consistent with the findings earlier on (see sections 4.2.3.1 above) that the best model for training translators and interpreters is one that enables simultaneous development of translation and interpreting competences. Moreover, the modules chosen for a curriculum designed under such a model have to focus on building specific sub competences perceived to be inherent in the translator’s and/or interpreter’s profession, rather than modules that lecturers simply believe are essential for university students.
4.2.4.4 Suggestions on the best ranked proposal

The suggestions and additional comments made by participants to improve the proposal they ranked first are similar to those given with regard to the researcher’s proposed translation and interpreting model in section 4.2.4.2 above, focusing more on operationalizing the curriculum. Therefore, to avoid redundancy they have been omitted.

Following the presentation and discussion of findings from the survey data analysis, part 2 of this chapter focuses on assessing UEM graduates’ translation quality. As already mentioned in section 1.8.2 of Chapter 1 (Introduction) and sections 3.6.2 and 3.6.3 of Chapter 3 (Research Design and Methodology), data triangulation in this study was made possible through an English translation test and samples of graduates’ archived Portuguese translations. The data generated from these sources could be useful to assess the students’ claims that they are confident enough to provide English and Portuguese translation services and that their customers are happy with the quality of their services, as reported in sections 4.2.2.4 and 4.2.2.5 above.

4.3 PART II: ASSESSING GRADUATES’ TRANSLATION QUALITY

4.3.1 Source text characteristics

As mentioned in section 3.6.2 of Chapter 3 (Research Design and Methodology), former students were asked to translate a sample text from Portuguese into English to provide data for macro- and micro-textual analysis. The text consists of 135 words and was extracted from an official government document entitled *Plano Estratégico do Sector da Saúde – PESS 2014-2019* (Health Sector Strategic Plan – 2014-2019), published by the Mozambican Health Ministry (see Annexure VI Data collection tool #2). The content of the selected source text is, by and large, simple except where specialized language is used, such as: “maternal and neonatal mortality”, “pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal complications”, “disease burden”, “NCDs” (Non-Communicable Diseases), and “outbreaks”.
In the same vein, as mentioned in section 3.6.3 of Chapter 3 (Research Design and Methodology), the third source of data used in this study was a corpus of former UEM students’ final translation projects archived in the English Section, where the researcher is based. The English source texts for the Portuguese translations analysed below were different because students completed this assignment in different years. A sample of each translation corresponding to 100-135 words in the source text was selected.

In total, six different source texts were used for the samples analysed in this study. The first text was extracted from a report on the Zimbabwean electoral process in 2008 (see Annexure VII Data collection tool #3). The content included terms such as “deployment”, “opposition onslaught”, “run-up”, “vote tabulation”, “postal votes”, “narrow majority”, “a two-thirds parliamentary majority” and “constitutional and law-based measures of governance”.

The second sample was extracted from an ODI (Overseas Development Institute) paper entitled “Poverty and poverty reduction in sub-Saharan Africa: An overview of the issues” (see Annexure VII Data collection tool #3), prepared by Handley et al (2009). Key words included expressions such as: “politics”, “policy”, “chart a course between these extremes”, “drivers”, “maintainers of poverty”, “socio-economic factors”, “political economy factors”, “non-developmental politics”, “resource curse”, and “rules of the game”.

The third text analysed was extracted from an International Monetary Fund (IMF) report (see Annexure VII Data collection tool #3). Key words included “funding”, “deficit financing”, “frontier markets”, “tapping”, “sovereign bond markets”, “global downturn”, “project financing” “project needs”, “budget financing needs”, “incremental external financing” and “downturn scenario”.

As for the fourth sample analysed, the source text was taken from an online report on Maternal and Child Health by the Zimbabwean Ministry of Health (see Annexure VII Data collection tool #3). It included key words/expressions such as “integrated and comprehensive Maternal and Child Health package”, “care”, “home and institutional deliveries”, “postnatal care”, “child growth and development monitoring”, “surveillance of nutrition status”, “nutritionally at risk children”, “killer diseases”, “child spacing and family planning advice and
services”, “school going children”, “referral mechanism”, “health care specialist services” and “MCH service statistics”.

The fifth text was extracted from a paper entitled “The African Peer Review Mechanism: Achievements and Challenges Five Years After” (see Annexure VII Data collection tool #3), presented by Afeikhena (2008) at a conference in Maputo. The language was quite accessible and the few difficult expressions were: “peer review”, “policy making capacity”, “hand down” and “binding judgment”.

Finally, the sixth text (see Annexure VII Data collection tool #3) was taken from an IMF study prepared by Elborgh-Woytek et al. (2013). The content of the text included these words and expressions, which could present some difficulty: “household income”, “ILO”, “poverty-reducing factor”, “earnings”, “expenditure”, “school enrollment”, “virtuous cycle” and “female role models”.

4.3.2 Translation error analysis method applied to this study

As explained in section 3.7.2 of Chapter 3 (Research Design and Methodology), the assessment of UEM graduates’ translation quality in this study was conducted in accordance with the macro- and micro-translation error analysis method developed by Magaia (2014, 65-66; 2016, 58-60) in his previous research. This method uses two major parameters: message accuracy and text effectiveness (see section 3.7.2 in Chapter 3 for definitions). The method, therefore, distinguishes between two macro-level categories of translation errors (TEs), namely source language-originated errors (SLOEs) and target language-originated errors (TLOEs).

The category of SLOEs encompasses the following micro-level TEs:

1. Wrong meaning (WM);
2. Wrong lexical choice (WLC);
3. Omission (O); and
4. Nonsense (NS).
Paraphrasing Magaia (2014, 84), *wrong meaning* means that the source language text message has been distorted in the target language text; *wrong lexical choice* means the use of false friends or other ineffective lexical or terminological items bearing in mind the context, purpose, register and style of the text and target audience; *omission* is when a content-rich element (word or phrase) in the source text is unduly removed from the target text; and *nonsense* is when the message delivered does not make any sense at all.

On the other hand, under the umbrella category of TLOEs, the following micro-level errors are distinguished:

1. Target language norm deviation (ND);
2. Misspelling (MS);
3. Poor punctuation (PP); and
4. Unnaturalness (UN).

*Target language norm deviation* corresponds to the “grammar” criterion in Waddington’s (2001, 313) Method A. The idea is to identify cases of ungrammatical utterances that the trainee translator should improve. Likewise, *misspelling* corresponds to the “spelling” criterion in Waddington’s Method A (2001, 313). *Poor punctuation* highlights any problem with punctuation observed in the student’s translation. This feature is included in this translation error analysis method because, as Newmark (1998, 58) points out, punctuation “is an essential aspect of discourse analysis, since it gives a semantic indication of the relationship between sentences and clauses, which may vary according to languages”. Thus, this aspect is examined under target language punctuation rules, regardless of the punctuation conventions used in the source language text. Finally, *unnaturalness* indicates cases where, for instance, a word, a phrase, word order, or grammar usage may not sound natural to the readers of the target language text. This TE analysis method endorses Newmark’s (1998, 20) viewpoint, according to which “‘naturalness’ is both grammatical and lexical, and is a touchstone at every level of a text, from paragraph to word, from title to punctuation”.

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4.3.3 Findings on former students’ output speed

On average, each of the 18 students who returned the requested translations spent nearly 40 minutes to accomplish the translation task, which included reading, text analysis (exegesis), terminology research, transfer, evaluation, revision, editing, etc. The fastest translator reported 17 minutes, and the slowest 60 minutes, to finish the assignment.

Considering that the average output speed in an experiment in Waddington’s (2001, 316) test was 110 words per hour, the ideal speed to translate the texts referred to in 4.3.2 above should be around 75 minutes, to allow optimal quality. Thus, the average output speed reported by former students here may suggest that they are overconfident. This attitude negatively impacted on the quality of their translations as shown in section 4.3.3 below.

4.3.4 Results of former UEM students’ translation error analysis

Presented below are the results of translation error analysis of former UEM students’ translations from Portuguese into English. It should be pointed out that the complete macro- and micro-textual analysis conducted in this study covered 36 samples (18 in English and 18 in Portuguese) but, for the sake of space and time, the number of samples presented below totals fifteen. Of these, twelve are in English and three in Portuguese. In each language, the samples presented provide the worst examples of unacceptable translations. The remaining samples, in which the students succeeded to produce an acceptable translation, can be found in Annexure IX.

4.3.4.1 English translation test analysis

Presented below are the twelve English translation samples selected for discussion under this section.
SAMPLE 1:

Despite the documented improvements, the current health state of the Mozambican population suggests the need to accelerate the UN progress in reducing the UN high neonatal and maternal mortality indexes WLC, due to pregnancy, delivery and perinatal complications, including the reduction of the risk resulting from the UN high fecundity WLC and malnutrition rates. Apart from the specific mother and child health problems, the weight of the disease WLC/WM is still dominated by preventable diseases, or-ND by the change of behaviour, or by controlling WM measures, namely Malaria, HIV, TB and DNT WLC. Nonetheless, DNTs WLC and trauma, characterized by the UN chronic evolution, start-UN to influence the epidemiologic profile of the Country and to compete for the scarce existing resources. Moreover, the UN vulnerability to natural disasters O O O O O--put additional efforts WLC to the response capacity of the health system. —Translated by MSFS02

Classification: 0.0 (0.00%) – Highly unacceptable

This student has more SLOEs than TLOEs, which results in heavy penalisation. He has a total of twelve SLOEs, with six cases of wrong lexical choice and four of omission. Note these examples of wrong lexical choice: “indexes” for “rates”; “fecundity” for “fertility”; “the weight of the disease” for “disease burden”; “controlling” for “control”; “DNT” for “NCDs” (non-communicable diseases); “efforts” for “challenges”. Interestingly, where the student says “the weight of the disease”, not only does he fail to use the correct terminology but also distorts the message because he makes it sound as though the text was about the weight of a specific disease. It follows that the text is about the burden of various diseases such as malaria, HIV, TB and NCDs. There is an excessive number of omissions, too (four), which further reduces the accuracy of translation. On the other hand, there are six cases of unnaturalness caused by excessive use of the definite article “the”. Moreover, we can notice an unsatisfactory use of tense in this translation where the student says: “DNTs (which is supposed to be NCDs) and trauma … start to influence …”. This rendering is not natural for the context. A better rendering would read: “NCDs and trauma … are starting/are beginning to influence …” because the text is describing a process in progress. As a result, this student’s translation competence is very poor.
This student also has more SLOEs than TLOEs, which results in heavy penalisation. He has a total of thirteen SLOEs, where six cases of wrong lexical choice occur alongside cases of wrong meaning, omission and nonsense. Note this example: Instead of “high maternal and neonatal mortality rates”, he has “higher levels of maternal and neonatal mortality”. By all means, “higher” changes the sense of “high” and “levels” is not an appropriate terminological choice for “rates”. Another interesting example is: “as a result of pregnancy complications, childbirth, perinatal”, which makes no sense at all. He meant: “as a result of pregnancy, childbirth (or delivery) and perinatal complications”. On the other hand, the excessive number of TLOEs (eleven in total) in this text reduces its effectiveness as message vehicle. There are seven cases of unnaturalness similar to those seen in sample 1 above and four cases of ungrammaticality. For example, “accelerating the progresses” is both unnatural and ungrammatical because the definite article “the” does not point any specific item and the noun “progress” is uncountable in English. A better rendering would simply read: “need to accelerate progress”. Similarly to the translator of sample 1, this student’s translation competence in terms of translating from Portuguese into English is very poor.
This student has more TLOEs (ten) than SLOEs (eight). Looking at the sample above, we can see that there are four cases of target norm deviation and four of unnaturalness. Some of these types of errors are similar to those described in the previous samples above (tense, article), but we can highlight this one: “or” by behavior change, or control measures”. A better rendering would be: “either by behaviour change or control measures”. Notice that the comma between “change” and “or” is unnecessary in English in the “either… or” collocation. On the other hand, the five cases of wrong lexical choice observed in this sample add to the SLOEs the student makes, but we can highlight this case of nonsense: “the maternal and child specific health problems”. This confusing phrase should read: “the specific maternal and child health problems”. In addition, TLOE cases can be illustrated by the lack of naturalness of expression in this translation. For example, the phrase “Furthermore, the vulnerability to the natural disasters…” lacks naturalness because of the use of the definite article “the”, which seems to be due to Portuguese language interference.
This student has a total of eleven SLOEs, of which six are wrong lexical choice errors and four are wrong meaning errors. For example, as can be seen in sample 4 above, he says “standards” instead of “rates”; “mitigation” instead of “reduction”; “over and above”, where he should say “in addition” or “moreover”; “maternal-child healthcare” instead of “maternal and child health”. An example of a wrong meaning error is the occurrence of “mitigation of risks”, which fails to convey the idea in the source text: reducing the (specific) risk that results from high fertility rates. Another example is the unnecessary presence of “inter alia” observed in line 8 of the text in sample 4 above. On the other hand, there is an excess of target norm deviation errors and unnatural utterances, e.g., “accelerate the progresses” instead of “accelerate progress”; and “fertility and malnutrition high rates” instead of high fertility and malnutrition high rates”. Thus, the overall result of this student reveals that his translation competence is very poor.
The accuracy of this translation is seriously compromised by the excessive number of SLOES (eight), of which four are omission error, two are wrong lexical choice errors and two wrong meaning errors. The first omission is seen where he says: “pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal complications”, instead of: “due to pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal complications”. The second case is where he says: “a change in behavior or by control measures”, when he should say: “either by a change in behaviour or by control measures”. Since two content-rich items have been omitted (namely, “either by”), with a significant impact on the meaning of the sentence, two omissions have been identified and penalised in the correction of this translation. The last case of omission errors is where the student says: “compete for the scarce resources”. The source text has an additional meaning-changing item “existentes”, so the translation should read: “compete for the existing scarce resources” or “compete for the scarce resources available”. On a positive note, the number of TLOEs is relatively low. However, although the student shows some potential for improvement, his translation competence remains poor.
In spite of the documented improvements, the current health state of the Mozambican population suggests the need to accelerate progress in the reduction of high maternal and neonatal mortality rates, due to complications during pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal ones, including the reduction of risk resulting from high fecundity and malnutrition rates. Aside from specific maternal-child health problems, the disease burden continues to be dominated by preventable diseases namely Malaria, HIV, TB and NCD’s, or ND by the change in behavior or by control measures. However, NCD’s and trauma, characterized by chronic evolution, begin to influence the Country’s epidemiological profile and compete for the scarce existent resources. Aside from that, vulnerability to natural disasters and epidemic outbreaks places additional challenges to the response ability of the health system. — Translated by MSFS08

This student would not have been so heavily penalized had it not been for lack of target-text language command. As such, she has eleven TLOEs. Unnatural utterances are most striking. For example, she says: “the high maternal and neonatal mortality rates”, where the definite article “the” does not point out any specific items. Also, she says: “complications during pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal ones”. This sounds unnatural and should simply be: “pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal complications”. Nonetheless, she is the best among the students whose samples have been analysed so far.
Despite documented improvements, the current health status of the Mozambican population suggests the need to accelerate progress in order to reduce high rates of maternal and neonatal mortality, by-WLC pregnancy complications, delivery and perinatal NS, including risk-reduction WM, resulting from high rates of fertility and malnutrition. In addition to specific mother-to-child WLC health problems, the disease burden continues to be dominated by preventable diseases, behavior change or control measures such as malaria, HIV, TB and NCD UN. However, NCDs and trauma, characterized by chronic evolution, begin UN to influence the country's epidemiological profile and compete for scarce resources. In addition, vulnerability to natural disasters and the occurrence of outbreaks pose additional challenges to the health system's responsiveness. —Translated by MSFS18

Classification: 7.42 (37.1%) – Highly unacceptable

This student could, perhaps, have achieved better performance if he had been more careful not to omit certain essential items as can be seen in the sample above. For example, where he omits “either by” immediately before “behavior change”, he ends up distorting the message. The same is true of “scarce resources”; there was no particular reason for omitting “existing scarce resources” from this phrase. It may be speculated that in the face of difficulty, the “non-persistent” disposition of the student led to his “capitulation”, to paraphrase Campbell (1998, 154). On a positive note, though, with better training, the student appears to have good potential for improvement, as he has very few cases of TLOEs.
This sample analysis shows that the student has more SLOEs (nine, of which six wrong meaning errors) than TLOEs (six). For example, the student distorts the intended meaning right at the beginning of the text when he says: “...the current health condition of the Mozambican population requires the acceleration of progress in reducing...” instead of: “...the current health condition of the Mozambican population suggests the need to accelerate progress in reducing...” as expressed in the source text in Portuguese. The next example is when he translates “incluindo a redução do risco resultante das elevadas taxas de fecundidade e de malnutrição...” as “including risk reduction resulting from high fertility and malnutrition rates”. Here, he fails to grasp that, instead of emphasizing the reduction of a specific risk that results from high fertility rates, he is implying that the reduction of risk (or risks) results from high fertility rates. In other words, he is saying that it is the reduction that results from such high rates, not the risk. These and other errors contribute to lowering the quality of the translation. On the other hand, he seems to have fewer problems in producing acceptable texts in English. The sample analysis suggests that this graduate’s translation competence is very poor.
SAMPLE 9

Despite the proven improvements, the current state of health of the Mozambican MS population suggests the need to accelerate progress in reducing high rates of mortal maternity and neonatal NS due to complications in pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal NS, including risk reduction WM arising from the UN high rates of fertility and malnutrition. Apart from the specific maternal and child health problems, the burden of disease is still dominated by preventable diseases, or ND by change in behaviour: PR or by control measures, namely, WM Malaria, HIV, TB and DNT-WLC. However, the UN DNTs WLC and the UN trauma, characterized by chronic evolution, begin UN to influence the epidemiological profile C-C and compete for the existing scarce resources. Apart from that, the UN vulnerability to natural disasters and the occurrence of outbreaks present additional challenges to the responsiveness of the health system. —Translated by MSFS10

Classification: 0.76 (3.8%) – Highly unacceptable

The student’s major problem is lack of accuracy as evidenced by the occurrence of nine SLOEs. Two examples of nonsense errors can be highlighted here. First, he speaks of “the need to accelerate progress in reducing high rates of mortal maternity and neonatal”. Any reader would see that this part of the text is meaningless. Therefore, in this phrase 2 alone SLOEs occur: (i) wrong meaning because of “mortal maternity” and (ii) nonsense because of the meaningless phrase “mortal maternity and neonatal”. Second, in the clause “due to complications in pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal”, again, any reader would see that the highlighted phrase is meaningless. Of course, this problem denotes problems with syntax, which could be analysed from the target language point of view, but it is considered a SLOE because it primarily shows that the student does not have adequate transfer skills to maintain the same message in the translation. On the other hand, it can be seen from sample 8 above that unnaturalness (UN) is by far the most important type of TLOEs occurring in this translation, followed by target language norm deviation (ND). Unnaturalness in most cases is due to excessive use of the definite article “the” in English because of Portuguese language interference.
This student could have been successful had it not been for his inexplicable distraction, resulting in five omission errors. As such, in the first sentence he omits the phrase “due to pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal complications”. However, he appears to have good text production skills in English. Despite this strength, his overall translation competence is very poor.
Despite documented improvements, the actual WLC state of health of the Mozambican people suggests the need to fast track the progress in the reduction of the UN high maternal mortality rates and neonatal NS, due to pregnancy complications, labour and perinatal NS, including the reduction of the risk resulting from the UN high rates of fertility and malnutrition. Apart from the specific problems of maternal and child health, the burden of the disease WM continues to be dominated by preventable diseases, or ND by the change of behaviour, PP or by control measures, namely Malaria, HIV, TB, or NCD UN PP. and trauma, characterized by chronic evolution, they--ND begin UN to influence the epidemiological profile of the country and to compete for the few existing resources. Beyond that ND, the ND vulnerability to natural disasters and the occurrence of outbreaks pose additional challenges to the response capacity of the health system. —Translated by MSFS16

Classification: 1.5 (7.5%) – Highly unacceptable

There are seven SLOEs in this translation, of which omission errors are most evident. However, the comments about sample 9 above can also be applied here with regard to nonsense errors. The first example is where he speaks of “the need to accelerate progress in reducing high rates of maternal mortality rates and neonatal” and the second is where he says “due to pregnancy complications, labour and perinatal”. In both instances, the reader can see that the phrases are meaningless. Equally important is the student’s weak ability to produce error-free texts in English. As a consequence, he accumulated eleven TLOEs and, therefore, his general translation competence is very poor.
This was by far the worst sample denoting problems at both levels. In other words, there is an excessive number of SLOEs and TLOEs, which would make it very difficult to improve the student’s translation competence. By looking at the sample above, it appears that the student also has very poor revision and editing skills.

Following this analysis of English translation test results, the next section focuses on the results of former UEM students’ Portuguese translations.

4.3.4.2 Portuguese translation test analysis

Below presented are three samples of Portuguese translations produced by finalists before graduation. They all demonstrate that although practical translation classes into Portuguese are currently available at UEM, not all students develop full translation competence by the time they graduate.
The sample analysis suggests that the student’s major problem is finding adequate transfer strategies. As a result, he has four cases of wrong meaning. The clearest example of this problem is the attempt to translate this passage:

1. **Source text:** “Increasingly, extensive presidential powers were relied on to substitute for constitutional and law-based measures of governance”.

If back translated, what the student has said in his translation would be:

2. **Back translation:** “It was increasingly believed that the extensive presidential powers would substitute for constitutional and law-based measures of governance”.
This was probably because the student could not handle the expression “were relied on” in the source text thus causing two wrong meaning errors. A more acceptable translation read:

3. Suggested translation: *Cada vez mais, recorreu-se aos poderes presidenciais para substituir medidas de governação baseadas na constituição e na lei.*

Another example of distortion of meaning in this translation occurs when the student tries to convey this message into Portuguese:

4. Source text: “ZANU-PF thus retained its narrow majority (see Table 2), but no longer had a two-thirds parliamentary majority. *Its constitutional amendments became obstructed.*”

Note that the determiner “its”, as suggested by the context, refers to ZANU-PF. Therefore, the translation suggested by the student would be inadequate because it says:


What makes this translation inadequate is its lack of clarity and explicitness. The reader would not know which “constitutional amendments became obstructed”. An alternative rendering would be:

6. Suggested translation: “*As emendas constitucionais propostas por este partido foram obstruídas*.”

On a positive note, TLOE cases are minimal. However, the final result obtained is negative, suggesting that the student had not developed enough translation competence by the time he graduated.
From the above sample it is clear that the student has serious difficulties in understanding the source language text. Consequently, he has five wrong lexical choice errors and four wrong meaning errors. An interesting example could be the attempt to translate the terms “politics” and “policy” occurring in the following sentence:

1. **Source text:** “All too often, debates about policies for poverty reduction in SSA are either overly pessimistic about the tractability of the problem or too readily neglect the politics that shape public policy and its results in the region.”

The student has translated those terms this way:

**Student’s rendition in the target text:** “… debates sobre as políticas para a redução da pobreza na ASS… prontamente rejeitam as políticas que dão forma às políticas públicas…”
However, a careful look shows that there is a problem in lexical or terminological selection in Portuguese, which may result in a reader’s getting confused about the true meaning of the word “políticas”. Even though bilingual dictionaries present both “politics” and “policy” as equivalents for “política” in Portuguese, an experienced translator would see the need to use a pragmatic solution in this case in favour of both accuracy and clarity. This view is consubstantiated by Kerremans (2016, 219) who suggests that both descriptive and traditional terminological resources share a common shortfall, namely:

> By separating a term from its natural habitat – i.e. the text – a lot of valuable information on which translation decisions are based is lost, e.g. the topic of the text, the perspective from which the topic is approached, the text’s communicative purpose, the stylistic features of the text, etc.

An inexperienced translator may not realize that structured terminological resources such as terminological glossaries, dictionaries, thesauri and databases for translators sometimes fail “to fully cover the wealth of linguistic options in texts … because bi- or multilingual terminology work is primarily focused on finding direct or cognitive equivalents (in several languages) for a given term in the source language” (Kerremans 2016, 219). On the other hand, in translations done by experienced translators, “terms may also be translated into other types of equivalents” (Kerremans 2016, 220).

Therefore, it might be suggested that a better rendering would consider using terms like “contexto político”; “cenário político”; “situação política”, etc. to clearly distinguish “politics” from “policy” or “policies”.

Another example would be the phrase “chart a course” in the following sentence:

2. **Source text:** “*We seek to chart a course between these extremes*”.

The student has translated the phrase literally as follows:

**Target text:** “Procuramos *traçar uma linha* entre estes extremos”.

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Other students too, including those whose samples were approved, have failed to adequately handle this phrase, denoting poor research skills, which would include parallel text research. As suggested improved version would be:

Suggested translation: “Tentamos achar um meio termo entre os dois extremos”.

Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that in sample 9 above, fewer TLOEs occur. This suggests that students probably gain more awareness of Portuguese text production problems they should avoid when translating, thanks to their experience in practical classes. The same inference may be made from sample 15 below, which is by far the worst example of all archived finalist students’ Portuguese translations analysed in this study.

SAMPLE 15

This student has failed to produce an adequate translation mainly because of the occurrence of ten SLOEs, of which five are wrong meaning errors. Again, this student does not display many problems at Portuguese text production level, strongly suggesting that her problems lie with poor source language
command (English) or lack of proper transfer skills. The final mark obtained reveals that this student had not developed translation competence by the time she graduated.

Following this in-depth analysis of both English and Portuguese translations, the next section summarizes the findings of the graduates’ English translation error analysis.

4.3.4.3 Summary of the English translation error analysis

As observed in figure 24 below, when it comes to translating texts from Portuguese into English, UEM translation graduates seem to have more problems in producing acceptable texts in English, although they also reveal quite a significant number of problems in handling the source language text. As such, even though the percentage difference between source-language originated errors (SLOEs) and target-language originated errors (TLOEs) is relatively small, the quality of these students’ translations is heavily penalized for lacking accuracy in conveying the intended source-language text message. It should be borne in mind that, according to Magaia (2016, 60), a SLOE penalty is given more weight than that of a TLOE.

*Figure 24: Macro-level TE occurrence in Portuguese-English translation tests*

Key: SLOEs = Source-language originated errors; TLOEs = Target-language originated errors
Furthermore, figure 25 below shows that at micro level, **wrong lexical choice errors** (WLC) are the most important type of translation errors, denoting poor handling of source-language texts. It seems that students either have difficulty determining the correct meaning of the lexical items in Portuguese or they fail to choose the most (contextually) adequate equivalents in English. As a result, their lexical choices compromise the quality of the translation both in terminology and register.

**Figure 25: Micro-level TE occurrence in Portuguese-English translation tests**

![Micro-Level TE Occurrence in Portuguese-English Translation Tests](image)

Key: WM=wrong meaning; WLC=wrong lexical choice; O=omission; NS=nonsense; ND=target-language norm deviation; MS=misspelling; PP=poor punctuation; and UN=unnaturalness

In addition, figure 25 above shows that **wrong meaning** (WM) and **omission** (O) also compete in reducing the quality of former students' translations. By analysing these translations, one can notice that students are unaware of how grammar affects the meaning of a text. Moreover, the fact that omission is frequent in students' translations may reveal lack of correct strategy for ensuring conveyance of Portuguese messages into English. Realizing that their rendering might be incorrect, students may simply “capitulate”, to paraphrase Campbell (1998, 154) in front of huge translation problems by resorting to omission.
Finally, **nonsense errors** (NS) are quite negligible. This is quite positive because it shows that students are at least aware of the need to make texts able to communicate some understandable message. Were it not for their poor lexical choice and their distortion of messages, they would be on a path to developing translation competence.

With regard to TLOEs affecting the quality of former UEM students, Graph 19 above shows that **unnaturalness** (UN) is by far the most important type of translation errors, followed by **target language norm deviation** (ND). Unnaturalness in most cases is due to excessive use of the definite article “the” in English – or lack of it – because of Portuguese language interference. In addition, there is a significant number of cases of **poor punctuation** (PP). Finally, the least relevant TLOE occurrence is marked by **spelling mistakes** (MS).

As a consequence of translation errors found in the above Portuguese into English translation samples, nearly two thirds of graduates failed the translation test against a small percentage who passed the test (see figure 26 below).

*Figure 26: Overall Portuguese-English translation test results*
Now, a similar summary is provided below to highlight the main findings of the students’ Portuguese translation error analysis.

4.3.4.4 Summary of the Portuguese translation error analysis

As shown in figure 27 below, although students seem to have gained more translation competence by the time they graduate when it comes to translating texts from English into Portuguese, the quality of their translations is negatively affected by a massive occurrence of SLOEs compared to TLOEs.

Figure 27: Macro-level TE occurrence in English-Portuguese translation tests

![Macro-Level TE Occurrence in English-Portuguese Translation Tests](image)

Key: SLOEs = Source-language originated errors; TLOEs = Target-language originated errors

Similarly, figure 28 below shows that at micro level, **wrong meaning errors** (WM) and **wrong lexical choice** (WLC) errors are by far the most important ones, denoting poor handling of source-language texts. On a positive note, there are very few cases of **nonsense** (NS) and **omission** (O) errors.
It is quite remarkable that despite the TEs found in the above analysed translation samples, more than two thirds of the students passed the translation test against an insignificant percentage who failed (see figure 29 below). This much higher pass rate when translating into Portuguese is no doubt due to the fact that students do have practical Portuguese translation lessons. However, even though a high pass rate is observed when translating from English into Portuguese, when we consider the 15 mark threshold (75%) needed for a student’s translation to be considered highly acceptable (see Table 7 in Chapter 3, section 3.7.2.1), it can be concluded that only about a third of UEM students acquire full translation competence by the time they graduate (see the translation test result sheet in Annexure VIII).
So far, the performance of former UEM students has been analysed and discussed separately. The next section looks at the students’ overall performance in both English and Portuguese translation tests.

4.3.4.5 Overall graduate performance analysis

When we look at the overall performance of UEM graduates in the two types of translation samples analysed in sections 4.3.4.1 and 4.3.4.2, i.e., English and Portuguese translations, we observe that students have a significantly higher number of TE errors when translating from Portuguese into English than vice versa (see figure 30 below).
At micro-level, figure 31 below shows that the occurrence of unnaturalness is most frequent in graduates’ aggregated English and Portuguese translation analysis, followed by wrong lexical choice and wrong meaning. Again, when we bear in mind that SLOEs are given more penalty weight, it is a matter of concern that wrong lexical choice, wrong meaning, omission and nonsense errors contribute to 50% of TE occurrences seen in the graph in figure 31.
**Figure 31:** Overall micro-level TE occurrence in English-Portuguese-English tests

![Overall Micro-Level TE Occurrence in English-Portuguese-English Tests](image)

Key: WM=wrong meaning; WLC=wrong lexical choice; O=omission; NS=nonsense; ND=target-language norm deviation; MS=misspelling; PP=poor punctuation; and UN=unnaturalness

Figure 32 below shows the results of the two translation tests, suggesting that, as is the case of English translation tests, two thirds (37%) of graduates fail aggregated English translation tests into Portuguese and vice versa translation.

**Figure 32:** Aggregated translation test results

![Overall English-Portuguese-English Translation Test Results](image)
4.4 Discussion and concluding remarks

The results of the data analysis have clearly revealed mixed viewpoints about the effectiveness of the current UEM translation training curriculum in developing translation and interpreting competence, which makes it difficult – if not impossible – to draw clear conclusions on its approval. As already mentioned, the simple fact that 46% of respondents view it positively does not lead to a generalization about its approval by stakeholders. There is a significant number (26%) of those who are doubtful about the effectiveness of this curriculum, not to mention the 21% who disapprove of it outright. Perhaps a fair conclusion from these findings is that although the current curriculum enjoys a measure of acceptability, it needs improvement in order to convincingly justify the existence of a BA honours degree in translation at UEM.

Along the same lines, the survey data showed that, despite the doubt or disapproval of the current curriculum by those reported above, most stakeholders would recommend the UEM translation course. However, the fact that some attached more importance to the profession of translators and interpreters, to the prestige of UEM as a higher education institution, and to the quality of UEM lecturers, rather than commend specific attributes of the current curriculum, may provide reason for concluding that recommending the course in its current fashion is not tantamount to praising it for its quality. The chief reason for recommending the UEM translation course is because it offers most language practitioners an alternative course to language teaching at BA honours level, especially when there is more hope of real-life applicability than more traditional linguistics and literature courses, which tend to be more theoretical.

Related to the effectiveness of the current UEM translator/interpreter training model is the issue of perceived relevance of the modules making up its curriculum. The survey data analysis has led to the conclusion that History of Ideas, Mozambican Literature and Culture, Introduction to Literary Studies I, Introduction to Literary Studies II and Introduction to Linguistic Anthropology are the most irrelevant modules for effective development of translation or interpreting competence. Likewise, Optional Modules are seen as a hindrance
because, though termed “optional”, they end up being “compulsory”, offering students little opportunity to choose those modules that would add more value to their training.

With regard to graduates’ confidence in their own capacity to provide translation and interpreting services from English into Portuguese and vice-versa, a stark contrast was observed. The data analysis showed that most graduates feel confident about their ability to translate from and into English, whereas fewer can offer interpreting services in both directions. This finding suggests that the decision taken in 2009 to phase out the interpreting component is negatively impacting on the students’ prospects of becoming effective translation and interpreting service providers.

Moreover, the fact that 80% claim that they can confidently translate from and into English was not supported by evidence. In effect, only 28% of the participating former translation students who submitted an English translation passed the test. This figure is in contrast to 83% of approved Portuguese translation samples produced by the same students prior to their graduation. This finding raises justifiable concerns because it is expected that, with the passage of time, graduates should gain more and more experience and thus produce better translations than when they are about to conclude their course. At the same time, this finding lays bare that the current practice at UEM of translating from English into Portuguese, and not vice versa, is greatly hampering the students’ potential to develop their competences during and after the training. It is also related to the other finding according to which 82% (see Graph 13 above) are in favour of introducing a mandatory bidirectional translation and interpreting practice policy.

On a positive note, the survey data showed that the level of employability of UEM translation students is very high (82%). Furthermore, 67% of students who reported having a job in this study are working on a full-time basis, while about a third are working freelance. Therefore, most graduates (61.9%) find the course they did at UEM relevant to securing their current job. Additionally, translation graduates have been hired to work beyond their field of training as teachers, office staff and communication experts. Similarly, almost all those who have provided translation services either as part of their job description or as
freelancers have received positive feedback. These results are encouraging, since they provide evidence of the usefulness of the translation course to the labour market. Significantly, the findings on the number of graduates working freelance suggest that even though there is more perceived security in having a full-time job, preparing students for self-employment is a strategy that might bring added value to the translation course.

In terms of an ideal translator/interpreting training model, it became clear from data analysis that most stakeholders would favour a model which promotes simultaneous translation and interpreting competence development. The vast majority of the study participants (80%) are in favour of designing a single two-pronged course. As a result, the suggestion to design two separate courses in translation and interpreting is widely rejected by more than half of the respondents. In comparison, the proposal to train translators and interpreters under an umbrella language science course does not find much support, considering that 28% are in favour, while another 28% are not sure and yet another 33% totally reject it. This provides enough evidence to conclude that the best way to train Mozambican translators and interpreters at BA honours level is to offer them a programme that caters for the two interrelated fields simultaneously.

The researcher's proposed translation and interpreting competence development model, envisaged to provide a framework for guiding the crafting of translation/interpreting curricula, gained the support of most respondents (84%). In connection with this model, the first curriculum proposal, which binds translation and interpreting together, was also the best ranked among respondents. This general approval paves the way for the advancement of a new integrated approach to translator/interpreter training described in detail in the last chapter of this study.
4.5 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to present and discuss the findings of this research. It was concluded that the current UEM translation curriculum does not enjoy ample acceptance among respondents, although most would recommend the course. With regard to an ideal model for the training of translators and interpreters in Mozambique, designing a single course in translation and interpreting is supported by the majority. The same is true of a mandatory two-way translation/interpreting policy in practical classes. The researcher’s proposed model for developing translation/interpreting competence in university students was welcomed by respondents for encompassing most or all the competences deemed indispensable for a balanced translator/interpreter. On the other hand, it was concluded that UEM translation students are not able to produce quality English translations. This finding provides additional evidence in favour of a policy obliging students to practise translation from and into English on an equal footing with practical Portuguese translation lessons, in order to boost their bi-directional translation and interpreting skills.
CHAPTER 5

Conclusion

5.1 Chapter overview

The aim of this concluding chapter is twofold: (i) summarizing the main findings of the study according to the study objectives outlined in the first chapter and (ii) proposing concrete action that UEM should take in order to improve the training of translators and interpreters in Mozambique. The chapter starts by reviewing the very purpose of the study, followed by a summary of key findings. It then makes a case for the adoption of a new integrated translator and interpreter training model at UEM, with specific recommendations of critical actions that this university should take in order to ensure successful implementation of the proposed model. Finally, the limitations of this study are presented and a problem identified for future research.

5.2 Purpose of this study

In the introductory chapter (see section 1.2), it was shown that the university-level training of Mozambican translators and interpreters started in 2001 at Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM), combining a foreign language (English or French) with Portuguese. With the implementation of the Bologna Process in 2009, the BA Honours programme was changed so as to be completed in three years. Following intense contestation from within the university and beyond, UEM subsequently decided to extend the course duration back to four years, although the Interpreting component was no longer reintegrated into the course.

The problem identified for this study was the absence of an effective model for the training of professional translators and interpreters at UEM (see section 1.3). As a consequence, some of the modules making up the present curriculum seem not to be conducive to the development of translation competence, given their theoretical, rather than practical, nature. Moreover, the fact that students are currently trained to translate from foreign languages into Portuguese only,
and not the other way round, raises concerns because they are not being equipped to act as effective sworn English-Portuguese and vice-versa translators and interpreters after graduation.

Against this backdrop, it was hoped that, through this study, an effective model could be found for the training of Mozambican professional translators and interpreters at the first level of university education (referred to as licenciatura in Mozambican universities), which could simultaneously provide the framework for designing or choosing appropriate modules and boost graduate employability. If such a model were found, fast-track and cost-effective training of professional translators and interpreters would be possible, since students would be put on a path to developing professionalism in four years instead of six or more years if they had to pursue MA-level training.

As mentioned in section 1.4, the rationale for conducting this study was that:

1. An effective training model may provide a framework for curriculum enhancement at UEM;
2. As a UEM lecturer, the researcher had the moral obligation to contribute to present curriculum enhancement efforts by building on his teaching experience and classroom observation;
3. The particularities of Mozambican students and of the translation and interpreting market in Mozambique necessitate a study such as this one;
4. An effective training model may benefit all stakeholders, especially the students and potential translation and interpreting service users; and
5. If an effective training model could be found, it would potentially benefit the students by endowing them with the balanced translating and interpreting skills needed for the labour market.

Accordingly, the goal and specific objectives as well as research questions of this study were articulated in sections 1.5.1, 1.5.2 and 1.6.

The analysis of data collected by means of three instruments, namely a survey, an English translation test and a sample of Portuguese translations produced by UEM finalists, led to the conclusions presented in the next section.
5.3 Summary of key findings

Based on the study questions mentioned in Chapter 1 (see section 1.6 in Chapter 1), the following is the summary of key findings:

5.3.1 Assessing the Current UEM Translation Curriculum

The study concluded that there are conflicting views on the effectiveness of the current UEM curriculum. A significant number of participants (46 percent) approve of the current curriculum. On the contrary, 26 percent are not sure about its effectiveness and 21 percent consider it ineffective. Those approving of this curriculum think it has the potential to train qualified translators, but those who doubt it or disapprove of it criticize it for not including the interpreting component as well as for being loaded with too many theoretical modules. Nevertheless, most participants would recommend the current UEM translation course to others, given the importance of the course and the high prestige they attach to UEM and its lecturers. No specific strengths of the present curriculum were highlighted to provide reasons for recommending the course.

The following modules were found to be most irrelevant to the development of translation competence by order of importance:

(1) History of Ideas;
(2) Mozambican Literature and Culture;
(3) Introduction to Literary Studies I;
(4) Introduction to Literary Studies II;
(5) Introduction to Linguistic Anthropology; and
(6) Optional Modules.

On the other hand, the study concluded that most graduates (80 percent) feel they can adequately provide English-Portuguese and vice-versa translation services, but fewer (43 percent) think they can provide interpreting services from and into either of these languages. Confidence to provide translation services was attached to the training given during their university studies. Lack of
confidence to provide interpreting services was likewise attached to the fact that the students had received little or no training in this skill while at university.

It should be pointed out that the data triangulation – particularly through the English translation test – contradicted the graduates’ self-assessment as capable of providing English into Portuguese and vice-versa translation services. It was found that, in fact, most graduates would fail a simple and short translation test from Portuguese into English. In contrast, with the exception of a few, students seem to have gained an acceptable degree of competence in translating from English into Portuguese prior to graduating.

A positive finding of the study was that there is a high level of graduate employability among former UEM translation students (82 percent), with a considerable number having a full-time job and a small percentage working freelance. UEM translation graduates are being employed to perform tasks other than translation and interpreting, given their strong communicative skills in English and Portuguese. Related to this, the study found that most graduates think the translation course they attended at UEM was very relevant to finding their current job because it made them linguistically competent in English and Portuguese. Likewise, the study concluded that there is a high level of customer satisfaction with the quality of translation services provided by UEM graduates. Most graduates have received positive feedback from their customers, resulting in continuous service demand.

Nevertheless, here again it should be pointed out that the triangulation of data casts some doubt about the quality of English translations produced by graduates. This may lead to the speculation that their clients must be satisfied primarily with their Portuguese translations, which are more likely to be in demand in Mozambique.

5.3.2 Ideal Translator/Interpreter Training Model

The study found that the majority of participants (80 percent) would favour a model in which translators and interpreters are trained simultaneously under one single programme. This model is found to be both practical and cost-effective, in addition to enhancing students’ employment opportunities.
Similarly, almost all respondents agree that students should practise translating and interpreting from and into a foreign language during classes. Thus, even though a considerable number of students are likely to have a Mozambican indigenous language as their mother tongue, the fact that they are often proficient in Portuguese – given their early instruction in this medium – makes it sensible to have them practise translating and interpreting from English into Portuguese and vice versa on an equal footing in order to ensure balanced bilingual translation and interpreting skills. Contrary to popular belief that one should translate or interpret into their mother tongue only, this study has found that it is not only desirable but also expected that students produce translations into their second or third language.

5.3.3 Feedback on Researcher’s Proposed Translator / Interpreter Training Model and Improved Curricula for UEM

Most participants (84 percent) approved of the researcher’s model of translation and interpreting competence development proposed to provide the framework for guiding translator and interpreter training curriculum design. Likewise, more than half of the participants (52%) approved of the first curriculum proposal made by the researcher to replace the current UEM curriculum (see page 8 of Data Collection Tool # 1 in Annexure II).

5.4 Proposed action for improving translator and interpreter training

In chapter 3 (Research Design and Methodology, see sections 3.2 to 3.5), it was explained that the study was designed as action research, using mixed methods. As mentioned in section 3.5 of the same chapter, Calloun’s (1994, in Mills 2003, 16-17) action research model was adopted for this study. The last of the five steps included in such a model calls for taking evidence-based action. Accordingly, following the findings of this study, the action suggested to improve
translator and interpreter training at UEM is the adoption of a **new integrated translation and interpreting development competence model**.

The proposed model is expected to make it possible to simultaneously train professional translators and interpreters in four years under one single programme. Moreover, under this model, students will be practising translating and interpreting from and into the foreign-language (i.e. English) on an equal footing with their mother tongue or first language of formal instruction (i.e. Portuguese).

In the proposed dichotomous training model, translation/interpreting competence development consists of four pillars, namely communicative competence, general knowledge, strategic competence and service provision, as depicted in Figure 33 below.

*Figure 33: Proposal of a translation/interpreting competence development model*

Having presented the new model proposed for the training of professional translators and interpreters in Mozambique, the following subsections provide detailed descriptions of the four components of the said model.
Pillar 1: Communicative competence

Communicative competence encompasses linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competencies in both the source-language and the target-language (e.g. English-Portuguese). This conception of communicative competence is in line with the objectives of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR). Under the proposed model, the development of balanced communicative competence in the student’s language pair should be given priority. While developing communicative competence, it should be possible to develop sub-competencies that previous studies have listed under translation or interpreting competence, such as cultural/intercultural competence, behavioural or interpersonal skills. Likewise, previous studies (See Neubert 2000; Kelly 2005; PACTE 2008) have listed textual competence, attitudinal or psycho-physiological competence, linguistic skills, speaking skills, listening comprehension skills, reading comprehension skills, and so forth, in their models of translation or interpreting competence. This study omits these components because their presence would unduly inflate the model of translation/interpreting competence development, not to mention that they are, at times, redundant.

Pillar 2: General knowledge

General knowledge means acquaintance with any scientific field/subject of the translator's/interpreter's interest, including linguistics or translation/interpreting studies. Thus, a student is allowed – and encouraged – to freely choose and explore other fields such as medicine, law, economics, sociology, education, engineering, physics, chemistry, biology, to name a few. Linguistics is mentioned here because a student may want to broaden his/her general knowledge of sub-disciplines such as semantics, morphology, syntax, pragmatics, phonetics, sociolinguistics, and so on. Such knowledge can certainly broaden the students’ horizons and perhaps make them better prepared to acquire translation or interpreting competence but need not be considered indispensable in a translation and interpreting course. It should be viewed simply as general knowledge because it could distract students from
their main goal of becoming professional translators and interpreters if it were turned into compulsory learning.

By the same token, a student might want to learn more about the field of translation or interpreting itself, for example, by studying the history of translation, audio-visual translation, computer-aided translation, literary translation, legal translation or conference interpreting, community interpreting, etc. However, such topics could be incorporated into major theoretical and practical translation or interpreting modules. Alternatively, they could be offered as optional modules for students to study according to their own interest because dwelling on them as part of compulsory learning could hinder students from developing other areas of competence – which are perhaps more important – in limited training timings such as those observed in universities.

Previous studies (See Neubert 2000; Kelly 2005; PACTE 2008; Göpferich 2009) have included this component as non-linguistic competence, encyclopaedic knowledge, subject competence or domain/thematic, and so forth. Nevertheless, the proposed model acknowledges that it may be impossible to endow students with similar “subject competence” during the training. At best, they can be trained to develop such competence in their career. For example, Neubert (2000, 8) defines subject competence as “the familiarity with what constitutes the body of knowledge of the area a translation is about”. Then he admits that subject competence can “almost never be exhaustive” and so translators keep learning in their lifetime (Neubert 2000, 9). Kiraly (2000, 12) agrees when he says:

When it comes to subject matter knowledge, it is now less a matter of mastering one specialized field prior to beginning work as a translator. Rather, it is one of having the ability to acquire adequate knowledge in new areas as needed, and of developing a variety of new language-related tasks and challenges. It is impossible to predict years in advance what particular topics one will work on after graduation or over the course of one’s career. A well-developed ability to adapt to ever-changing market demands is crucial. Thus, knowing how and where to research new topics adequately and efficiently is an essential skill for translators to acquire.

This statement points to the need for students to develop the research competence, i.e. knowing “how to compensate efficiently for any lack of knowledge”, as suggested by Nord (2005, 210-211). Nevertheless, even
research competence does not need to be highlighted as a pillar as explained in the next section.

**Pillar 3: Strategic competence**

Strategic competence includes declarative knowledge and application of translation methods/procedures, or interpreting modes/techniques, problem identification and solving strategies (i.e. lexical, structural, idiomatic, pragmatic, cultural, register and style problems), including correct use of tools/resources (e.g., physical/electronic dictionaries, thesauri, grammar books, translation memories, parallel texts, terminology databases, consultants), subject/thematic research, logical/critical reasoning, proofreading/revision and editing skills, etc. In other words, strategic competence is the ability to use communicative competence, general knowledge and specific knowledge about translating and interpreting to identify and solve translation and interpreting problems. This pillar focuses on the professionalization of the student in that it helps him/her to transform acquired and potential knowledge, skills and characteristics into a tool to become a translator or an interpreter. Here both cognitive and psychomotor skills are enhanced bearing in mind that balance between theory and practice is utterly important. Here, two principles should be observed, in harmony with Asensio (2007, 90; emphasis in original):

a) The *cognitive process* of translation has only a secondary role in a practical training course, although it fulfils an important role in a theoretical translation; and

b) *Problem-solving techniques* should be the cornerstone of teaching on a practical translation course.

This pillar advocates for a more practical approach to translator and interpreter training, where experience is prized over theorization. Although previous studies such as PACTE (2005) and Göpferich (2009) have argued that knowledge about translation is a separate competence that needs to be developed apart from strategic competence, the model proposed in this study argues for the use of
the term strategic competence in a comprehensive way. Since it is obvious that translation learners need to be offered knowledge about translation, it would be expected that such theory would be linked to practice.

In other words, the chief concern of any theory of translating and interpreting given in universities should be to give students all strategic knowledge that will lead to their becoming good translators/interpreters. Thus, all inputs towards showing students how to become a translator/interpreter can effectively be condensed into one macro competence, namely strategic competence. When a student is taught how to identify a problem and solve it, for instance, by using research tools/documentation, physical or electronic, or how to assess and correct/revise and edit their own translations, or how to use interpreting equipment in a simultaneous conference, or even where to sit or how to behave during court interpreting, and the like, all of this is tantamount to showing the learner how to do the job. This is all about strategy and nothing else.

**Pillar 4: Service provision**

Service provision competence is the ability to deliver translation and/or interpreting services. This is the ultimate goal of the training to which students are subjected. It is hypothesized that, with well-developed service provision competence, the students can enhance their employability in that they will be best prepared to tap the translation/interpreting market rather than simply wait for job offers. Service provision includes interpersonal skills, entrepreneurial skills, self-marketing, negotiation skills, project/time/stress management, knowledge of and compliance with ethical/deontological and legal norms, and so on.

Some previous studies (See Kelly 2000; Kermis 2008; Fraihat and Mahadi 2013) have included some of these aspects as key components of translation competence or interpreting competence in their own right. Yet, again, it is important to bear in mind that the aim of this study is to find an adequate training model that can provide the basis for developing an effective curriculum – not simply to theorize a descriptive model of translation competence or interpreting competence. If an effective translator and interpreter training model can be
found, then it will indicate the most important aspects deserving attention on the part of curriculum designers.

5.4.1 Crafting a translation and interpreting curriculum using the proposed integrated model

The previous section introduced and elaborated on the proposed model for training translators and interpreters. This section gives two examples demonstrating how a translator and interpreter training curriculum can be designed using the integrated model as a basis. The first example is broad and the second is more specific, bearing in mind the feedback received from respondents.

Table 13: Designing a general translator/interpreter training curriculum based on the proposed translation/interpreting competence development model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General objective</th>
<th>Expected knowledge, competences/skills and attitudes</th>
<th>Examples of contributing modules</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PILLAR ONE: COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop balanced SL and TL linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences.</td>
<td>Specific competences: lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic, orthoepic, discourse, and functional competences; Text design competence; Specific skills: receptive (listening and reading) and productive skills (speaking and writing); Mixed competences: linguistic markers of social relations; politeness conventions; expressions of folk wisdom; register differences; dialect and accent</td>
<td>English B1 to C2; Portuguese B1 to C2; Reading; Speaking; Writing; Listening; Oral and Written Communication; Linguistic Revision/Editing; Intercultural Studies; etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### PILLAR TWO: GENERAL KNOWLEDGE

**Acquaint students with any scientific field/subject of their interest.**

| Acquaint students with any scientific field/subject of their interest. | Students can choose within a range of restricted elective modules in the departments of linguistics, literature and languages. Students can also choose freely within any other field, e.g., humanities; economics; sciences; law; medicine; agronomy; tourism, etc. | Literature; Linguistics; Semantics; Pragmatics; Sociolinguistics; Cross-cutting issues; Contemporary social, political & economic issues; Law; Gender studies; HIV/AIDS pathology; marketing; etc. |

### PILLAR THREE: STRATEGIC COMPETENCE

**Develop the student's declarative knowledge and application of Translation and Interpreting theories.**

| Develop the student’s declarative knowledge and application of Translation and Interpreting theories. | Principles/methods/procedures in translation/interpreting; types of translation; types/modes of interpreting; technology in translation and interpreting; ethics and deontology; problem identification and solving strategies (i.e., lexical, structural, idiomatic, pragmatic, cultural, register and style problems); use of tools/resources (e.g., physical/electronic dictionaries, parallel texts, terminology databases); subject/thematic research; logical/critical reasoning; proofreading/revision skills, etc. | Introduction to Translating and Interpreting; Theory of Translation and Interpreting; Terminology Management; Translation and Interpreting Technology; Translation Practice; Interpreting Practice; etc. |

### PILLAR FOUR: SERVICE PROVISION COMPETENCE

**Develop the student's ability to provide translation and/or interpreting services.**

| Develop the student’s ability to provide translation and/or interpreting services. | Interpersonal skills; self-marketing; entrepreneurial skills; negotiation skills; project/time/stress management; knowledge of and compliance with ethical/deontological norms, etc. | Translation Practice; Interpreting Practice; Entrepreneurship; Language Consultancy; Service Provision; Skills Lab; Work Placement; etc. |

As can be seen from Table 13 above, the proposed model is not meant to be prescriptive. Rather, it is flexible and aimed at providing a framework for designing a curriculum composed of well-thought out modules that will contribute to the overall aim of producing competent translators and interpreters. It leaves it up to stakeholders (university staff, students, professionals and clients) to decide what modules can best attend to the trainee’s needs.

Next, Table 14 below provides a specific example of the curriculum proposed for UEM based on the findings of this study.
**CURRICULUM PROPOSAL**

**BA HONOURS IN TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semester 1</th>
<th>Modules</th>
<th>H/W</th>
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<th>TW</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>1. English B2</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Portuguese B2</td>
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<td>128</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Introduction to Translation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>64</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<td><strong>384</strong></td>
<td><strong>516</strong></td>
<td><strong>900</strong></td>
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<td>4. English C1</td>
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<td>5. Portuguese C1</td>
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<td>6. Introduction to Interpreting</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<td>7. English C2</td>
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<td>8. Portuguese C2</td>
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<td>9. Terminology Research &amp; Management</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<td>10. Translation Practice (Eng-Port)</td>
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<td>11. Interpreting Practice (Eng-Port)</td>
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<td>24. Free Choice Module 3</td>
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<td>25. Specialization: Translation Service Provision 2 or Interpreting Service Provision 2 or Work Placement</td>
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<td>26. Final Work</td>
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<td>64</td>
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<td><strong>128</strong></td>
<td><strong>772</strong></td>
<td><strong>900</strong></td>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: H/W = Contact Hours per Week; DC = Direct Contact Hours per Semester; IS = Independent Study Hours per Semester; TW = Total Workload per Semester; C = Credits; B2, C1 and C2 mean the Vintage, Independent and Mastery levels, respectively, of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

As can be observed in Table 14 above, in this curriculum proposal, translation and interpreting competences are developed simultaneously under one single programme. However, at the end of the course the student chooses whether to specialize in translation or interpreting. Optional modules are not general but, rather, are grouped under “**restricted optional modules**” and “**free choice modules**”. The gamut of restricted optional modules may be offered by the Department in charge of translator and interpreter training at the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences and should include those modules that can directly or indirectly build the student’s communicative competence and strategic competence. On the other hand, free choice modules allow the student to freely choose any module of his/her interest within the Faculty of Arts and Social
Sciences or other faculties and universities. They contribute to the student’s general knowledge.

For example, *English Literature, Portuguese/Mozambican Literature, Introduction to Linguistics, Introduction to Literary Studies, Syntax, Semantics, Oral and Written Communication, Linguistic Revision/Editing, Intercultural Studies*, and the like, might be offered as Restricted Optional Modules. On the other hand, under Free Choice Modules, the student might choose whatever module he or she feels will meet his or her educational needs. As such, a student might choose *Didactics of English or Didactics of Portuguese, French, Chinese, Introduction to Public Administration, Molecular Biology, Human Physiology, Earth’s Ecosystem, International Trade, Macroeconomics, Econometrics, Criminal Law*, etc. This will all contribute to increasing the student’s general knowledge competence described in section 5.4.2.

### 5.5 Definitional implications of proposed model

The proposed model for training translators and interpreters has some definitional implications which need to be well articulated to enable broader acceptance of the model in its proper context. In applying such a model the following definitions should be taken into account.

**Redefining the concepts of “translation” and “translator”**

Under the proposed model, translation is a communicative activity carried out by a translator, consisting of a conscientious effort to grasp the correct meaning of a message expressed in a source language and then accurately transfer it into a target language by producing written texts according to its norms and culture. The source language message referred to here may be written, oral or signed. However, translators usually work from written messages or texts, although a recorded speech (oral or signed) might be used as a source text and translated directly into the target language without first being transcribed in the source language.
Hence a translator is at least a bilingual communication expert who conscientiously tries to determine the correct meaning of a message expressed in a source language and then accurately re-expresses it in a target language in any acceptable written form of that language. Consequently, translator training should place emphasis on the need to build the student’s capacity to learn and use correct techniques for ensuring accurate comprehension and transfer of meaning. At the same time, the training should afford the trainee the opportunity to develop effective text production skills in the target language.

**Redefining the concepts of “interpreting” and “interpreter”**

By the same token, interpretation is a communicative activity carried out by an interpreter, consisting of a conscientious effort to grasp the correct meaning of a message expressed in a source language and then accurately transfer it into a target language by producing oral or signed utterances according to its norms and culture. Again, although the source language message may be written, interpreters usually work from oral or signed messages and deliver the target language utterances almost instantly.

Hence an interpreter is at least a bilingual communication expert who conscientiously tries to determine the correct meaning of a message expressed in a source language and then accurately re-expresses it in a target language in any acceptable oral or signed form of that language. As in translator training, the focus of an interpreting course should be on enabling students to learn and use correct techniques for ensuring accurate comprehension and transfer of meaning. Simultaneously, the training should afford the trainee the opportunity to develop effective oral or signed production skills in the target language.
Redefining translation and interpreting competence

This study suggests the following definitions for use in the training context:

1. Translation competence is a fully developed set of knowledge, skills and characteristics that enable a person to deliver quality translation services.
2. Interpreting competence is a fully developed set of knowledge, skills and characteristics that enable a person to deliver quality interpreting services.

5.6 Recommendations

The proposed model for training professional translators and interpreters has a few implications at various levels. Thus, in the subsections below recommendations are made with a focus on six implications.

Institutional implications

UEM (or any university intending to implement the proposed model) should consider creating an enabling environment for rolling out effective translator and interpreter training programmes. This could be achieved, for example, by creating a Translation and Interpreting Studies Department that works in collaboration with other academic departments such as the Language Department and the Linguistics and Literature Department. Such an academic unit should be given full academic authority to propose, design, implement, assess and improve courses in translation and interpreting by involving interested and qualified staff from the various language sections such as English, French, Portuguese and Mozambican Indigenous Languages.

This department could spearhead research on Translation and Interpreting Studies and thus enable interested students to study at BA Honours level with the possibility of furthering their studies at MA and Doctoral levels, either following an academic path (research) or a professional path (coursework). It could also be best poised to set up a functional structure to cater for other language pairs such as a local indigenous language plus the official language (e.g. Ronga-Portuguese) or a local indigenous language plus a foreign language.
(e.g. Ronga-English), or even a local indigenous language plus another local indigenous language (e.g. Ronga-Makonde).

**Pedagogical implications**

As mentioned by some of the study respondents, even if the proposed model and curriculum for improving translator and interpreter training at UEM is promising, it may be doomed to failure if it is not supported by qualified staff. Thus, if approved, the implementation of this model would first require a careful selection of key lecturers devoted to translator and interpreter training. The next step would be building the capacity of these lecturers to work with translation/interpreting students using competence-based teaching and assessment methods.

**Implications for syllabus design**

Should the proposed model for training translators and interpreters be approved alongside its curriculum proposal, an essential immediate step should be designing specific syllabi for approved modules. As a reminder, syllabus here is interpreted as “an outline of topics to be covered in a single course”\(^{10}\) (Oliva 2001, 580). Syllabus design should include the definition of instructional goals, instructional objectives, learning activities, evaluation techniques and resources associated with each of the approved modules or subjects, as suggested by Oliva (2001, 580-581).

**Assessment implications**

The adoption of the proposed model for training professional translators and interpreters would also require the implementation of competence-based assessment strategies throughout the course. In particular, as an end-of-

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\(^{10}\)The term “course” here may be interpreted as “course unit”, “subject” or “module”.

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course assignment, students could be required to provide authentic translation or interpreting services and be assessed by their direct clients. Alternatively, they could be placed in any organization requiring their services. In such cases, the students will be evaluated by the host organizations. The weight of clients’ assessment should be 50%, complemented by the lecturers’ assessment of the students’ service provision or work placement report. This implies that, together with the report, the student needs to keep and submit a portfolio containing all relevant evidence of services provided and classification obtained from clients or host organizations during the last semester of his/her training.

Of course, the minimum and maximum number of pages or words a student should translate during service provision or work placement for the end-of-course assignment will need to be stipulated. This should be done bearing in mind the academic credit system according to which 25-30 hours of work amount to one credit unit. Moreover, for the interpreting services, where no attachments can be attached to the service provision report, students could provide recordings of their interpreting sessions for lecturers’ assessments. Here, too, rules should be set for determining the minimum and maximum number of hours of speech a student should cover during the interpreting service provision period.

**Infrastructural/technological implications**

For successful implementation of the proposed model, the university needs to provide adequate **infrastructure** and **technology**. This means that the university should have at least:

- One **language lab**, equipped with audio-visual technology for developing communicative competence;
- One **translation lab**, equipped with computers and reliable internet connectivity for practising translation, including developing documentation/terminological research skills, and providing translation services; and
• One interpreting lab, equipped with a booth and simultaneous interpreting equipment (consoles, microphones and headphones) for practising interpreting and providing interpreting services.

At the same time, such infrastructure could be enriched by providing some basic reference materials such as dictionaries, thesauri, grammars and basic literature on Translation and Interpreting Studies. Likewise, the university should invest in modern machine translation tools or software. This would allow students to develop critical skills as they contrast machine translation products with their own products. In addition to providing a translation lab, ensuring reliable, free internet connectivity on campus could help students to access multilingual translation websites which provide some examples of human translations such as linguee or reverso, and online term banks such as IATE or ETB-EuroTermBank.

5.6.1 Implications for optional modules

During data analysis it was concluded that most study respondents do not see much benefit of keeping optional modules in the translation and interpreting curriculum. This was mainly due to their lack of focus. The other reason is the bypassing of the current higher education legislation in Mozambique, which, inter alia, provides for student mobility and optional modules.11 As a result, the current offering of optional modules available for translation students at UEM is very limited. However, by law, it is expected that a curriculum should provide for optional modules, some of which may be done under certain conditions defined by the department (restricted electives) and others completely at the student’s discretion (free electives).

Therefore, if the proposed model is adopted, the curriculum that will eventually be designed for translators and interpreters should clearly set out which modules can be done as restricted electives within and outside the Department

11For relevant legislation, see Premugy (2012).
of Translation and Interpreting Studies (if in place), leaving the students to decide on the free elective modules they wish to attend within or outside the University (see section 5.4.5 above for suggestions of restricted and free choice modules). Thus, students intending to become translators and interpreters, who are likewise qualified to teach languages, for example, could choose modules such as didactics, psycho-pedagogy and the like. Similarly, students wishing to develop so-called subject, domain or thematic competence could choose a field such as medicine or economics to explore in-depth as optional modules.

5.7 Limitations of this study and suggestions for future research

This study focused on researching an effective model that could inspire the design of conducive translator and interpreter training curricula. Being the first of its kind at UEM, and given its scope and timeframe, it was impossible to investigate in-depth the components of such curricula. Even though an example of an improved translator and interpreter training curriculum was provided, this was not comprehensive enough to include important details of the syllabus for each module in the proposed curriculum, for example, objectives, learning outcomes, topics, contents, assessment strategies, and so forth. Thus, it is suggested that future research look into these and other related aspects in order to enrich translator and interpreter training curricula.

The second limitation was the fact that this study focused primarily on the training of sworn translators and interpreters. In the prevalent context of Mozambique, such training must necessarily ignore the role of African indigenous languages because they are still not official languages in Mozambique and, therefore, they are not in high demand in official/business communication. However, the researcher acknowledges the rich contribution that translator and interpreter training can make in raising the status of African indigenous languages. Thus, it is suggested that future research also study the implementation of African indigenous language translation and interpreting training programmes in higher education institutions.
5.8 Final remarks

This study was motivated by the realization that Mozambique still lacks an effective training model for translators and interpreters, especially at BA Honours level. Concomitantly, literature review suggested that there was a gap and a “trap” in the fields of Translation Studies and Interpreting Studies, since the former may ignore the latter and thus break the complementarity of both sub-disciplines. The main research question was: *What model for developing translation and interpreting competence could lead to an effective curriculum design that best meets the employment needs of Mozambican students?* It was concluded that an optimal model could be one that offers both translation and interpreting competence development under one programme at the same time as it offers practice in bidirectional translation and interpreting.

The main contribution of this research to the discipline of Translation Studies was its simultaneous study of translation and interpreting phenomena from a pedagogical perspective with the goal of finding an adequate model for the training of translators and interpreters. As a corollary of this research, a new integrated model for developing translation and interpreting competence was proposed, which argues for a balanced development of student’s communicative competence, general knowledge, strategic competence and service provision. It is hoped that when a curriculum is crafted so as to reflect the four major pillars proposed in this study, it will be possible to improve the training of professional translators and interpreters not only in Mozambican universities, but also in those of other African countries which share a common past of European colonialism, which eventually dictated the use of European languages such as English and Portuguese as official languages within a context of a wide diversity of African ethnicities, languages and cultures.
References


Annexures

Annexure I: Informed Participant Consent Form

Study Title: “In Search of Effective Training Models for Mozambican Translators and Interpreters”

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

1. Background Information

Title and researchers
The title of this research is In Search of Effective Training Models for Mozambican Translators and Interpreters. My name is Armando Adriano Magaia (cell: +258 84 399 9260, email: armagaya@yahoo.com.br). I am a registered doctoral student in the Department of Linguistics and Modern Languages, at the University of South Africa (UNISA) and Prof Claribel Koliswa Moropa is my supervisor from UNISA. I am based at the Language Department of Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM) in Maputo.

Reason for the research
I am seeking effective models that can be followed in the training of translators and interpreters in Mozambique, particularly at BA Honours level. The research is expected to shed light on Translation and Interpreting Studies curriculum development towards enhancing graduate employability. I am collecting data from diverse sources to enable me to assess the current UEM translator training curriculum and suggest ways to improve it. The sources include UEM lecturers, UEM students (current, former and potential ones) as well as providers and potential users of translation/interpreting services.

Details of participation
You will be asked to complete a survey and return it to the researcher at your earliest convenience. The survey completion should take about 30 minutes. In addition to survey completion, former UEM students will be asked to translate a 135-word text into English for macro- and micro-textual analysis, which may take between 30 and 45 minutes. In both situations, no deadlines will be imposed and participants can contact the researcher if there is any need. The researcher will also collect data from former students’ final projects archived at the English Section. To ensure confidentiality and privacy, participants will not be identified by name – only a code will be used to quote them. Under no circumstance will participants’ identity or contact be disclosed to anyone, except with their express permission and only when required to do so by any authorized UNISA staff for the purposes of verifying the authenticity of data. If deemed necessary for a more informed decision, the researcher may provide participants with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics. Please feel free to ask questions now if you have any.

2. Consent Statement

1. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the research at any time, without giving any reason, and that this will not affect the outcomes of my studies at UEM (if applicable).
2. I am aware of what my participation will involve.
3. I understand that there are no risks involved in the participation of this study.
4. I understand that my responses will not affect the outcomes of my studies at UEM (if applicable).
5. All questions that I have about the research have been satisfactorily answered.

I agree to participate.

Participant’s signature: ______________________ Mobile No: ______________
Participant’s name (please print): __________________________________________

Tick this box if you would like to receive a summary of the results by e-mail:

E-mail: __________________________________________ Date: ______________

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION
Annexure II: Data Collection Tool 1

Study Title: “In Search of Effective Training Models for Mozambican Translators and Interpreters”

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Name: ___________________________________________ Code: __________________________

INTRODUCTION AND INSTRUCTIONS: Thank you very much for agreeing to take part in this study. This questionnaire consists of four sections. Please answer all applicable questions. Your responses will be treated in strict confidence and at all times data will be presented in such a way that your identity cannot be connected with specific published data.

SECTION 1: RESPONDENT PROFILE

Subsection 1.1: Former, Current and Potential UEM Translation Students Only

1.1 Please write the answers or tick ( ☐ ) where appropriate.

1.1.1 Name: ___________________________________________

1.1.2 Age: __________

1.1.3 Gender: a) M ☐ b) F ☐

1.1.4 Mother tongue(s): __________________________

1.1.5 First language(s) of instruction: a) Portuguese ☐ b) English ☐ c) Other ☐

Specify __________________________

1.1.6 You are participating in this study as: a) a former translation student ☐

b) a current translation student ☐ c) a potential translation student ☐

1.1.7 If you are a former translation student, when did you graduate? In 20_______

NOW PLEASE CONTINUE IN SECTION 2 ON PAGE 2

Subsection 1.2: UEM Translator Trainers Only

1.2 Please write the answers or tick ( ☐ ) where appropriate.

1.2.1 Name: _________________________________________

1.2.2 Gender: a) M ☐ b) F ☐

1.2.3 Department and Section: __________________________

1.2.4 How long have you taught at UEM? ____________ years.

1.2.5 What modules do you teach/have you taught?

_________________________ _________________________ __________________________

NOW PLEASE CONTINUE IN SECTION 2 ON PAGE 2

Subsection 1.3: Translation/Interpreting Service Providers Only

1.3 Please write the answers or tick ( ☐ ) where appropriate.

1.3.1 Name: _________________________________________

1.3.2 Gender: a) M ☐ b) F ☐

1.3.3 Language pair(s): _______________________________

1.3.4 Services provided:

a) Translation only ☐ b) Interpreting only ☐ c) Translation and interpreting ☐

1.3.5 How long have you provided such services? __________ years.

NOW PLEASE CONTINUE IN SECTION 2 ON PAGE 2
Subsection 1.4: Potential Translation/Interpreting Service Users Only

1.4 Please write the answers or tick (✓) where appropriate.

1.4.1 Name of organization: ____________________________________________

1.4.2 Working language(s): ____________________________________________

1.4.3 Does your organization use translation and/or interpreting services?
   a) Always □   b) Very Often □  c) Sometimes □  d) Rarely □  e) Never □

NOW PLEASE CONTINUE IN SECTION 2 BELOW

SECTION 2: ASSESSING THE CURRENT UEM TRANSLATION CURRICULUM:

Subsection 2.1: All study participants

2.1.1 Please tick (✓) the answer that best expresses your opinion.

2.1.1.1 How effective do you find the current UEM translator training curriculum (SEE THE GRID ON PAGE 3) in leading to the development of translation/interpretation competence?
   a) Very effective □  b) Effective □  c) Not sure □  d) Ineffective □  e) Very ineffective □

2.1.1.1.1 Why?

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

2.1.1.2 Would you recommend the current UEM translation course to others?
   a) Yes, absolutely □  b) Yes □  c) Not sure □  d) Yes, hesitantly □  e) Not at all □

2.1.1.2.1 Why?

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

2.1.1.3 Which modules would you consider irrelevant to the development of translation/interpretation competence? Please tick (✓) directly on the grid on page 3.

2.1.1.3.1 Why do you find such modules irrelevant to the development of translation/interpretation competence?

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

IF YOU ARE NOT A FORMER UEM STUDENT, PLEASE CONTINUE IN SECTION 3
### Study Title: “In Search of Effective Training Models for Mozambican Translators and Interpreters”

#### CURRENT UEM TRANSLATION CURRICULUM
*(NOTE: Interpreting is not included and students only practise translating from English into Portuguese)*

**PLEASE TICK IRRELEVANT MODULES IN THE SHADED COLUMNS**

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<th>1st YEAR</th>
<th>Semester I</th>
<th>H/W</th>
<th>TW</th>
<th>C</th>
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<th>Semester II</th>
<th>H/W</th>
<th>TW</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>Tick (✓) here</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>7</td>
<td>7. Int. to Linguistics 2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>210</td>
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<tr>
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<td>7</td>
<td>8. Int. to Literary Studies 2</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>4. Study Skills</td>
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<td>180</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9. History of Ideas</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>10. English 2</td>
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<td><strong>30</strong></td>
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<td>H/W</td>
<td>TW</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Tick (✓) here</td>
<td>Semester II</td>
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<td>TW</td>
<td>C</td>
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<td><strong>24</strong></td>
<td><strong>900</strong></td>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>24</strong></td>
<td><strong>900</strong></td>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
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<td>H/W</td>
<td>TW</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Tick (✓) here</td>
<td>Semester II</td>
<td>H/W</td>
<td>TW</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Tick (✓) here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Portuguese 5</td>
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<td>150</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27. Portuguese 6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Terminology</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30. Trans. Practice 1</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>24</strong></td>
<td><strong>900</strong></td>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>4th YEAR</td>
<td>Semester I</td>
<td>H/W</td>
<td>TW</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Tick (✓) here</td>
<td>Semester II</td>
<td>H/W</td>
<td>TW</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Tick (✓) here</td>
</tr>
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<td>4</td>
<td>210</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>16</strong></td>
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<td><strong>30</strong></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>16</strong></td>
<td><strong>900</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Key:** H/W = Contact hours per week; TW = Total Workload per Semester; C = Credits. Int. = Introduction; Ling. = Linguistic; Port. = Portuguese; Eng. = English; Moz. = Mozambican; Trans. = Translation. **Source:** *Plano Curricular Ajustado (FLCS 2012).*

### Subsection 2.2: Former Translation Students Only

#### 2.2.1 Please tick (✓) the answer that best expresses your opinion.

#### 2.2.1.1 Are you confident in your own capacity to provide translation services from English into Portuguese and vice versa?

a) More than enough □  b) Enough □  c) Not sure □  d) To some extent □  e) Not at all □

---

Page | 3
Study Title: “In Search of Effective Training Models for Mozambican Translators and Interpreters”

2.2.1.1 Why?

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

2.2.1.2 Are you confident in your own capacity to provide interpreting services from English into Portuguese and vice versa?

a) More than enough □  b) Enough □  c) Not sure □  d) To some extent □  e) Not at all □

2.2.1.2.1 Why?

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

2.2.1.3 Do you have a job?

a) Yes □  b) No □ (If your answer is NO, go to 2.2.1.6)

2.2.1.3.1 If you have a job, is it:

a) Full-time? □  b) Part-time? □  c) Freelance? □

2.2.1.3.2 Does your job involve translation and/or interpreting?

a) Translation only □  b) Interpreting only □  c) Translation and interpreting only □

d) Neither translation nor interpreting □  e) Other duties plus a little translation /interpreting □

2.2.1.4 If you previously had no job, how long did it take you to find your first job after graduating?

a) Less than 1 year □  b) 1 year □  c) 2 years □  d) 3 years □  e) 4 or more years □

2.2.1.5 How relevant was your translation course in finding your current job?

a) Very relevant □  b) Relevant □  c) Not sure  d) A little relevant  e) Irrelevant □

2.2.1.5.1 Why?

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

2.2.1.6 If you have provided translation and/or interpreting services since graduating, what kind of feedback have you received so far?

a) Very Positive □  b) Positive □  c) Positive and negative □  d) Negative □  e) Very negative □

2.2.1.6.1 What do your clients mostly criticise your services for?

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

NOW PLEASE CONTINUE IN SECTION 3
### SECTION 3: IDEAL TRANSLATOR/INTERPRETER TRAINING MODEL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All study participants</th>
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#### 3
Please tick (☑) the answer that best expresses your opinion.

#### 3.1
The best way to train Mozambican translators and interpreters is to design one single course (i.e. BA Hons in Translation and Interpreting) where students develop translation and interpreting competences simultaneously.

- a) Strongly agree □
- b) Agree □
- c) Not sure □
- d) Disagree □
- e) Strongly disagree □

3.1.1 Why?

___________________________________________________________________________
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#### 3.2
The best way to train Mozambican translators and interpreters is to design two separate courses (i.e. a BA Hons in Translation and a BA Hons in Interpreting) where students develop translation and interpreting competences separately.

- a) Strongly agree □
- b) Agree □
- c) Not sure □
- d) Disagree □
- e) Strongly disagree □

3.2.1 Why?

___________________________________________________________________________
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#### 3.3
The best way to train Mozambican translators and interpreters is to design an umbrella course in language sciences where a student can, at his/her choice, study translation and/or interpreting, or language teaching, linguistics, literature, secretarial skills, text revision and editing, etc.

- a) Strongly agree □
- b) Agree □
- c) Not sure □
- d) Disagree □
- e) Strongly disagree □

3.3.1 Why?

___________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
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#### 3.4
An ideal translator/interpreter training model obliges the student to practise translating and/or interpreting from English into Portuguese and from Portuguese into English.

- a) Strongly agree □
- b) Agree □
- c) Not sure □
- d) Disagree □
- e) Strongly disagree □

3.4.1 Why?

___________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
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**NOW PLEASE CONTINUE IN SECTION 4**
SECTION 4: PROPOSING A NEW TRANSLATOR/INTERPRETER TRAINING MODEL AND IMPROVED CURRICULA FOR UEM

All study participants

4 Analyse the translation/interpreting competence development model below and the curriculum proposals on pages 8, 9 and 10 for improving the training of translators/interpreters at UEM. Tick () the answer that best expresses your opinion.

![Diagram of translation/interpreting competence development model]

Figure 1 Proposal of a translation/interpreting competence development model

Short model description: In the proposed model, translation/interpreting competence consists of communicative competence, general knowledge, strategic competence and service provision. **Communicative competence** encompasses linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences in both the source-language and the target-language (English-Portuguese). **General knowledge** means acquaintance with any field/subject of the translator’s/interpreter’s interest, including linguistics or translation/interpreting. **Strategic competence** includes declarative knowledge and application of translation methods/procedures, or interpreting modes/techniques, problem identification and solving strategies (i.e. lexical, structural, idiomatic, pragmatic, cultural, register and style problems), including correct use of tools/resources (e.g., physical/electronic dictionaries, parallel texts, terminology databases), subject/thematic research, logical/critical reasoning, proofreading/revision skills, etc. **Service provision** includes interpersonal skills, entrepreneurial skills, self-marketing, negotiation skills, project/time/stress management, knowledge of and compliance with ethical/deontological norms, etc. Under this model, students practise translating and interpreting from and into English on an equal footing with Portuguese.

4.1 How practical do you find the proposed model as a framework for guiding the training of Mozambican translators/interpreters?

a) Very practical     b) Practical     c) Not sure     d) A little practical     e) Not practical 

4.1.1 Why?

___________________________________________________________________________
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Page | 6
Study Title: “In Search of Effective Training Models for Mozambican Translators and Interpreters”

4.1.2 What suggestions would you make to improve the proposed model of translation/interpreting competence development?

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

4.2 Which of the curriculum proposals would you rank first (i.e. consider No. 1)?

a) Proposal 1 □  b) Proposal 2 □  c) Proposal 3 □  d) No opinion/uncertain □  e) None □

4.2.1 Why?

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

4.3 Which of the curriculum proposals would you rank second (i.e. consider No. 2)?

a) Proposal 1 □  b) Proposal 2 □  c) Proposal 3 □  d) No opinion/uncertain □  e) None □

4.3.1 Why?

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

4.4 Which of the curriculum proposals would you rank last (i.e. consider No. 3)?

a) Proposal 1 □  b) Proposal 2 □  c) Proposal 3 □  d) No opinion/uncertain □  e) None □

4.4.1 Why?

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

4.5 What suggestions would you make to improve the proposal you ranked first (i.e. considered No. 1)?

___________________________________________________________________________

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4.6 If you have any additional comments, please make them here:

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________
**Study Title:** “In Search of Effective Training Models for Mozambican Translators and Interpreters”

**CURRICULUM PROPOSAL 1: BA HONOURS IN TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING**

**Description:** In this curriculum, translation and interpreting competences are developed simultaneously under **one single course**. However, at the end of the course the student chooses whether to specialize in translation or interpreting. Optional modules allow the student to freely choose any module of his/her interest offered at the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences or other faculties and universities. For example, didactics of English or didactics of Portuguese, introduction to public administration, molecular biology, human physiology, earth’s ecosystem, international trade, macroeconomics, econometrics, criminal law etc. The course consists of 26 modules.

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| YEAR 2 | Semester 3 | 7. English C2 | 12 | 192 | 228 | 420 | 14 |
|        | 8. Portuguese C2 | 8 | 128 | 172 | 300 | 10 | |
|        | 9. Terminology Research & Management | 4 | 64 | 116 | 180 | 6 | |
|        | **Total** | **24** | **384** | **516** | **900** | **30** | |
|        | Semester 4 | 10. Translation Practice 1 | 12 | 192 | 228 | 420 | 14 |
|        | 11. Interpreting Practice 1 | 8 | 128 | 172 | 300 | 10 | |
|        | 12. Optional Module 1 | 4 | 64 | 116 | 180 | 6 | |
|        | **Total** | **24** | **384** | **516** | **900** | **30** | |
|        | Semester 5 | 13. Translation Practice 2 | 8 | 128 | 172 | 300 | 10 |
|        | 14. Interpreting Practice 2 | 4 | 64 | 176 | 240 | 8 | |
|        | 15. Optional Module 2 | 4 | 64 | 116 | 180 | 6 | |
|        | 16. Optional Module 3 | 4 | 64 | 116 | 180 | 6 | |
|        | **Total** | **20** | **320** | **580** | **900** | **30** | |
|        | Semester 6 | 17. Interpreting Practice 3 | 8 | 128 | 172 | 300 | 10 |
|        | 18. Translation Practice 3 | 4 | 64 | 176 | 240 | 8 | |
|        | 19. Optional Module 4 | 4 | 64 | 116 | 180 | 6 | |
|        | 20. Optional Module 5 | 4 | 64 | 116 | 180 | 6 | |
|        | **Total** | **20** | **320** | **580** | **900** | **30** | |

| YEAR 3 | Semester 7 | 21. Translation Service Provision 1 | 4 | 64 | 206 | 270 | 9 |
|        | 22. Interpreting Service Provision 1 | 4 | 64 | 206 | 270 | 9 | |
|        | 23. Language Consultancy & Entrepreneurship | 4 | 64 | 116 | 180 | 6 | |
|        | 24. Optional Module 6 | 4 | 64 | 116 | 180 | 6 | |
|        | **Total** | **16** | **256** | **644** | **900** | **30** | |

| YEAR 4 | Semester 8 | 25. Specialization: Translation Service Provision 2 or Interpreting Service Provision 2 | 4 | 64 | 356 | 420 | 14 |
|        | 26. Final Work | 4 | 64 | 416 | 480 | 16 | |
|        | **Total** | **8** | **128** | **772** | **900** | **30** | |

Key: H/W= Contact Hours per Week; DC= Direct Contact Hours per Semester; IS= Independent Study Hours per Semester; TW= Total Workload per Semester; C = Credits; B2, C1 e C2 mean the Vintage, Independent and Mastery levels, respectively, of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).
Study Title: “In Search of Effective Training Models for Mozambican Translators and Interpreters”

**CURRICULUM PROPOSAL 2: TWO SEPARATE BA HONOURS DEGREES**

Description: In this curriculum, translation competence is developed separately from interpreting competence. Therefore, there are two separate courses (one BA Hons in Translation and one BA Hons in Interpreting) sharing a core curriculum during the first two years. However, a student doing translation can choose to develop interpreting competence as optional modules, and vice versa. In addition, in either course, optional modules allow the student to freely choose any module of his/her interest. For example, didactics of English or didactics of Portuguese, introduction to public administration, molecular biology, human physiology, earth’s ecosystem, international trade, macroeconomics, econometrics, criminal law, etc. The course consists of 23 modules.

### BA HONS IN TRANSLATION

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### BA HONS IN INTERPRETING

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Key: H/W= Contact Hours per Week; DC= Direct Contact Hours per Semester; IS= Independent Study Hours per Semester; TW= Total Workload per Semester; C= Credits; Int. = Introduction; Lang. = Language; Trans. = Translation; Interp. = Interpreting; Pract. = Practice; Consult. = Consultancy; Opt. = Optional; Entrepren. = Entrepreneurship; B2, C1 e C2 mean the Vintage, Independent and Mastery levels, respectively, of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).
Study Title: “In Search of Effective Training Models for Mozambican Translators and Interpreters”

CURRICULUM PROPOSAL 3: BA HONOURS IN LANGUAGE SCIENCES

Description: In this model, the student can choose to specialize in translation and/or interpreting, or language teaching (English or Portuguese), linguistics, literature, secretarial skills, text revision and editing, under one umbrella course in Language Sciences. In addition, optional modules are mainly offered within the faculty, for example, didactics of English or didactics of Portuguese, semantics, syntax, lexicology, Italian, Chinese, etc. The course consists of 38 modules.

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Key: H/W= Contact Hours per Week; DC= Direct Contact Hours per Semester; IS= Independent Study Hours per Semester; TW= Total Workload per Semester; C = Credits; A2, B1, B2, C1 e C2 mean the Waystage, Threshold, Vintage, Independent and Mastery levels, respectively, of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).
Annexure III:  Request for Permission to Conduct a Study at the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences of UEM

Armando Adriano Magaia
Language Department – English Section
Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences – UEM
Cell phone: (+258) 84 3999260
Email: armagaya@yahoo.com.br
Maputo

12 April 2016

Dean of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences
Maputo

Dear Professor Gregório Firmino

Request for permission to conduct a study at FLCS

As a self-funded student registered in the doctoral programme in Linguistics with specialization in Translation Studies at the University of South Africa (Unisa), from 2016 to 2017, I intend to conduct a study at FLCS with the following provisional title: “In Search of an Effective Training Model for Mozambican Translators and Interpreters”. The overriding goal of the study is to research effective models for training translators and interpreters with well-developed English-Portuguese and vice-versa translation and interpreting competences, which may be applicable not only at Eduardo Mondlane University but also in other higher education institutions wishing to introduce a BA Honours degree in Translation Studies in Mozambique. Through this study, I believe I will deepen my knowledge of pedagogy and curriculum planning and development in the field of translation and interpreting, as well as I will contribute to the institutional development of UEM.

My work at the faculty will consist of data collection from translation students interested in participating in the study. Eligible students will be invited to take part in the study on a voluntary basis and without disturbing their normal academic activities. Likewise, UEM lecturers in various subjects making up the current curriculum for the BA Honours degree in translation will be invited to participate voluntarily. Data collection is expected to take place in 2016 and end in the first semester of 2017 in two phases: Phase I: Pilot Study; Phase II: Main Study. I will send the data collection tools before starting the field work should the dean of faculty deem it imperative, and I hereby undertake to share the study findings with the FLCS community, in particular, and the UEM community, in general.

I look forward to your approval.

Yours faithfully

(signed)
Armando Adriano Magaia
(Assistant Lecturer)
Annexure IV: Request for Permission to Conduct a Study at the Language Institute of Maputo

Armando Adriano Magaia
Language Department – English Section
Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences – UEM
Cell phone: (+258) 84 3999260
Email: armagaya@yahoo.com.br
Maputo

12 April 2016

Director of the Language Institute
Maputo

Dear Sir or Madam

Request for permission to conduct a study at the Language Institute

As a self-funded student registered in the doctoral programme in Linguistics with specialization in Translation Studies at the University of South Africa (Unisa), from 2016 to 2017, I intend to conduct a study at the Language Institute with the following provisional title: “In Search of an Effective Training Model for Mozambican Translators and Interpreters”. The overriding goal of the study is to research effective models for training translators and interpreters with well-developed English-Portuguese and vice-versa translation and interpreting competences, which may be applicable not only at Eduardo Mondlane University but also in other higher education institutions wishing to introduce a BA Honours degree in Translation Studies in Mozambique. Through this study, I believe I will deepen my knowledge of pedagogy and curriculum planning and development in the field of translation and interpreting, as well as I will contribute to the institutional development of UEM.

My work at the Language Institute will consist of data collection from students interested in participating in the study, who are attending the most advanced levels of English. Eligible students will be invited to take part in the study on a voluntary basis and without disturbing their normal academic activities. Data collection is expected to take place in 2016 and end in the first semester of 2017 in two phases: Phase I: Pilot Study; Phase II: Main Study. I will send the data collection tools before starting the field work should the director of the Language Institute deem it imperative, and I hereby undertake to share the study findings with the Language Institute community.

I look forward to your approval.

Yours faithfully

(signed)
Armando Adriano Magaia
(Assistant Lecturer)
Annexure V: Research Ethics Review Committee’s Clearance

DEPARTMENT OF LINGUISTICS AND MODERN LANGUAGES:
RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE
10 April 2017

Ref #: TS_AAM028_2017
Mr AA Magaia
Student #: 5343 9325

Dear Mr Magaia

Decision: Ethics Approval

Name: Mr Magaia
Rua de Vundica No. 235
B. Liberdade
Matola
Provincia de Maputo
Mozambique

Tel: (+258) 84 39 99 260
grugaya@yahoo.com.br

Supervisor: Prof CK Moropa

Proposal: In Search of Effective Training Models for Mozambican Translators and Interpreters

Qualification: PhD – Translation Studies

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance, first received on 16 March 2017 by members of the Department of Linguistics and Modern Languages Research Ethics Review Committee (RERC) for the above-mentioned research, and subsequently revised at the end of March 2017. The committee is satisfied that your application meets ethical criteria. Approval is hereby granted for the research undertaken for the duration of your doctoral studies.

For full approval: The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the Department of Linguistics and Modern Languages Research Ethics Review Committee on 07 April 2017.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

University of South Africa
Pretorius Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
P.O. Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

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1) The researcher will ensure that the suggested changes will be made to the questionnaire before it is administered to the students.

2) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

3) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the

4) Department of Linguistics and Modern Languages Research Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.

5) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.

Note:
The reference number (top right corner of this communiqué) should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication (e.g. Webmail, e-mail messages, letters) with the intended research participants, as well as with the Department of Linguistics and Modern Languages RERC.

On behalf of the departmental RERC, we wish you everything of the best with your research study. May it be a stimulating and fruitful journey!

Kind regards

Prof EJ Pretorius

Chair: Department of Linguistics and Modern Languages RERC
Tel: (012) 429 6028
pretoei@unisa.ac.za
Annexure VI: Initial BA (Hons) in T/I Curriculum at UEM

<table>
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**Year 4**

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*Source: Catálogo dos cursos de graduação e pós-graduação (2007, 52)*
Annexure VII: Current BA (Hons) in Translation Curriculum at UEM

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Key: “C”=Compulsory/core subject; “FES” is the same as “O”=Optional/free-elective subject
Annexure VIII: Data Collection Tool #2

Study Title: “In Search of Effective Training Models for Mozambican Translators and Interpreters”

Data collection tool #2

ENGLISH TRANSLATION TEST

1. Name: ___________________________ Code: _______________

TRANSLATION BRIEF:
The passage you are going to translate is extracted from an official document entitled “Plano Estratégico do Sector da Saúde – PESS 2014-2019” (available at http://www.nationalplanningcycles.org/sites/default/files/planning_cycle_repository/mozambique/pess_30_setembro_2013_detailh_com_anexos_vf_celia.pdf). As a government strategic plan, this document is extremely important for the country’s efforts to garner global support to improve the delivery of health services to Mozambican citizens. Provide a translation into English with an appropriate register.

Apesar de melhorias documentadas, o actual estado de saúde da população moçambicana sugere a necessidade de acelerar os progressos na redução dos elevados índices de mortalidade materna e neonatal, por complicações da gravidez, parto e perinatais, incluindo a redução do risco resultante das elevadas taxas de fecundidade e de malnutrição. Para além dos problemas específicos de saúde materno-infantil, o peso da doença continua a ser dominado por doenças preveníveis, ou pela mudança de comportamento, ou por medidas de controlo, nomeadamente da Malária, HIV, TB e DNT. Contudo, as DNTs e o trauma, caracterizados por evolução crónica, começam a influenciar o perfil epidemiológico do País e a competir pelos escassos recursos existentes. Além disso, a vulnerabilidade aos desastres naturais e a ocorrência de surtos epidémicos coloca desafios adicionais à capacidade de resposta do sistema de saúde.

(Word count: 135 words)

2. How long did you take to complete this assignment? (This includes reading, analysis, documentation, terminology research, transfer, evaluation, revision, editing): _____________ minutes.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION
Annexure IX: Data Collection Tool # 3

Study Title: “In Search of Effective Training Models for Mozambican Translators and Interpreters”

Data collection tool #3

FINAL TRANSLATION PROJECT

Name: ___________________________ Code: ________________

DESCRIPTION OF PROCEDURE:

For each former student submitting an English translation requested in data collection tool #2, the researcher will extract data from archived students’ Portuguese translations for macro- and micro-textual analysis. The sample is expected to be between 100 and 135 words. The data will be used for triangulation purposes.

TEXT 1

The 24-25 June 2000 parliamentary and the 9’10 March 2002 presidential elections saw the full deployment of ZANU-PF and government forces to retain power in the face of the opposition onslaught (see Raftopoulos & Phimister, 2004). These elections confirmed that ZANU-PF was in danger of losing to the opposition. Many were convinced that had it not been for ZANU-FP’s use of force and violence in the run-up, combined with the ‘restructuring’ of civil society and, probably, its manipulation of vote tabulation and postal votes, it would not have recorded its 2002 electoral victory (Raftopoulos, 2002; Nhema, 2002). ZANU-PF thus retained its narrow majority (see Table 2), but no longer had a two-thirds parliamentary majority. Its constitutional amendments became obstructed. Increasingly, extensive presidential powers were relied on to substitute for constitutional and law-based measures of governance.

TEXT 2

All too often, debates about policies for poverty reduction in SSA are either overly pessimistic about the tractability of the problem or too readily neglect the politics that shape public policy and its results in the region. We seek to chart a course between these extremes by dividing the drivers and maintainers of poverty into two broad categories: socio-economic factors (such as risk and vulnerability and low capabilities) and political economy factors (such as non-developmental politics, corruption and the ‘resource curse’). This approach aims to identify issues that can (at least partially) be addressed through public policy while also situating them in their broad political and institutional context. In particular, in many states in SSA, informal institutions (‘rules of the game’) are equally if not more important than formal ones.
TEXT 3

Additional funding for deficit financing can come either from domestic markets or external sources. The ability to attract new external funding from commercial sources to finance increased deficits is likely to be limited for most countries in sub-Saharan Africa, except in the case of specific project finance. Even frontier markets, currently capable of tapping sovereign bond markets, would likely encounter a different environment in the event of a significant global downturn and associated shocks to domestic economies. With the timing of project financing likely to be closely linked to project needs, rather than to budget financing needs, the one reliable source of incremental external financing in a downturn scenario would be multilateral and bilateral donors.

TEXT 4

The integrated and comprehensive Maternal and Child Health package was and is still defined to include:

- Care and supervision during pregnancy;
- Supervision and care of home and institutional deliveries;
- Provision of postnatal care;
- Child growth and development monitoring;
- Surveillance of nutrition status of mothers and young children;
- Specific education on care of the nutritionally at risk children 1-4 years;
- Immunization against the six killer diseases;
- Provision of Child Spacing and Family Planning advice and services;
- Provision of Health Education directed to mothers and school going children;
- Provision of referral mechanism by which complicated or serious cases can have access to higher levels of health care specialist services;

Collection and compilation of basic MCH service statistics for programme monitoring.

TEXT 5

The concept of peer review has its origins in professional bodies, and involves two broad areas: the evaluation of proposals and projects by experts and monitoring of state compliance with the provision of a treaty (Ngamau 2004, 540). The latter which is our interest has been defined as a systematic examination and assessment of either the performance or practices of a state by other states (peers) or designated institutions (OECD 2003; Pagani 2002; Kanbur 2004). The ultimate goal of peer reviews is to encourage the reviewed country to: improve its policy making capacity, adopt best practices and comply with established standards and principles. In many
ways, a peer review is a discussion among equals and “not a hearing by a superior body that will hand down a binding judgment or punishment” (OECD 2003).

TEXT 6

Better opportunities for women to earn and control income could contribute to broader economic development in developing economies, for instance through higher levels of school enrollment for girls. Women are more likely than men to invest a large proportion of their household income in the education of their children. According to the ILO, women’s work, both paid and unpaid, may be the single most important poverty-reducing factor in developing economies (Heintz, 2006). Accordingly, higher FLFP and greater earnings by women could result in higher expenditure on school enrollment for children, including girls, potentially triggering a virtuous cycle, when educated women become female role models (Aguirre and others 2012; Miller 2008).
Annexure X:  Final Results of Former UEM Students’ Translation Tests

Table 15:  Final results of students’ translation tests

<table>
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<tr>
<th>No.</th>
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<th>Portuguese</th>
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Annexure XI: Other Samples of Students’ Translations Analyzed

SAMPLE 1

Despite the documented improvements, the current health status of the Mozambican population suggests the need to accelerate progress in reducing the high maternal and neonatal mortality rates, due to complications of pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal complications, including reduction of the risk resulting from high fertility and malnutrition rates. Apart from the specific maternal-child health problems, the burden of disease is still dominated by preventable diseases, or by control measures, namely malaria, HIV, TB and NCDs. However, NCDs and trauma, characterized by chronic evolution, are starting to influence the epidemiologic profile of the Country and to compete for scarce resources. Moreover, the vulnerability to natural disasters and the occurrence of epidemic outbreaks present additional challenges to the responsiveness of the health system.

—Translated by MSFS11
Classification: 11.12 (56.0%) – Acceptable

SAMPLE 2

Despite documented improvements, the current health status of the Mozambican population suggests the need to accelerate progress in reducing high rates of maternal and neonatal mortality, pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal complications, including risk reduction resulting from high rates of fertility and malnutrition. In addition to specific maternal and child health problems, the burden of disease continues to be dominated by preventable diseases, or by control measures such as malaria, HIV, TB and NCDs. However, NCDs and trauma, characterized by chronic evolution, begin to influence the country’s epidemiologic profile and compete for scarce resources. In addition, vulnerability to natural disasters and the occurrence of outbreaks pose additional challenges to the health system’s responsiveness. —Translated by MSFS14
Classification: 11.85 (59.3%) – Acceptable
SAMPLE 3

Despite documented improvements, the current health status of the Mozambican population suggests the need to accelerate progress in reducing the high rates of maternal and new-born mortality, pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal complications including the reduction of risk from high rates of fertility and malnutrition. In addition to specific maternal and child health problems, the disease burden continues to be dominated by preventable diseases, change in behaviour or control measures namely malaria, HIV. Tuberculosis and NCDs. However, NCDs and trauma, characterized by chronic evolution, begin to influence the country’s epidemiological profile and compete for scarce resources. In addition, vulnerability to natural disasters and the occurrence of outbreaks pose additional challenges to the health system’s responsiveness. — Translated by MSFS17

Classification: 9.64 (48.2%) – Acceptable

SAMPLE 4

Despite documented improvements, the current state of health of the Mozambican population suggests the need to accelerate progress in reducing high maternal and neonatal mortality rates, resulting from pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal complications, including reduction of the risk resulting from high fertility and malnutrition rates. Apart from specific maternal and child health problems, the burden of disease is still dominated by preventable diseases, change in behaviour or control measures, namely malaria, HIV, TB and NCDs. However, NCDs and trauma, characterized by chronic evolution, begin to influence the country’s epidemiological profile and to compete for scarce resources. Furthermore, vulnerability to natural disasters and the occurrence of epidemic outbreaks pose additional challenges to the health system’s response capacity. — Translated by MSFS19

Classification: 12.6 (63.0%) – Acceptable
SAMPLE 5

Despite documented improvements, the current health status of the Mozambican population suggests the need to accelerate progress in reducing the UN high maternal and neonatal mortality rates, due to pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal complications, including reduction UN in-risk WM resulting from high fertility and malnutrition rates. In addition to the specific maternal and child health problems, the burden of disease continues to be dominated by preventable diseases, or ND by change in behavior and WM by control measures, namely for WM malaria, HIV, TB and NCD UN. However, NCDs and trauma, characterized by chronic evolution, begin to influence the country's epidemiological profile and to compete for the existing scarce resources. In addition, vulnerability to natural disasters and the occurrence of epidemic outbreaks pose additional challenges to the health system's responsiveness. —Translated by MSFS21

Classification: 12.6 (63.0%) – Acceptable

SAMPLE 6

Despite documented improvements, the current health status of the Mozambican population suggests the need to accelerate progress in reducing the UN high rates of maternal and neonatal mortality due to pregnancy, childbirth and perinatal complications, including reduce ND the risks resulting from the UN high rates of fertility and malnutrition. In addition to specific maternal and child health problems, the burden of diseases continues to be dominated by illnesses which can be prevented either by behavior change or control measures, such as Malaria, HIV, TB and NCD UN. However, NCDs and trauma, characterized by chronic evolution, begin UN to influence the country's epidemiological profile and to compete for the existing scarce resources. The UN vulnerability to natural disasters and the occurrence of epidemic outbreaks also pose additional challenges to the health system's responsiveness. —Translated by MSFS03

Classification: 15.56 (77.8%) – Highly Acceptable
SAMPLE 7

O conceito de revisão de pares tem a sua origem em agências profissionais e envolve duas áreas amplas: a avaliação de propostas e projectos por especialistas e a monitoria da conformidade dos estados com a provisão do tratado (Ngamau 2004, 540). Esta última, que mais nos interessa, foi definida como sendo uma avaliação e exame sistemático de QUER-ND-quer o desempenho QUER-ND-as práticas de um estado por outros estados (pares) ou instituições designadas (OECD 2003; Pagani 2002; Kanbur 2004). O objectivo final das revisões de pares é encorajar o país revisto a: melhorar a sua capacidade de tomada-de-decisão, adoptar melhores práticas e respeitar os princípios e padrões estabelecidos. Em muitos aspectos, uma revisão de pares é uma discussão entre iguais e “not a hearing by a superior body that will hand down a binding judgement or punishment” (não uma audiência feita por uma agência superior que irá passar uma-punição-ou-julgamento-obrigatório) (OECD 2003). — Translated by MSFS02

Classification: 14 (70.0%) – Acceptable

SAMPLE 8

O conceito de revisão de pares tem as suas origens nos organismos profissionais e envolve duas áreas amplas: a avaliação de propostas e de projectos por especialistas e a monitoria do cumprimento por parte do Estado das disposições do tratado (Ngamau 2004,540). A última área, que é a do nosso interesse, foi definida como uma avaliação e análise sistemática do desempenho ou das práticas de um Estado pelos outros Estados (pares) ou pelas instituições designadas (OECD 2003; Pagani 2002; Kanbur 2004). O principal objectivo da revisão de pares é encorajar o país avaliado a: melhorar a sua capacidade de elaboração de políticas, adoptar melhores práticas e cumprir com os princípios e normas estabelecidas. Em vários aspectos, a revisão de pares é uma discussão entre semelhantes e “não uma audiência pelo um órgão superior que irá ditar uma sentença ou um castigo” (OECD 2003). — Translated by MSFS05

Classification: 14.75 (75.8%) – Acceptable
SAMPLE 9

O conceito de revisão de pares tem a sua génese em organismos profissionais e envolve duas grandes áreas: a avaliação de propostas e de projectos por peritos e monitoria do cumprimento das disposições de um tratado por parte do estado (Ngamau, 2004, 540). O último ND, que é o nosso UN interesse, foi definido ND como sendo uma avaliação e examinação sistemáticas MS das práticas ou do desempenho de um estado pelos outros estados (pares) ou instituições designadas (OCDE, 2003; Pagnani, 2002; Kanbur, 2004). O principal objectivo das revisões de pares é o de encorajar o país avaliado a: melhorar a sua capacidade de formação de políticas, adoptar melhores práticas e cumprir com princípios e normas estabelecidas. Em muitos aspectos, uma revisão de pares é uma discussão entre iguais e “não uma audiência por um organismo superior que irá proferir uma sentença ou sanção vinculativa WM” (OCDE, 2003) — Translated by MSFS06

Classification: 15.5 (77.5 %) – Highly Acceptable

SAMPLE 10

O financiamento adicional para o financiamento do défice pode vir tanto dos mercados domésticos quanto das fontes externas. É provável que a capacidade de atraer novos financiamentos externos de fontes comerciais para financiar défices elevados seja limitada para muitos países na África Subsaariana, excepto no caso de um projecto específico de financiamento WM. Mesmo os mercados fronteiriços, actualmente capazes de explorar os mercados de títulos de dívidas soberanas PP poderão provavelmente deparar-se com um ambiente diferente no caso de uma crise económica mundial significativa e os choques associados às economias domésticas. Com o prazo do financiamento a estar provavelmente estritamente ligado NS as-MS necessidades do projecto, ao invés de elaborar o orçamento das necessidades financeiras WM, a única fonte segura de financiamento externo adicional seria ND os doadores bilaterais e multilaterais. — Translated by MSFS10

Classification: 12.7 (63.5%) – Acceptable
SAMPLE 11

O financiamento adicional para financiar o défice pode vir quer dos mercados internos quer de fontes externas. A capacidade de atrair novo financiamento externo a partir de fontes comerciais para financiar um défice maior pode ser limitada para a maioria dos países da África subsaariana, excepto no caso do financiamento de um projecto específico. Mesmo os mercados fronteiriços, actualmente capazes de explorar mercados de obrigações soberanas, poderiam encontrar um ambiente diferente no caso de uma recessão global significativa e no caso de choques associados às economias internas. Com a probabilidade da ND gestão do tempo de financiamento do projecto estar muito ligada às necessidades do projecto, e não às necessidades de financiamento orçamental, a única fonte segura de financiamento O Progressivo WMC, no caso de uma recessão, seriam doadores multilaterais e bilaterais. — Translated by MSFS11

Classification: 15.65 (78.25%) – Highly Acceptable

SAMPLE 12

Fundos suplementares para o défice financeiro podem vir, por um lado, dos mercados domésticos ou, por outro lado, de fontes externas. A capacidade de atrair novos fundos externos, provenientes de fontes comerciais, para financiar défices acentuados é provavelmente limitada para muitos países na África Subsaariana, excepto no caso de financiamento para um projecto especifico. Mesmo os mercados fronteiriços, actualmente capazes de explorar o mercado de títulos soberanos, seriam susceptíveis de encontrar um ambiente diferente no caso de uma queda global significativa e choques associados às economias domésticas. Com o prazo de financiamento do projecto provavelmente ligado às necessidades do projecto, no invés das WM necessidades de financiamento do orçamento, a fonte segura para o incremento do financiamento externo, num cenário de crise, seriam os doadores multilaterais e bilaterais. — Translated by MSFS14

Classification: 16.52 (82.6%) – Highly Acceptable
SAMPLE 13

Os fundos adicionais para o financiamento do défice podem advir quer dos mercados internos quer de fontes externas ND. A capacidade de atrair novo financiamento externo de fontes comerciais para financiar défices agravados é provável que esteja limitada para a maioria dos países da África subsaariana, excepto em caso de financiamento a projectos específicos. Mesmo os mercados fronteiros, actualmente capazes de explorar mercado UN de títulos soberanos, poderiam, provavelmente, encontrar um ambiente diferente no caso de uma crise global significante e de impactos WLC associados às economias internas. Com o prazo de financiamento do projecto provável e estreitamente ligado NS às necessidades do projecto, mais do que arquentar as necessidades financeiras NS, a fonte fiável do financiamento externo incremental num cenário de crise seria ND os doadores bilaterais e multilaterais. — Translated by MSFS15

Classification: 11.3 (56.5%) – Acceptable

SAMPLE 14

O fundo WLC adicional para o financiamento do défice pode vir tanto do mercado nacional como de fontes externas. A capacidade de atrair novos fundos externos a partir de fontes comerciais para financiar défices acrescidos é susceptível de ser limitada para a maioria dos países da África Subsaariana, excepto no caso de financiamento de projecto específico UN. Mesmo mercados fronteiros, actualmente capazes de explorar mercados de obrigações soberanas, provavelmente encontrariam um ambiente diferente no caso de um declínio global significativo e choque associado às economias nacionais. Com o momento de financiamento do projecto possivelmente ligado intimamente às suas necessidades, ao invés de necessidades de financiamento orçamental, a única fonte confiável de financiamento externo incremental em um cenário de declínio seria ND os doadores multilaterais e bilaterais. — Translated by MSFS16

Classification: 16.52 (82.6%) – Highly Acceptable
SAMPLE 15

O conceito de revisão de pares tem suas origens em órgãos profissionais e envolve duas áreas gerais: a avaliação de propostas e projectos por especialistas e a monitoria do cumprimento do Estado com disposição UN dum tratado (Ngamau 2004, 540). O último, que constitui o nosso interesse, foi definido como um exame e avaliação sistemática tanto do desempenho bem como ND de práticas de um Estado por outros Estados (pares) ou instituições designadas (OECD 2003; Pagani 2002; Kanbur 2004). O objectivo final das revisões de pares consiste em encorajar o país avaliado para melhorar sua capacidade de elaboração de políticas, adoptar melhores práticas e cumprir com os padrões e princípios estabelecidos. Em muitas formas, a revisão de pares é uma discussão entre os signatários e “não exposição a uma outra entidade hierarquicamente superior a fim de impor a sua supremacia nas decisões ou sanções” (OECD 2003). — Translated by MSFS18

Classification: 17 (85.0%) – Highly Acceptable

SAMPLE 16

Muito frequentemente, debates sobre políticas para a redução da pobreza na ASS ou são excessivamente pessimistas quanto à possibilidade de solucionar o problema ou muito facilmente descrevem o sector político que forma as políticas públicas e os seus resultados na região. Procuramos ir a uma rota entre WM estes dois extremos, dividindo os factores e fomentadores da pobreza em duas grandes categorias: factores sócio-económicos, MS (tais como o risco e a vulnerabilidade e fracas capacidades) e factores político-económicos (tais como políticas não orientadas para o desenvolvimento WM, a corrupção e a "maldição dos recursos naturais"). Esta abordagem visa identificar problemas que podem (pelo menos parcialmente) ser resolvidos através de políticas públicas e, visa ainda, situá-los em seu contexto político e institucional alargado. Particularmente, em muitos estados da ASS, instituições informais (este é a regra do jogo WM) são igualmente importantes, se não até mais do que as formais. — Translated by MSFS19

Classification: 14.645 (73.3%) – Acceptable
SAMPLE 17

O pacote integrado e inclusivo de Saúde Materno-Infantil foi definido e está definido para incluir:

- A assistência e acompanhamento durante a gravidez;
- O acompanhamento e assistência a partos domiciliares e institucionais;
- A prestação de assistência pós-natal;
- O acompanhamento de crescimento e desenvolvimento infantil;
- O controlo do estado nutricional das mães e das crianças;
- A educação específica sobre assistência a crianças nutricionalmente em risco, com idades entre 1-4 anos;
- A imunização contra as seis principais doenças causadoras de morte;
- A prestação de serviços de aconselhamento e serviços sobre o espaçamento entre o nascimento de filhos e Planeamento Familiar;
- A provisão de Educação Sanitária (ES) direcionada às mães e crianças que frequentam a escola;
- A provisão de mecanismo de referência, através do qual os casos complicados ou sérios podem ser encaminhados a níveis superiores e especializados de serviços de saúde;
- A recolha e compilação de estatísticas básicas sobre os serviços de SMI com vista à monitoria do programa. — Translated by MSFS03

Classification: 15.8 (79.0%)—Highly Acceptable
O pacote integrado e abrangente de saúde materna e infantil foi e ainda é definido incluindo WLC:

- Assistência e acompanhamento durante a gravidez;
- Acompanhamento e assistência aos partos domiciliar e institucional;
- Prestação de assistência pós-natal;
- **Cálcio WLC** do crescimento e desenvolvimento da criança;
- **Cálcio WLC** de UN estado de nutrição das mães e crianças;
- Educação específica sobre assistência das crianças de 1-4 anos nutricionalmente em **risco UN**;
- Imunização contra as seis doenças fatais;
- Prestação de serviços e aconselhamento sobre espaçamento de nascimentos e planeamento familiar;
- Provisão de educação em saúde orientada para mães e crianças frequentando a escola;
- Provisão de mecanismo de recomendação pelo qual casos sérios ou complicados possam ter acesso aos serviços de assistência médica dos especialistas de alto nível;
- **Colecção e compilação de base de dados estatísticos de serviço básico do SMI (Saúde Materna e Infantil) para o controle WLC** do programa. — Translated by MSFS04

**Classification: 11.6 (58%) — Acceptable**
O pacote integrado e abrangente de Saúde Materno-Infantil foi e ainda é definido por WLC incluir:

- Cuidados e acompanhamento durante a gestação;
- Supervisão e cuidado dos partos caseiros e institucionais;
- Prestação de cuidados pós-natal ND;
- Acompanhamento WLC do crescimento e desenvolvimento da criança;
- Vigilância do estado nutricional das mães e crianças;
- Educação particular sobre os cuidados a ter com as crianças de 1 a 4 anos em risco nutricional;
- Vacinação contra as seis doenças fatais;
- Fornecimento de informações WLC e serviços sobre o Espaçamento entre as Gestações e Planeamento Familiar;
- Fornecimento de Educação em Saúde às mães e crianças em idade escolar;
- Fornecimento de mecanismo UN de referência, pelo qual os casos complicados ou graves possam ter acesso a níveis mais elevados de serviços especializados de cuidados de saúde;
- Colecta e compilação de estatísticas dos serviços básicos de SMI para o acompanhamento WLC do programa. — Translated by MSFS09

Classification: 10.76 (53.8%) – Acceptable
SAMPLE 20

O pacote integrado e abrangente de Saúde Materno-Infantil foi e ainda está definido com vista a incluir:

- A assistência e o acompanhamento durante a gravidez;
- O acompanhamento e a assistência a partos domiciliares e institucionais;
- A provisão de assistência pós-natal;
- **O acompanhamento WLC** do crescimento e desenvolvimento infantil;
- O controlo do estado nutricional de mães e crianças;
- A educação específica sobre a assistência às crianças em risco nutricional, com idades variando entre 1-4 anos;
- A imunização contra as seis doenças mortais;
- A prestação de aconselhamento e serviços que dizem respeito ao espaçamento entre o nascimento de filhos e ao Planeamento Familiar.
- A provisão da Educação em Saúde direccionada a mães e a crianças que frequentam a escola;
- A provisão do mecanismo de referência, através do qual os casos complicados ou sérios podem ser encaminhados a instâncias superiores no **âmbito dos serviços WM** de assistência médica especializada.
- A recolha e compilação de estatísticas básicas de serviços de **SMI** a fim de fazer **o acompanhamento WLC** do programa. — Translated by MSFS21

Classification: **14.96 (74.8%)** – Acceptable

SAMPLE 21

O emprego de mulheres numa base de igualdade permitiria às empresas fazer melhor uso da equipa profissional disponível, **que implicaria um crescimento potencial WM–PP** (Barsh e Yee, 2012; CAHRS 2011). Embora não seja pacífico, existe evidência de um impacto positivo da presença das mulheres nos **conselhos WLC–PP** e na **alta administração WLC** sobre o desempenho das empresas. Empresas que empregam mulheres como gestoras–PP estariam mais aptas a servir o mercado consumidor dominado pelas mulheres (CED 2012, CAHRS 2011) e conselhos de administração mais equilibrados no que respeita ao gênero poderiam melhorar a governança corporativa, oferecendo uma vasta gama de perspectivas (OECD, 2012; Lord Davies, 2013). Para além disso, uma parcela maior de mulheres em cargos de tomada de decisão pode reduzir a percentagem de transações financeiras de alto risco que são geralmente conduzidas por investidores masculinos (Coates e Herbert, 2008). — Translated by MSFS08

Classification: **12.44 (62.2%)** – Acceptable