IJLLT

Translation Competence and Translator Training: A Review

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ARTICLE INFORMATION	ABSTRACT

Translator training is an area that has received much interest among the research community of Translation Studies' scholars. This is driven by the need for highly qualified and skilled professional translators around the world. This need has motivated research into the skills and competences professional translators need to perform their tasks effectively. This review addresses translator training and translation competence, underscoring the need for further research in this area in the Saudi context. It also presents some translation competence models that have been proposed. The review indicated that translation competence is an under-researched area in the Saudi context. Further research is needed in this area to contribute to improving the quality of translator training, which will enhance the quality of translation services by improving the outcomes of these programs.

1. Introduction

Interest in translator training has been growing, as evidenced by the proliferation of relevant publications in this area, as well as the increase in undergraduate and graduate translation programs worldwide (Colina, 2003a; Munday, 2016; Yan et al., 2018). Training future translators has promoted research concerning the essential competences translators need to carry out their tasks effectively and professionally. This, in turn, has sparked interest in the notion of translation competence (TC), which is not surprising since competence is not new to linguistics and its related disciplines (Chomsky, 1965; De Saussure, 1916).

TC has been of interest to researchers since the mid-1980s (e.g., Adab, 2000; Beeby, 2000; Chesterman, 1998; Hurtado Albir, 2017a; Kiraly, 1990; Kiraly, 1995; Nord, 2005; Orozco, 2000; Tomozeiu et al., 2016; Wilss, 1996). Initially, studies addressing competence in the context of translation focused on defining the notion and delineating its components. Several attempts have been undertaken to propose models for TC and its sub-competences (e.g., EMT, 2017; Göpferich, 2009; PACTE, 2003). Another trend has been concerned with the acquisition and development of translation competence (e.g., Alves & Gonçalves, 2007; Castillo, 2015; Chesterman, 2016; Harris, 1977; Harris & Sherwood, 1978; PACTE, 2017; Toury, 2012).

2. Translation and Translation Studies

As a profession, translation has existed since there became a need for communication among people who speak different languages. As a discipline, however, translation studies emerged gradually in the second half of the twentieth century (Munday, 2016) after being nurtured by other disciplines, including but not limited to, literature and linguistics. In fact, House (2016) has argued that translation is part of the broad interdisciplinary field of Applied Linguistics.

Translation Studies is the academic discipline concerned with translation. It was described by Holmes as being concerned with "the complex of problems clustered round the phenomenon of translating and translations" (2004, p. 181). According to Holmes's map of translation studies, the discipline is mainly divided into pure and applied studies. Pure translation studies encompass theoretical and descriptive studies. Theoretical translation studies can be general or partial, whereas descriptive studies deal with the process, product, and function of translation. The applied branch, on the other hand, includes translator training, translation aids, and translation criticism.

The applied branch of TS, which was developed and expanded by Munday (2016) over the years, reflects significant developments in this area. The most recent version of Munday's map of applied translation studies (2016) exhibits major developments in the sub-branch concerned with translation aids (See Munday, 2001, 2008, and 2012 for previous versions of the applied translation studies map). However, the translator training sub-branch has remained—more or less—the same. This is an indication that translator training remains a relatively under-investigated area of research compared to the other sub-branches of applied translation studies. Translator training is concerned with teaching methods, methods of assessment, and curriculum design. These pedagogical elements combined are the foundations of the training and preparation of translators.

Building on Holmes's taxonomy, Saldanha and O'Brien (2013) classified translation studies research into four main branches: product-oriented research, process-oriented research, participant-oriented research, and context-oriented research. Product-oriented research is concerned with examining the product of translation (i.e., translated texts), while process-oriented research looks into the translation process itself. Participant-oriented research, on the other hand, addresses the participants involved in the translation process, including translators, translation instructors, and students, among other groups of stakeholders. Finally, context-oriented research is concerned with the context of the translation product.

Accordingly, investigating translator training and TC falls under the branch of descriptive translation studies in Holmes's taxonomy. As a research study, it addresses elements that fall under both participant-oriented and context-oriented research.

3. Translator Training

The growing number of graduate and undergraduate translation programs around the world (Colina, 2003a; Munday, 2016; Yan et al., 2018) has sparked an increase in translation pedagogy research (Gile, 2009) as evidenced by the many publications on the topic (e.g., Baer & Koby, 2003; Colina, 2003a; Colina & Angelelli, 2017; Gabr, 2001; Schäffner & Adab, 2000; Tassini, 2012). Interest in translator training has also motivated research on the evaluation of translation programs and the perceptions of stakeholders regarding the efficiency of these programs, as well as the extent to which the programs are successful in meeting the demands and requirements of the professional practice of translation (i.e., the translation job market) (e.g., Abu-Ghararah, 2017; Al-Batineh & Bilali, 2017; Alenezi, 2015; Al-Faifi, 2000; Ben Salamh, 2012; El-Karnichi, 2017; Khoury, 2016; Muñoz-Miquel, 2018; Schnell & Rodríguez, 2017).

Even though there is a demand for translator training, the literature on the issue reports a pedagogical gap in translator training (Abu-Ghararah, 2017; Colina, 2003a; Kiraly, 1995; Muñoz Martín, 2002). This gap encompasses several aspects such as program or course objectives, curricula, and translation methods (Kiraly, 1995), as well as the absence of solid pedagogical and methodological criteria for teaching translation and designing translation courses (Colina, 2003a). Many translator training programs suffer from the absence of clear and concise objectives, pedagogical principles, and curricular guidelines, in addition to a shortage of qualified, specialized trainers (Al-Faifi, 2000; Atari, 2012; Colina, 2003a; Farghal, 2000). Farghal (2000) claimed that in such cases, translation training is typically assigned to bilingual faculty members who specialize in linguistics or literature due to the lack of qualified, specialized trainers. Atari (2012) diagnosed the situation in translator training programs in Arab universities as follows:

> Translator training in Arab university English departments continues to be overshadowed by various impediments such as misconceptions about the true nature of translation, the absence of a common ideology for translator training among translation teachers, presumptuous assumptions about trainees' bilingual competence, and mismatches between workplace expectations and translator training in academia. (p. 104)

The shortcomings in translator education mentioned above have caused a gap between the outputs of translation programs and the needs of the translation industry (Abu-Ghararah, 2017; Alenezi, 2015; Anderman & Rogers, 2000; Ben Salamh, 2012; Muñoz Martín, 2002). Some translation programs seem to be detached from the reality of the translation profession. For example, El-Karnichi (2017) found that translator training programs lack training on some of the professional competences translators need, such as project management, while Elamin (2008) concluded that translation students generally suffer from weak language proficiency.

Unfortunately, the lack of pedagogical and methodological principles in translation teaching has affected the status of translation as an academic discipline (Colina, 2003a; Kiraly, 1995). One of the main issues in translator training is that translation is itself a complex phenomenon that is not easy to teach even for experts, who typically rely on their own intuitions or the experiences of others (Baer & Koby, 2003; Colina, 2003a; Colina, 2003b; Farghal, 2000; Gile, 2009; Muñoz Martín, 2002). For this reason, identifying the main skills and competences translation students and trainees require is an essential step towards the development of translation programs and curricula as well as teaching and assessment methods (Kiraly, 1995).

Colina (2003a) and Kiraly (1995) both argued that TC should be the starting point of all decisions related to the training of translators and the design of translation training programs. Identifying the components of TC essentially provides a description of the ideal translator, which should be the goal of every translator training program. Realizing the significant role of TC in translation pedagogy has encouraged research in this area. Many translation scholars directed their attention to defining TC and identifying its main components. The following section provides an overview of some of the major works on TC.

4. Translation Competence

Research into TC has developed and evolved since its beginnings in the mid-1980s (Hurtado Albir, 2017a). Like most new areas of investigation, research in TC was initially concerned with proposing definitions and models (e.g., EMT, 2017; Göpferich, 2009; PACTE, 2003). It then evolved to examining the acquisition of TC(e.g., Kiraly, 2015; PACTE, 2017). An interest in TC and its acquisition is evident among the research community of translation pedagogy. The requirements of professional translators and the skills trainee translators need to become professionals or experts in their field are, no doubt, critical issues in the sub-field of translation studies concerned with translator training.

Any academic program should have its own pedagogical guidelines in order to meet the expectations of relevant stakeholders. However, existing literature in the area of translation pedagogy and translation training leaves much to be desired (Bernardini, 2004; González Davies, 2004; Kiraly, 1995). In fact, in a survey of translator education literature—undertaken in 1985 and 1986— Kiraly found that "very little had been done up until then to develop teaching approaches that would go beyond attempts to transmit knowledge from teachers to students" (2015, pp. 10-11). In the same vein, Zanón (2011) stated that the number of studies dealing with the pedagogical aspects of Arabic translation is low. Further, it seems that there is agreement regarding the need for more research and studies in the field of translation pedagogy (Bernardini, 2004; González Davies, 2004; Kiraly, 1995; Schäffner, 2004; Wilss, 2004). In fact, Hurtado Albir (2017a) stated:

> In addition to studying translation (as a product, process and behavior), Translation Studies have also been concerned in recent decades with describing what knowledge and abilities translators need to translate correctly, and what enables them to be able to perform the cognitive operations necessary to develop the translation process and the tasks required in the professional setting. (p. 12)

A quick survey of the websites of university translator training programs around the world reveals that different translation programs adopt different teaching methods and different study plans. Hence, the emphasis in these programs varies. In other words, the importance placed on the components of the preparation and training of translators varies from one academic institution to the next. For instance, if we compare the undergraduate translation programs at different universities in Saudi Arabia, we find that the credits allocated to translation-related courses vary from one university to another. This could be attributed to the absence of a systematic method for the teaching of translation due to the lack of established pedagogical standards (Colina, 2003a; Muñoz Martín, 2002) in addition to other administrative or pragmatic considerations.

Such a discrepancy in translation pedagogy calls for identifying the essential skills and requirements necessary to the translation profession. Thus, it has become crucial to identify a set of components that underlie the translation training process. The aim of such guidelines is to enable translation training programs to provide the necessary scaffolding for their trainees. The combination of skills and competences translators need have been investigated collectively under the notion of translation competence, among other terms (Chesterman, 1998; Kiraly, 1995; Neubert, 2000; Nord, 2005; Wilss, 1996).

TC subsumes the skills and competences needed to carry out the tasks and responsibilities of professional translators. Consequently, developing TC should be the aim of all translator training programs as it acts as the ultimate goal of translator preparation. Colina (2003a) argues that translation pedagogy must be grounded in research on TC and its development in order for translation to gain the academic status awarded to other disciplines. Furthermore, Schäffner and Adab (2000) have claimed that:

> When planning a programme intended to achieve the ultimate aim of developing translation competence as something far more complex than simply improving performance, the overall structure of the curriculum, the stages of progression and development of different sub-competences, the choice and timing of specific modules, components and courses all need to be taken into account. (p. xi)

Up until the 1980s, TC was practically non-existent, or under-researched, in the literature on translation education, to say the least (Hurtado Albir, 2017a; Kiraly, 2015). In fact, in 2001, Alves et al. claimed, "the literature on Translation Studies lacks a consistent description of the abilities and skills required from a professional translator" (p. 46). Furthermore, Göpferich (2009) described the development of models for TC and its acquisition as still being in their infancy. In addition, the results of a bibliometric study of the articles published in 10 major translation and interpreting journals between 2000 and 2012 found that

323 articles addressed translator and interpreter training from a total of 2,274 entries in these journals. Among the 323 articles, articles on TC represented slightly over 8% (Yan et al., 2018).

Reflecting on the research that has been done in relation to TC and its acquisition, Hurtado Albir (2015) identified two main research themes or approaches. The first theme, which spanned the period from the mid-1980s until 2000, included studies that mainly set out to identify the components of TC. Such studies proposed componential models of TC, which acknowledged that it encompasses linguistic sub-competence, as well as a variety of other components (e.g., extra-linguistic knowledge, skills, and transfer competence). The second theme identified by Hurtado Albir has been developing since 2000. Studies under this theme have adopted different approaches with a growing tendency towards interdisciplinarity (e.g., didactic, expertise studies).

A review of relevant literature indicated that some studies have dealt with TC; either attempting to define it or identify its components or sub-competences (e.g., Chesterman, 1998; Hurtado Albir, 2017a; Kiraly, 1990; Kiraly, 1995; Nord, 2005; Wilss, 1996), while other studies have examined certain aspects of TC, such as intercultural competence (e.g., Tomozeiu et al., 2016) or bilingual competence (e.g., Presas, 2000). Yet, another group of studies has investigated the evaluation or measurement of TC (e.g., Adab, 2000; Beeby, 2000; Orozco, 2000).

The literature also indicated that TC has been referred to differently by different scholars; for example, Kiraly (1995) referred to it as translator competence. Wilss (1996), on the other hand, took a Chomskyan perspective and discussed TC intertwined with what he referred to as translation performance, while Chesterman (1998) and Nord (2005) talked about transfer competence, and in his discussion of the issue, Neubert (2000) called it translational competence.

Kiraly claimed that TC should be the ultimate objective of translation skills instruction. He believes that this approach helps emphasize "the multifaceted nature of the professional translator's tasks" (1990, p. 44). As his discussion of translation pedagogy developed, he proposed a model of translator competence which comprised three dimensions, namely, (1) situational knowledge, (2) linguistic, cultural, and subject-field knowledge, and (3) the psycholinguistic processes involved in the translation process (Kiraly, 1995). He referred to the second and third aspects as translation-relevant knowledge and translation-relevant skills (1995, p. 108), respectively. Further, he also linked the notions of translation-relevant knowledge and skills to the competences involved in communicative competence, which include grammatical, strategic, sociolinguistic, and discourse competences.

Wilss defined TC as "a generic term for translation knowledge and skills" (1996, p. 192). He linked it to linguistic, cultural, and situational aspects of the translator's behavior. He also connected TC to the decisions translators make in terms of potential target readers. Further, in his discussion of TC, Wilss emphasized translation performance, which stemmed from his view of TC as a dynamic concept which develops to the degree that enables the translator to deal with familiar as well as unfamiliar translation tasks.

Neubert (2000) viewed translational competence as entailing a complex level of logical processes. In his view, it is composed of the following five components: language competence, textual competence, subject competence, cultural competence, and transfer competence. He argued that the interaction amongst these five components is what sets translation studies apart from other academic disciplines. Nevertheless, Neubert believes that transfer competence, which he referred to as competence 5, was the distinguishing feature of TC.

In her discussion of the teaching and learning of translation, Nord (2005) referred to TC, equating it with transfer competence. She also distinguished transfer competence from other competences, which she referred to collectively as translation-relevant competences. These include linguistic competence in both source and target languages, cultural competence, factual competence (i.e., subject-matter knowledge), and technical competence. At another point in her discussion, Nord added textual competence (i.e., reception, analysis, and production) and translation quality assessment competence to the other competences she had identified.

Hurtado Albir discussed TC and the research surrounding it. She defined it as the "knowledge and abilities translators need to translate correctly, and what enables them to perform the cognitive operations necessary to develop the translation process and the tasks required in professional settings" (2017a, p. 12).

Research on TC and its acquisition has been growing since the mid-1980s. The driving concern underlying interest in this area has been to identify the essential characteristics or traits translators need to carry out their tasks efficiently. Accordingly, several models have been put forth. The following section discusses the literature relevant to the notion of TC and reviews existing TC models.

4.1 Translation Competence Models

Interest in TC among translation studies' scholars has encouraged attempts to develop TC models. There is general agreement among researchers that TC is a componential concept consisting of sub-components. However, there is some disagreement regarding the nature of these sub-competences (Göpferich, 2009). This section reviews relevant literature on three of the most popular TC models, namely the PACTE models (2000, 2003), Göpferich's model (2009), and the EMT models (2009, 2017).

PACTE's TC Models

The PACTE group is a research group that was established in October 1997 at the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Spain (Hurtado Albir, 2017b). Founding members of the PACTE group were translator trainers who served as faculty members at the Faculty of Translation and Interpreting at the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona. They were also professional translators themselves.

The PACTE group has been investigating the acquisition of TC since its inception in 1997 (PACTE, 2003). The group is concerned with conducting empirical research based on a communicative view of translation. PACTE (2003) views TC as expert knowledge that is characterized as being declarative and procedural. Their view of TC is based on the notion of communicative competence since translation is considered a communicative act. They have also drawn on the notions of expert knowledge and learning processes from the neighbor disciplines of pedagogy, psychology, and language teaching. PACTE has defined TC as "the underlying system of knowledge required to translate" (2011, p. 4).

PACTE (2000) aimed to produce an empirically supported model of TC. They initially proposed a holistic model (See Figure 1 below). Drawing on relevant literature, PACTE's first model was composed of the following primary competences: communicative competence in two languages, extra-linguistic competence, psycho-physiological competence, and instrumental-professional competence. In addition to these competences, the model also included transfer competence, which was central to the four primary competences, and strategic competence, which was a complex competence with a recursive nature as it occurs at all stages of the translation process.

Figure 1: PACTE's First TC Model
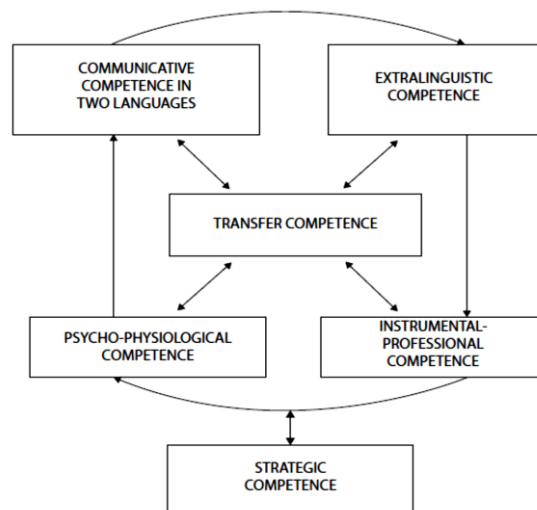
Note. Source of figure: PACTE (2017).

The initial model was subsequently modified and revised after the PACTE group conducted a series of studies in 2001 (PACTE, 2017). The results of these studies led to the modification of the model to the form shown in Figure 2 below. A notable difference between the two models is the use of sub-competence instead of competence, which was used in the 2001 model. In addition, some of the original competences were replaced or merged, while others were relocated within the model.

In the revised PACTE model, transfer competence was reconsidered first based on the realization that the translator's transfer ability is interwoven with all the sub-components of TC. This reconceptualization of transfer competence motivated the redefinition of communicative and strategic competences. Accordingly, communicative competence in two languages was replaced with bilingual sub-competence, and strategic sub-competence replaced transfer competence assuming a central role in the 2003 model. Instrumental-professional competence was divided into instrumental sub-competence and knowledge about

translation sub-competence due to the importance of knowledge of the translation process. Psycho-physiological competence was renamed as psycho-physiological components replacing the previous position of strategic competence due to its role in expert knowledge.

Figure 2: PACTE's Final TC Model
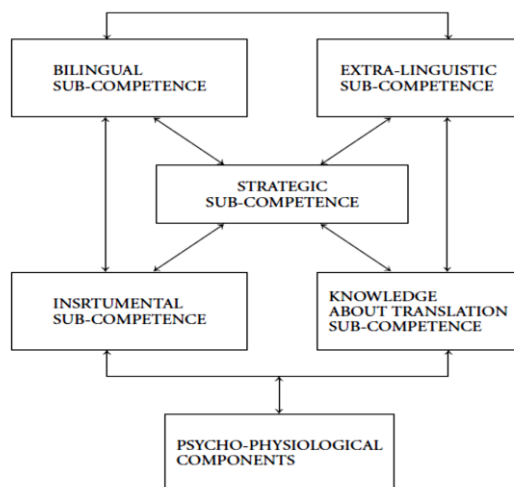
Note. Source of figure: PACTE (2003).

According to PACTE (2017), TC is a combination of procedural and declarative knowledge. Declarative knowledge equates to knowing what or knowing about notions or concepts, while procedural knowledge means knowing how, which is knowledge of how processes are carried out or implemented. Thus, the components of the PACTE model (2003) are a combination of procedural and declarative aspects of knowledge. Bilingual, instrumental, and strategic sub-competences are predominantly procedural, while extra-linguistic and knowledge about translation sub-competences are predominantly declarative. Further, each of the sub-competences, as well as the psycho-physiological components, involves several aspects or sub-components (PACTE, 2003) (See Figure 3 below).

Figure 3: Sub-Competences of PACTE's Final TC Model

Bilingual Sub-Competence	• Communicative competence in both languages including pragmatic, sociolinguistic, textual, grammatical, and lexical aspects
Extra-Linguistic Sub-Competence	• Cultural knowledge • Encyclopedic knowledge • Subject-field knowledge
Knowledge about Translation Sub-Competence	• Knowledge of the functions of translation • Knowledge of the professional practice of translation
Instrumental Sub-Competence	• Using resources and information and communication technologies
Strategic Sub-Competence	• Planning and carrying out the translation process, evaluating the translation product, activating the other sub-competences, and identifying and resolving translation problems
Psycho-Physiological Components	• Cognitive components (e.g., memory, attention) • Attitudinal components (e.g., intellectual curiosity, confidence in abilities) • Psychomotor skills (e.g., logical reasoning, creativity)

Göpferich's TC Model

Göpferich (2009) developed a TC model drawing on the PACTE model (2003) as well as relevant literature (See Figure 4 below). Her model consists of the following six competences: communicative competence in at least two languages, domain competence, tools and research competence, translation routine activation competence, psychomotor competence, and strategic competence. Göpferich's communicative competence, domain competence, tools and research competence, and strategic competence roughly correspond to PACTE's (2003) bilingual sub-competence, extra-linguistic sub-competence, instrumental sub-competence, and strategic sub-competence, respectively. Psychomotor competence involves the psychomotor skills underlying reading and writing. Göpferich's assumption was that underdeveloped psychomotor skills involve a greater cognitive load and vice versa, which means they contribute to competence development. The last competence, translation routine activation competence, is concerned with applying the transfer processes necessary to achieve "acceptable target language equivalents" (Göpferich, 2009, p. 22).

Figure 4: Göpferich's TC Model
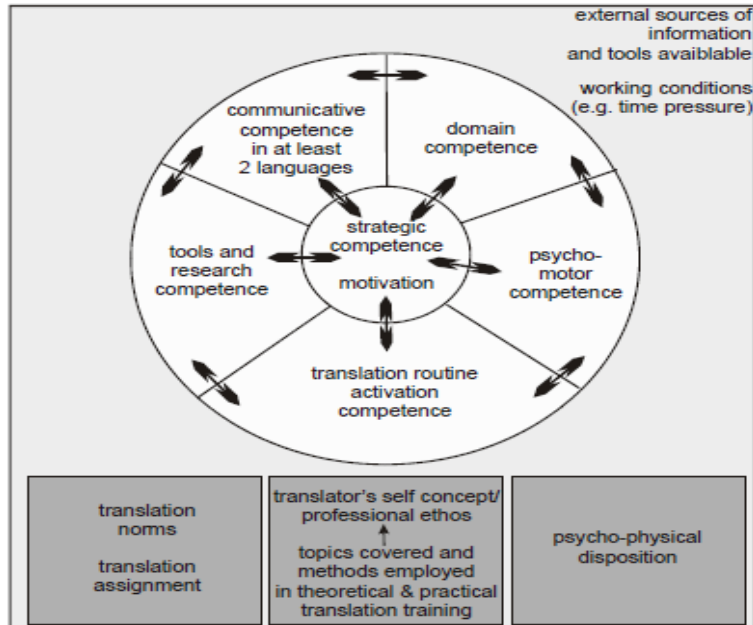
Note. Source of figure: Göpferich (2009).

The model also contains three influencing factors: (1) translation norms and the translation assignment; (2) the translator's self-concept/professional ethos; and (3) the psycho-physical disposition of the translator. These three factors interact with the six competences described above, which are themselves interconnected to one another.

EMT Expert Group's TC Models
The European Master's in Translation (EMT) is a framework of reference for translation and interpreting training programs in the European Union (EU) (Chodkiewicz, 2012). It emerged due to the growing demand for high-quality translation services by highly qualified translators and interpreters. The EMT reference framework was created in response to the EU's multilingual nature with the expansion of trade relations among EU nations, the addition of new states to the EU, the need to regulate the translation profession, and the need to identify the minimum requirements for translation training programs (EMT Expert Group, 2009). For this reason, the EU initiated the EMT reference framework project to identify and describe the tasks and competences of translators, in addition to drafting a model for translation training curricula. The project initially produced the "Wheel of Competence" (EMT, 2017) (See Figure 5).

Figure 5: EMT Expert Group's First TC Model

Note. Source of figure: EMT Expert Group (2009).

The first EMT model was composed of six sub-competences (EMT Expert Group, 2009), namely, translation service provision, language competence, intercultural competence, information mining competence, thematic competence, and technological competence. Translation service provision competence involved an interpersonal dimension, which was concerned with the role of the translator in society, including job market requirements, relationships with clients, and other aspects related to the professional practice of translation. It also involved a production dimension, which revolved around the translation process itself in terms of meeting the client's requirements, identifying and using appropriate strategies and techniques, revising, and checking for quality.

Language competence involved the ability to understand and use grammatical, lexical, idiomatic, graphic, and typographic structures and conventions in both source and target languages, while intercultural competence included two dimensions: a sociolinguistic dimension and a textual dimension. Information processing, including documentation, dealing with terminological issues, and using resources and other tools, is related to information mining competence. Thematic competence dealt with subject-field knowledge as well as the ability to search for such knowledge. Finally, technological competence addressed the use of software, multimedia, and machine translation in the translation process.

In 2017, the EMT Board published a revised and modified version of the EMT framework of reference (See Figure 6 below). The new framework was based on the original principles of EMT Expert Group, but "it also takes into account the research outcomes on translation and translator competence reported by the translation studies community and the changes that have affected the language service industry" (EMT, 2017, p. 3). The updated framework also took into consideration changes triggered by technological developments.

Figure 6: EMT Expert Group's Revised TC Model
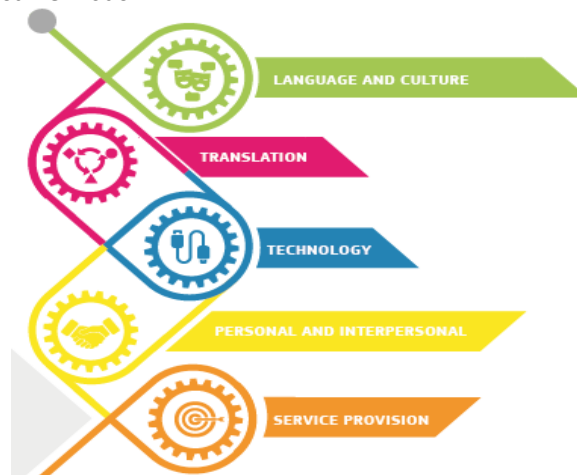
Note. Source of figure: EMT (2017).

The aim of the EMT competence framework was to establish a set of learning outcomes for affiliated translation master's degree programs (EMT, 2017). The competence framework is composed of five components that complement one another as follows (EMT, 2017):

1. Language and Culture: This component encompasses linguistic, sociolinguistic, and cultural knowledge and skills. It is assumed to be the basis for the other components of the framework. Further, this component entails that applicants to EMT Master's degree programs must be proficient in two working languages.

2. Translation: Translation competence is concerned with the transfer process, in addition to the strategic, methodological, and thematic competences involved in the translation process. It also involves awareness of specialized types of translation (e.g., localization, audiovisual translation), and the importance of machine translation applications to the translation process in terms of pre-and post-editing practices.

3. Technology: This component includes the knowledge and skills related to the use of translation technologies, machine translation applications, and computer-assisted translation tools in terms of their relevance and importance to a translation workflow.

4. Personal and Interpersonal: This competence involves the skills and abilities translators need to increase their employment opportunities, such as time management, working under pressure, dealing with stress, meeting deadlines, following instructions, working in teams, using social media, and adapting to professional environments.

5. Service Provision: The last competence is concerned with the provision of professional translation services, including awareness of market demands, dealing with clients, budgeting, project management, and adhering to professional standards and codes of ethics, to name a few.

In sum, it is clear that the TC models reviewed in this section have several elements in common; they are all componential in nature. Furthermore, although the sub-competences or components vary from one model to another, they generally agree on the sub-competences related to language proficiency, cultural knowledge, and knowledge of the translation process.

5. Translation Competence Research in the Arab World

Several studies have addressed translation teaching practices or issues in the Saudi context and the Arab world. However, TC in the Saudi context remains an under-researched area. This section reviews some relevant studies with a focus on the Saudi context.

In 2017, Al-Batineh and Bilali conducted a survey of undergraduate and graduate translation programs and translation job descriptions to determine the extent to which the curricula of translation programs in the Arab world are aligned with job market needs. Their survey involved 19 bachelor's degree and 32 master's degree programs in translation in 17 Arab countries including Saudi Arabia. The study also analyzed 50 job descriptions for both full-time and freelance translation jobs. In their analysis, Al-Batineh and Bilali (2017) adopted Kelly's competence model (2005), which, unlike the PACTE TC model (2003), is composed of seven components as follows:

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. Strategic competence
6. Interpersonal competence
7. Attitudinal or psycho-physiological competence

After classifying the courses offered in the selected programs, the analysis indicated that undergraduate translation programs emphasize language development (i.e., bilingual sub-competence) the most since it is important for students to build a strong linguistic foundation before embarking on translation training (Al-Batineh & Bilali, 2017). Emphasis on language proficiency was followed by subject area competence, which partly corresponds to PACTE's (2003) extra-linguistic sub-competence. Professional and instrumental competence ranked third after subject area competence in Al-Batineh and Bilali's (2017) analysis of undergraduate translation programs. This competence corresponds to two separate sub-competences in the PACTE TC model (2003), namely, knowledge about translation sub-competence and instrumental sub-competence.

Al-Batineh and Bilali (2017) also found that master's degree programs emphasized subject area competence over the other competences. This was followed by professional and instrumental competence and communicative and textual competence at almost equal degrees of concentration. The researchers explained that when compared to undergraduate translation programs, professional practice receives more attention at the master's level, while language-skill development receives less attention.

As for their analysis of job descriptions, Al-Batineh and Bilali (2017) found that professional and instrumental competence was in high demand since 50% of the requirements in job descriptions fell under this category. This competence was followed by communicative and textual competence, so language proficiency ranked second in the analyzed job descriptions.

The findings of Al-Batineh and Bilali (2017) indicated that there is a gap between translator training programs and market needs. In particular, they found that the competence needed the most, based on the job descriptions (i.e., professional and instrumental competence), receives very little attention in translator training programs and especially at the undergraduate level with only 10% of the courses in undergraduate translation programs allocated to developing this competence. The second major requirement in job descriptions was subject area competence, which is better addressed in the training of undergraduate translation students than professional and instrumental competence since 20% of the courses were allocated to this competence.

Finally, Al-Batineh and Bilali (2017) concluded that translator training programs need to develop their courses to meet the needs and demands of the translation job market. However, they reported a "time lag between identifying curricular needs from analyses of market context, designing a pedagogical solution (curriculum, courses), implementing the solution, and then beginning another round of analysis" (2017, p. 199). In other words, the impact of curricular and pedagogical reforms takes time. In addition, it is a cyclical process.

Another study more specific to the Saudi context was conducted by Abu-Ghararah (2017). Abu-Ghararah examined the demands of the translation industry in Saudi Arabia. Her findings indicated that the international presence the country enjoys, including its membership in international organizations (e.g., World Trade Organization), has created greater demand for high quality translation services, which was realized through academic institutions that offer translation courses or degrees.

Abu-Ghararah's survey (2017) helped identify 14 areas that need improvement in Saudi translators. Some of these areas revolve around language proficiency and communicative competence (e.g., fluency), while others are more specific (e.g., research skills, computer skills). Improvement was also needed in interpersonal skills, such as working under pressure and time management. Abu-Ghararah (2017) proposed these areas should be the point of departure for developing and improving the outputs of translation programs in Saudi Arabia. Accordingly, Abu-Ghararah (2017) concluded that there is a gap between translator training programs in Saudi Arabia and the needs of the translation industry.

A study conducted on the translation market in Yemen (Alshargabi, 2019) revealed findings similar to Abu-Ghararah (2017). Alshargabi (2019) surveyed 50 professional translators working in public and private sectors in Yemen. Her survey aimed to tap into the perceptions of professional translators regarding the sub-competences that should be developed through undergraduate translation programs. Hence, it addressed the following six categories: bilingual competence, translation competence, cultural competence, strategic competence, instrumental competence, and psycho-physiological components.

Alshargabi's findings (2019) indicated that professional translators rated bilingual competence, translation competence, cultural competence, and strategic competence as "Highly Important", while they rated instrumental competence and psycho-physiological components as moderately important. Alshargabi (2019) concluded that translation programs in Yemen need to develop the translation competences required by the job market. She also underscored the importance of regular coordination with the job market to ensure proper and continuous development of academic translator training programs.

Khoury (2016) conducted a study on the translation competence of the graduates of undergraduate translation programs in Jordan in light of the PACTE TC model (2003). Her study aimed to identify the perceptions of instructors and employers about the competence of translation graduates. In addition, she aimed to identify the perceptions of the graduates themselves regarding their own competence levels. Her sample consisted of 121 students, 30 instructors, and 42 employers. In order to conduct her study, Khoury (2016) used questionnaires, focus groups, and translation tasks. She also analyzed the study plans of five translator training programs in Jordan.

Khoury's findings (2016) indicated that employers and translation instructors generally agreed that translation graduates lacked many of the sub-competences of the PACTE TC model (2003). The two groups of participants also agreed in their evaluation of bilingual sub-competence and strategic sub-competence as the lowest two sub-competences in TC development among graduates. Half of the instructors also believed the students lacked the motivation to practice translation as a profession. Most of the employers (i.e., more than 60%), on the other hand, think graduates have the necessary motivation to practice translation. Nevertheless, Khoury (2016) reported that employers are generally more positive in their evaluation of translation graduates, while instructors tend to be more dissatisfied with the competence of graduates. The graduates, on the other hand, reported

improvement in all the sub-competences of the PACTE TC model (2003). However, evaluations of the translation tasks revealed that the graduates generally lacked competence in written translation.

Al-Faifi (2000) addressed the notion of TC among undergraduate translation students in Saudi Arabia. He conducted an evaluation of the undergraduate translation program at Imam Muhammad ibn Saud Islamic University in Abha (currently King Khaled University). To collect data for his study, Al-Faifi analyzed the study plan of the program. He also collected data from the students and faculty in the program by administering two questionnaires. His sample consisted of 11 faculty members and 173 students from different levels in the program. The questionnaires aimed at investigating the suitability of the program from the perspectives of faculty members and students. They also helped the researcher gather data about the methods used to teach translation and the content of translation courses. Finally, he investigated the performance of the students enrolled in the program by evaluating their translations of nine texts.

Al-Faifi (2000) found that the faculty at the undergraduate translation program at Imam Muhammad ibn Saud Islamic University in Abha generally lacked a clear vision of the purpose of teaching translation in the program. In general, they also believed that the program needed overall improvement with special emphasis on the inclusion of more text types, the allocation of more time to teaching translation, and the use of more appropriate teaching methods. Al-Faifi attributed these findings to the fact that none of the faculty members he surveyed specialized in translation. Additionally, 90% of them had no professional translation experience. His discussion also indicated that the faculty lacked a clear vision of the aims of the program as well as the needs of the translation job market.

As for the students' perceptions, Al-Faifi (2000) found that 87.9% of the students he surveyed were not satisfied with the program. Their dissatisfaction was mainly due to the teaching materials and methods used to teach translation, the large workload, the lack of specialized faculty members, and the types and organization of courses in the study plan. The students also generally agreed with the faculty on the need for more time to practice translation, as well as the importance of introducing more text types. The lack of proper facilities, such as language laboratories, was also cause for student dissatisfaction.

Finally, Al-Faifi's evaluation (2000) of student translations showed that the students' performance was weak containing both linguistic and non-linguistic errors. The translations also indicated the lack of awareness of the translation process, which was evidenced by the students' tendency to use literal translation, in addition to their obvious lack of familiarity with translation units, strategies, or other stages of the translation process, such as analyzing the source text or editing and revising the target text.

Al-Shethry (2010) investigated the relationship between translation strategy use and TC. She employed a psycholinguistic approach by using Think Aloud Protocols to gather data for her investigation of translation strategy use among the participants, who were five professional translators and five undergraduate translation students from King Saud University in levels 8 and 9. Her study emphasized strategy use over the investigation of TC, which is supported by her research questions. She categorized the types of strategies used by the participants and examined the frequency of their occurrence. She also compared the two groups of participants in terms of translation strategy use. Al-Shethry concluded that translation strategy use and TC correlated negatively among the participants in her study. But the researcher did not detail the procedures she employed to measure or assess TC among the participants. She only stated that "translation competence is holistically rated by the difference in translation quality produced by the two groups of subjects involved in this study" (2010, p. 19).

Ben Salamh (2012) also dealt with TC in his investigation of the second language literacy needs of undergraduate translation students at the College of Languages and Translation at King Saud University. He adopted qualitative methods by employing a needs analysis framework to identify the skills undergraduate translation students require. To gather data for his study, Ben Salamh (2012) used two instruments: interviews and a questionnaire. His participants were faculty members and students in the undergraduate translation program at King Saud University, as well as graduates from the same program. He also analyzed 20 translation job announcements and two translation job descriptions. He distributed the questionnaire to 26 undergraduate translation students in their senior year of study. The interviews, on the other hand, were conducted with all three groups of participants. He interviewed six undergraduate translation students, six professional translators who had graduated from King Saud University's undergraduate translation program, and six faculty members.

After analyzing the job descriptions and advertisements, Ben Salamh (2012) found that recruiters generally do not require certain academic qualifications for applicants to translation posts. In the interviews, both students and graduates were disappointed and, in some cases, surprised by the disregard of academic qualifications for translator jobs. Faculty members, on the other hand, attributed the lack of academic requirements in the Saudi translation job market to the common misconception that anybody who knows two languages can easily translate. Furthermore, another significant finding was that the professional translators

generally reported a gap between their university education and the professional practice of translation, which testifies to the inadequacy of the program in developing students' competence as translators.

Since the main objective of Ben Salamh's study (2012) was to investigate the second language literacy needs of translation students at the undergraduate translation program at King Saud University, the questionnaire was designed to fulfil this purpose. The questionnaire helped Ben Salamh (2012) collect data about the development of English language literacy skills among the participants based on their perceptions. Based on his analysis of the questionnaire, the students reported an overall improvement in their language skills after receiving language preparation at King Saud University.

Alkhaldi (2013) addressed the competence of legal translators in translating Saudi Laws into English in her investigation of the translation of legal language and legal terminology. She reviewed relevant literature on the subject to highlight the challenges of legal translation in terms of the unique features of legal discourse, as well as the sensitive nature of legal translation in light of the notion of equivalence. In her review, she also presented the most popular translation strategies used in legal translation.

Alkhaldi's data (2013) comprised four Saudi laws that had been translated into English by the Official Translation Department: the official entity responsible for translating laws in Saudi Arabia. The laws she analyzed were the Law of the Judiciary, Law of Procedure before Sharia Courts, Law of Criminal Procedure, and Code of Law Practice. From her analysis of the translations of these laws, Alkhaldi concluded that legal translation is particularly challenging due to the unique features of legal discourse and the use of specialized terminology, as well as the need for translators to be aware of the legal system involved. After her analysis of the translations of Saudi laws, as well as her presentation of the features of legal discourse, Alkhaldi (2013) deduced that the main components of legal translation competence are knowledge and familiarity with the legal systems in both source and target language contexts, knowledge of relevant legal terminology, and competence in target language legal discourse.

Another study conducted by Alenezi (2015) explored the needs of undergraduate translation students in three Saudi universities, in addition to examining the demands of the translation job market. He provided a comprehensive review of existing literature on TC at the time of his study. To gather data for the study, Alenezi used questionnaires and interviews. He surveyed 156 undergraduate translation students in their final year of study at King Saud University, Imam Muhammad ibn Saud Islamic University, and Effat University, 35 translation instructors at the three universities, and 50 translators from the Saudi job market. Interviews were also conducted with administrators in the three programs. In addition, Alenezi analyzed the study plans of the three programs.

The questionnaires addressed similar dimensions, namely satisfaction with teaching approaches and study materials, and the importance of different courses to the preparation of translators. In terms of satisfaction with the study materials and teaching approaches, faculty members tended to be more satisfied with both in comparison to students, who were typically neutral. Further, the three groups of participants agreed on the importance of some translation modules (e.g., translation theory, practical translation courses, developing linguistic competence in both source and target languages), while their views varied as to the usefulness of other courses (e.g., interpreting and translation memories).

Alenezi (2015) concluded that the translation programs examined in his study failed to meet the students' needs. His findings indicated that there is a gap between the outcomes of translator training programs and market demands due to the focus on practical rather than theoretical aspects, in addition to other issues like the lack of proper facilities, overpopulated classrooms, and the absence of internship modules in some programs. Finally, it is worth noting that although Alenezi linked his discussion of the students' needs to TC, he did not do so with a particular model in mind.

AlKhunainy (2015) conducted a longitudinal case study with the aim of measuring the development of TC by evaluating the progress of undergraduate translation students in levels 4, 5, and 6 at the College of Languages and Translation at Imam Muhammad ibn Saud Islamic University. The researcher's evaluation of TC was linked to the recurrence of lexical, syntactic, and textual errors in the translations of the participants. In order to collect data for her study, AlKhunainy analyzed the quality of the final examinations of students at the three levels using House's (2015) model for translation quality assessment.

AlKhunainy's conclusions (2015) were not indicative as to whether the educational level of students correlates with the development of their TC based on the frequency of errors in the data. She actually found that some error types increased in frequency as students progressed. Further, she also found that students in levels 5 and 6 did not exhibit as much progress as she had anticipated. According to AlKhunainy, this may have been due to the differences in text types since the texts that were analyzed were final exam papers. In other words, the researcher did not select the texts herself. She also attributed the unexpected results of levels 5 and 6 to the focus on transferring meaning or the weak knowledge of grammar among the

participants. Her findings indicated that "there is linear progress from level 4 to level 5 whereas a slight decline of level six performance is noticed" (2015, p. 80).

The researcher believes that there were several issues with AlKhunainy's study (2015). Due to the limitations of time and other administrative issues, which AlKhunainy discussed in the study, it was not possible for her to follow the same group of students to track their progress throughout their program of study. She maintains, "the longitudinality of the research is achieved through the three successive levels" (2015, p. 26). This means that the study was actually not longitudinal but cross-sectional (Dörnyei, 2007). In addition, another issue is related to the translation tasks upon which the evaluation was conducted. AlKhunainy was not involved in the selection of the translation tasks, which served as the basis for her evaluation of translation performance among the sample. Unfortunately, this affected her results as she reported that no significant improvement was detected between levels 5 and 6. Since the researcher was not involved in selecting the texts, the lack of any indication of improvement, or a lack thereof, could be misleading.

6. Conclusion

This paper reviewed relevant literature on translator training, which has been the subject of research and investigation to keep up with the growing number of translation programs around the world. Many studies examined translation programs and their relevance to the demands of the job market. These studies reached several conclusions, including the existence of a pedagogical gap in translator pedagogy and the gap between translator training and the requirements of the job market, as well as other deficiencies such as the lack of qualified and specialized translator trainers.

Literature on TC was also examined. Several TC definitions and models were presented. Most of the research in this domain is relatively recent, which is an indication that much of this area remains unchartered territory. The studies reviewed in Section 5 above have contributed to the literature on translation pedagogy in the Saudi context. However, although some of them claimed to investigate TC either implicitly or explicitly, none of them did so with a TC model in mind. Some of the studies addressed TC from a limited perspective. Al-Faifi (2000), for instance, examined TC with the purpose of evaluating a particular academic program. In Alkhaldi (2013), however, the focus was on competence in the domain of legal translation alone. Her investigation was restricted to the competence of translators of legal language and legal terminology. Furthermore, her findings were based on a review of relevant literature and the analysis of the translations of Saudi laws.

Al-Shethry (2010) emphasized translation strategy use in relation to TC. However, her focus was the psychology of translation as she adopted Think Aloud Protocols in her investigation of translation strategies. AlKhunainy (2015) also claimed to investigate TC in her study of undergraduate translation students. But she emphasized the use of House's (2015) translation quality assessment model and measured TC in terms of error frequency, which limits TC to linguistic competence failing to take account of other important aspects (e.g., PACTE, 2003). Finally, some of the studies that dealt with TC adopted needs analysis as a framework (Alenezi, 2015; Ben Salamh, 2012) instead of adopting a TC model. Their main objective was to identify the needs of undergraduate translation students in Saudi Arabia.

The review also showed that although TC and its acquisition have been investigated in different institutions and on different populations in different countries, it remains under-investigated in the Saudi context. This is evidenced by the small number of studies that have addressed this notion, as reviewed in Section 5 above. Hence, this review should motivate further research in this area.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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