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**FROM STUDENT TRANSLATOR TO PROFESSIONAL:
TRANSITION FROM UNIVERSITY TO THE WORKPLACE**

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**Thesis submitted to the School of Graduate Studies
and Research of the University of Ottawa
as part of the requirements for the degree of**

M.A. Translation

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INTRODUCTION

Translation is a profession. This statement may seem banal and obvious today. However, as late as 1978, the International Federation of Translators felt the need to assert this point by making it the theme of its triennial international congress (Horguelin 1978). And, although most translators - if not translation clients - have now come to accept this assertion with pride, even they may have some difficulty in identifying just what it is that makes translation a profession. The existence of university-level professional training? Of professional associations? In fact, the activities of both training programs and associations are shaped in large part by the professional nature of translation. The dictionary definition of "profession" is too general to be of much use here, since the word is often used as a synonym for occupation. In fact, the notion of "profession" appears to revolve around the rights and, in particular, the responsibilities involved in carrying out the work. This idea comes out clearly in a background document to a study of professional organizations carried out for the Ontario Attorney-General in 1980. Kenneth Swan, a labour relations scholar at Queen's University, defined professions as follows:

areas of employment where individual work performance is controlled by ethical responsibilities and not merely by directives from supervisors. Whether these responsibilities are imposed by long-hallowed tradition like the Oath of Hippocrates, by statute or by mutual agreement among the practitioners themselves is not important. [These responsibilities stem from] the existence of independent standards of performance

transcending the day-to-day direction of the workplace... (Swan 1979, 1)

Thus a professional clearly has certain responsibilities that are not set out directly by the employer or client, as the case may be. Moreover, as Swan mentions elsewhere in his paper, this professional responsibility is ongoing and unmitigated by other factors. Arbitration decisions show that "professionals are expected to display a special standard of performance under all circumstances, and adversity will enhance that expectation rather than diminish it" (Swan 1979, 11). In other words, poor working conditions, fatigue or distractions from the work at hand do not in any way excuse a professional from carrying out his responsibilities in a professional manner. Moreover, the professional's typical performance must clearly be above minimum standards, in order to allow for some slippage in performance in difficult situations.

Along with these weighty responsibilities, professionals have certain rights as well. In particular, they can refuse to perform work because of ethical considerations, something more easily done by independent professionals than salaried ones, of course. Where there is a conflict between the work at hand and professional standards of performance, the professional has "a right and a duty" to object, to point out the impropriety of a suggested course of action and, if appropriate, to refuse to carry out the assignment (Swan 1979, 15).

The "ethical responsibilities" and "independent standards of performance" mentioned in the definition above vary from

profession to profession, naturally. How do they apply to translation? How does a translator come to understand the standards of the profession and his ensuing rights and responsibilities? Not surprisingly, the answers to these questions are not clear-cut. However, various writers on translation have made the link between responsibility and professionalism. Fred Glaus, for one, stated that "le traducteur de notre âge sait, si ce n'est que d'instinct, que pour être professionnel il doit être conscient des exigences de sa profession et en tenir compte dans sa pratique professionnelle" (Glaus 1976, 3). And, more recently, an experienced reviser wrote that: "Of all the qualities a good translator must possess, probably the most valuable is a highly developed sense of responsibility" (Graham 1989, 60). Thus both the awareness of his professional obligations and the will and capacity to carry them out are required on the part of the translator.

During the translation process, these obligations are reflected in the endless decisions that must be made by translators and are not directly dictated by the client or employer. Peter Newmark, among others, emphasizes the "choices and decisions" that beset translators in dealing with their texts (Newmark 1981, 19). As he indicates, the translator must assess the setting and intention of the text, the quality of the writing, the destination of the target text, the translator's own purpose, the various types of meaning and so on, before deciding on an appropriate translation. Beyond the text itself, there are

many other decisions involved as well: those of direction of the translation, of field of translation and of deadlines, for example. Translators have a responsibility to translate only in languages and fields in which they are competent, and to ensure that reasonable deadlines are set and then met. It is decision-making of various types that raises translation to the status of a profession. Such decision-making is in keeping with Swan's definition of "profession", which stresses that the work performance of a professional is governed by independent standards "transcending the day-to-day direction of the workplace."

The decisions to be made are often complex and there are grey areas, especially where quality is concerned. For example, how faithful should the translation be to the original text? As we know, views on the appropriate degree of fidelity have changed through the ages. It is generally accepted today that a good translation of a non-literary text should reflect as closely as possible both the content and the style of the original and should therefore be neither extremely literal nor overly free (Newmark 1981, 132). A more specific definition of translation quality is that of Jean Darbelnet, who identified five criteria which a translation should meet:

Essentiellement une traduction doit, pour être à l'abri de tout reproche : 1) transmettre exactement le message de l'original; 2) observer les normes grammaticales de son temps; 3) être idiomatique; 4) être dans le même ton que l'original (équivalence stylistique); 5) être pleinement intelligible pour le lecteur qui appartient à une autre culture (adaptation culturelle) (Darbelnet 1970, 89).

Thus, according to Darbelnet, a good translation must be accurate, grammatically correct, idiomatic, expressed in the same tone as the original and adapted to the target audience.¹

It is clear from these prescriptions for high-quality translation that the professional translator must make many decisions based on the linguistic context and the wider communication situation. As has often been pointed out, a translation can rarely convey the message of the original fully, since perfect equivalence is impossible in many cases. The translator's task, then, is to keep the loss of information and divergences between the two versions to an absolute minimum. In addition to reproducing the information contained in the original, the translator must adapt the text to the genius of the target language and to the style and other requirements imposed by the destination.

There are many instances, even in non-literary translation, when "accuracy" is not enough. In his 1987 article "The Ethics of Ineffective Translation", Lars Berglund explores one of these cases: publicity material intended for foreign markets. Berglund points out that where the translator renders the information accurately but without adapting it to the target language and audience, he does the unsuspecting client a disservice because

¹ The federal government, in two documents for its in-house translators (La traduction au service du pays : doctrine, conception générale et méthode (1978) and Reviser's Handbook (1985)) takes up Darbelnet's criteria, but limits the number to four: accuracy, correctness, idiomaticity and audience appropriateness.

the text will not effectively promote the product. Ironically, the alert and competent translator may find his efforts thwarted by clients who object to the translator's "taking liberties" with the text. The question then arises of how much obligation the translator has, especially one being paid by the word, to adapt the text and, if necessary, to convince the client of the necessity of doing so. And what does the translator do when a client insists on in-house terminology which may be less than ideal in the translator's view? These situations and many others involve compromises between ethical standards and the realities of the workplace. The decisions involved are all the more difficult because of the short time available in which to make them.

It is unclear whether a translator can be held liable for problems arising from an error in his translation. In an article entitled "A Translator's Liability in Negligence", Richard Fidler noted that many clients (including the federal Translation Bureau) include in translation contracts disclaimer clauses stating that the client is not responsible for loss or damage incurred as a result of the translation. To date, there seem not to have been any court rulings in Canada on the specific issue of translators' liability. However, legal opinions on professional liability in general suggest that, while a translator cannot guarantee a "perfect" translation, he or she is expected to exercise a degree of skill consistent with the standard of the profession (Fidler 1990, 3).

Professional translators therefore require a thorough understanding of their rights and responsibilities. How then does a translator develop this vital professional consciousness? He may, in fact, be "instinctively" aware of his responsibilities, as Glaus suggests: he may conduct himself in a professional manner without being able to list his ethical responsibilities or describe his approach to accuracy in theoretical terms. Nonetheless, this sense of professional responsibility must have been acquired along the way.

Vladimir Nekrassoff, in a 1976 article, indicated three main influences in the development of professional consciousness: university training, the workplace and the professional association. Perhaps the most important influence will be the workplace. Here the translator will constantly be faced with choices involving his rights and responsibilities. Professional associations also play a role: professional consciousness is "profoundly influenced and reinforced (. . .) by members coming together regularly within the occupational associational network" (Nekrassoff 1976, 4). The associations' certification procedure, publications and activities all contribute to a greater awareness of and respect for professional standards.

However, the process of understanding and living up to one's professional obligations should be initiated in the formal training that most new translators now pass through. Although most of the decisions made in a university training program will be limited to producing the most appropriate translation for an

assigned text, new graduates and even students may be offered work which is beyond their competence or which is unethical in some respect. At least one professor has called for universities to play a more conscious role in helping students develop professional ethics (Gouanvic 1990, 47-8).

Clearly, one important way to ensure high standards in the profession is through co-operation among employers, professional associations and universities. Attempts, though far from perfect, have been made to forge links among these three. For example, the professional associations, in particular the Société des traducteurs du Québec (STQ), have developed ties with individual universities and with the Canadian Association of Schools of Translation (CAST). In addition, a number of universities work with public- and private-sector employers to arrange practicums for their students. Moreover, professional association conferences and symposiums generally include presentations on training and on developments in the workplace. A good example of co-operation has been the organization of the now-cancelled Summit Conference on Translation in Canada (scheduled for May 1991) by representatives of the federal Translation Bureau, the professional associations, the federal government translators' union and the universities.

In all these forums, many of the same views are heard repeatedly. In particular, professionals and employers tend to feel that students are not adequately prepared for the realities of the profession, while translation educators often find that

the translation industry lacks a true understanding of university translator training and sets unrealistic expectations. In order to reconcile these two perspectives, what is needed is a study of translator training as it relates to expectations placed on working translators. To this end, the present study looks at training provided by Canadian universities, trends in the profession and the transition from student to professional translator.

A comparison between developments in the profession and university programs raises a number of questions. What have the major trends been in the translation profession and in translator training in Canada over the past two decades? How has university training been perceived by employers? Why have some stated needs not been reflected in university programs? Finally, what changes could be made to increase co-operation among employers, professional associations and universities and help ease the transition between training and the professional world?

These issues are dealt with only haphazardly, if at all, in the literature on university translator training. The body of writings on translator training, which consists mainly of articles in journals, proceedings and collections, does not form a coherent whole. Most of the articles are short and superficial, and, while they deal with a wide variety of aspects, they do not treat specific issues in depth. In addition, there is considerable overlap - views already expressed are often restated - and the voices heard are mainly those of educators.

In short, the documentation dealing with translator training tends to be one-sided and to be lacking in depth and coherence.

While the question of whether translation can be taught is no longer an issue in these writings today, as it was in the 1960s and 1970s, and while it seems accepted that formal training is beneficial in principle, there is still considerable debate about what the aims of translation programs should be. Some writers feel that translator training should concentrate on broad general knowledge and language mastery (Darbelnet 1981). According to others, the role of translation programs is to turn out a "semi-finished product": the graduate should be able to write correctly and transfer the message without major errors, but the process of becoming a full-fledged translator takes place on the job (Horguelin 1975: 50). Still others - particularly employers - feel that the aims of university translation programs should be more ambitious. Not only must graduates have acquired basic translation skills, but they should also be able to work under pressure, produce at a cost-effective level and be familiar with various computerized tools (Dubuc 1987).

Opinions are even more divergent with respect to program content. Indeed, issues such as how much emphasis should be placed on linguistics, translation theory or literature, whether students should develop a specialization through in-depth study of certain subject areas, and how and to what extent practical skills are to be developed, are controversial among educators and professionals alike. Decisions in these areas seem to depend on

a variety of factors. These include the level of the program (graduate or undergraduate), the main emphasis (to produce professional translators or to complement a literature or language program) and the efforts made to adapt training to the changing expectations facing translation graduates as they enter the profession (the links the program maintains with employers and the profession). This question of adaptation is a key one, since when all is said and done, professional programs such as translation aim to produce graduates who have the skills required by employers.

In order for a study of the interplay between training and the profession to be effective, it must be limited in scope. The emphasis here, therefore, is on Canadian translator training programs and the Canadian market, since the situation in this country is quite different from that in the United States and in Europe. Moreover, it seems appropriate to concentrate on the period beginning in the 1960s, when the demand for translators in Canada began to increase greatly and the first undergraduate translation programs were established. The study is restricted to written translation, chiefly between English and French. The reason for this limitation is that translation involving English and French accounts for 95% of the volume of translation in Canada, and it is this market for which student translators are being trained in Canadian universities. Moreover, there has been little formal training available in Canada to date for interpretation or multilingual translation. Finally, only under-

graduate degree programs in translation have been examined in depth here, since this is the type of program through which the vast majority of new translators receive their formal training.

The information for this thesis comes from various sources, in particular articles appearing in professional magazines and conference proceedings. Additional material for the chapter on industry trends was derived from a survey of job ads sent out by the Association of Translators and Interpreters of Ontario. For the chapter on training, much of the information is based on university calendars (up to 1989-90), translation teaching manuals and interviews with a certain number of translation professors. Finally, interviews with a number of translation service managers and recent graduates, along with information from the professional associations, supplement the material in the third chapter.

The first chapter presents the major trends in the profession over the past two decades, and the second describes the development of translator training and the principal issues involved. Although the historical perspective is not neglected, the focus is on present and developing trends and the issues underlying them. These two chapters provide the necessary background for the third chapter, which examines the meeting ground of the profession, the marketplace and training, and the transition of new translators from formal training to the workplace.

On the basis of this material, it is possible to address the questions raised earlier in this introduction regarding industry expectations, the universities' response to marketplace trends and the degree of co-operation among the various parties concerned.

CHAPTER 1 TRENDS IN THE PROFESSION AND MARKETPLACE

INTRODUCTION

In order to examine the role of formal translator training in easing the student's transition into the workplace, we first need to look at trends in the profession and the marketplace. The profession and the marketplace, while obviously closely linked, cannot be considered synonymous. Whereas the profession represents almost an ideal - the translator and his work in the abstract - the marketplace is a set of very concrete realities, involving the expectations and constraints of employers and clients. For this reason, professional obligations may sometimes conflict with marketplace obligations. Moreover, the profession tends to be considered a single, homogeneous entity, symbolized by the professional associations, which attempt to provide a collective voice for the profession and ensure high standards. In contrast, the marketplace is composed of four main types of work settings, each with its particular characteristics.

The first type of work setting - the traditional one - is the large translation service that exists in the public sector and, to a lesser extent, the private sector. The prime example is the federal Translation Bureau, the largest Canadian employer of translators, with a staff of some 1300. The Bureau features a structured work environment, where beginning translators are closely supervised, and has a very substantial terminology service. Other major employers of translators include the

governments of New Brunswick, Quebec and Ontario, Crown corporations such as Via Rail and the CBC, and large companies like Bell Canada. Translation services in these organizations have a number of translators on staff, may employ terminologists and generally provide some on-the-job training. The second type of work setting is the small translation service found in smaller Crown corporations, in many companies and in institutions ranging from school boards to not-for-profit organizations. These services often consist of only one or two translators, who generally work without revision, and no terminology section. Third, many translators work for translation firms, where they may be engaged as employees, under exclusive contract or as freelancers doing the occasional text. These firms are quite varied in nature and size: some are run by professional translators while others are a sideline of a language-teaching or communications company; some provide terminological assistance and documentation, and may check and even revise translators' work, while others act merely as "post-office boxes", channelling work from customers to translators and back. Finally, a large and growing number of translators work free-lance, doing contracts for one or more clients, or for translation firms. Each of these work settings is quite different from the others and has advantages and disadvantages for the translators. Clearly, the marketplace is anything but uniform.

I. THE PROFESSION

This lack of identity between the profession and the marketplace exists in all professions. Owing to the potential for conflict between professional and contractual obligations, many collective agreements (bargained by a variety of entities ranging from traditional trade unions to voluntary associations with internally developed ethical codes) now include clauses relating to professional status and ethics. For example, the Association of Professional Engineers of Ontario and the Canadian Association of University Teachers have both felt the need to protect professional status in collective agreements, although the clauses do not, of course, confer legal immunity or diminish the obligations of members to meet their duties and responsibilities (Swann 1979, 3).

While professional associations in the field of translation have never been involved in bargaining, they are obviously interested in professional status and professional ethics: their aims are to promote the interests and development of the profession and its members and to protect the public interest. A primary means of achieving both these goals is through self-regulation, on the one hand, by ensuring that members learn about and respect the rights and ethical responsibilities of their occupation, and on the other, by promoting a high level of competence. The former activity is mentioned even at the international level: the first purpose assigned to professional

organizations of translators under the Nairobi Recommendation¹ is "to define the rules and duties which should govern the exercise of the profession" (Recommendation, paragraph 7). Canadian associations also reflect this goal, mainly through their codes of ethics and disciplinary provisions. The Code of Ethics outlines the professional responsibilities or rules of conduct governing the way in which members exercise their profession. The codes of the STQ and ATIO are quite similar, their major provisions being that members must accept responsibility for their work, not divulge privileged information, work only in fields and languages in which they are competent, refrain from unfair competition and co-operate with colleagues. In addition, the STQ Code stipulates that members must endeavour to secure conditions conducive to the careful execution of their work and must support the organizations representing their profession. ATIO's Code mentions an important right: to give approval to the final version of a text or to have the translator's name removed if the work has been changed. Both associations provide for disciplinary procedures and sanctions for violations of the Code of Ethics by members. In practice, however, these disciplinary measures are little used: the ATIO Discipline Committee, for example, has not dealt with any complaints in the three years since its creation (Kremer 1990, 3).

¹Recommendation on the Legal Protection of Translators and Translations and the Practical Means to Improve the Status of Translators, adopted at the UNESCO General Conference in Nairobi, Kenya, in 1976.

For ensuring a high level of competence of their members, Canadian professional associations have a more concrete tool: the certification procedure. This also is aimed at protecting the public against "les abus qui se produisent dans la profession, abus qui sont le fait de traducteurs improvisés, incompetents and non consciencieux" by providing "un moyen qui lui permette de distinguer entre l'amateur et le professionnel" (Kerpan 1981, I). To become certified members, translators must possess relevant academic training and experience, or extensive experience, and must pass a nationally set exam for their language combinations. The associations generally have at least one other level of membership: associate membership, which is sanctioned in the STQ by an exam establishing aptitude, but is granted by ATIO on the basis of academic qualifications or experience. Some associations further distinguish between student and associate members, although both are considered to be serving a sort of apprenticeship for certified membership.² Only certified members are considered to be professionals. This is indicated clearly by the STQ's definition of a certified member as "a professional with a university degree or extensive experience" (STQ Directory 1988-1989, III).

The certification of professional competence through a national exam distinguishes translators' associations from other

² Both groups are described in the ATIO By-laws, for example, as "members aspiring to the title of Certified Member" (Art. 4.04, 4.06), and associate members are normally expected to pass the certification exam within five years.

professional associations like the Musicians' Union, ACTRA and the Writers' Union. The latter are in fact trade associations, which set fee schedules or minimal acceptable contracts for their members (Gordon 1990, 2-3).

Although the certification procedure goes a long way toward guaranteeing the competence of the professionals who have earned this designation, it certainly does not do so completely. First, certification is granted once and for all on the basis of one test: in other words, competence once verified is presumed to last a lifetime, which may well not be the case. Second, certified members may well work in languages for which they are not certified, and fields of expertise are not linked to language combinations (Bélisle 1990, 4). Third, even the distinction between certified and associate status is not as clear as it might at first appear. For example, a member may hold both types of membership at the same time in different branches of the profession (such as translation and terminology). These are issues the associations may need to address, particularly now that they are realizing a larger goal, that of professional recognition.

Professional recognition has been achieved in Ontario and New Brunswick through private members' bills, and is imminent in Quebec, pending acceptance by the Office des professions. This status means that, while anyone may call himself a translator and work as such, only those who pass the associations' accreditation

exam may use the designation "Certified Translator."³ Although the implications of professional recognition are not yet clear, the professional associations hope that it will further contribute to the protection of the public and, in particular, raise the status of the profession. ATIO's Professional Recognition Committee, in its 1985 report, foresaw a number of advantages. The Committee felt that professional recognition would protect clients and qualified translators by offering a minimal guarantee of quality, enable independent translators to be recognized as "professionals", provide a means of evaluating work and negotiating working conditions and, finally, increase membership and participation in ATIO by improving its public image (ATIO 1985, 5).

Ontario and Quebec, where the majority of Canadian translators work, have had full-fledged provincial associations since the 1960s, and the roots of these associations go back many more years (Delisle 1987). Over the past twenty years, six more provinces and one territory have established provincial associations, bringing to nine the number of professional associations under the national umbrella organization known as the Canadian Translators and Interpreters Council (CTIC).⁴

³ The STQ restricts the designation "Member" to certified members, while ATIO restricts the use of "certified" translator, terminologist, etc).

⁴ These associations are the Association of Translators and Interpreters of Nova Scotia, the Corporation of Translators and Interpreters of New Brunswick, the Société des Traducteurs du Québec, the Association of Translators and Interpreters of Ontario, the Association of Translators and Interpreters of

Although the number of professional associations and their memberships have grown, there are still far more translators outside these organizations than within them. Moreover, these voluntary associations have no statutory powers and depend on their volunteer executives to make progress in any of the areas of their mandates.

II. THE MARKETPLACE

While the profession is still finding its feet, the translation market has been changing rapidly in Canada. Certain major trends have affected not only the level of demand and the typical work setting, but also the expectations and requirements of employers and customers. These trends can be analysed to give a clearer picture of the evolution of translation in Canada since the 1960s.

As the 1960s approached, translation in Canada was still a small-scale activity: the federal Translation Bureau was by far the dominant employer, demand was increasing gradually, and only a small percentage of translation work was contracted out. The early 1960s saw a phase of intense growth which accelerated in the 1970s. To meet the growing demand, translation services sprang up in provincial governments, large firms and even many smaller organizations. In the 1980s, the industry continued to

Manitoba, the Association of Translators and Interpreters of Saskatchewan, the Alberta Association of Translators and Interpreters, the Society of Translators and Interpreters of British Columbia and the Interpreters/Translators Society of the NWT.

evolve, in particular with respect to the proportion of translation work being contracted out and the introduction of new technologies. As a result of increasing demand, the diversification of work settings and computerization, the expectations of employers and clients have risen. Translators are now called upon to be better qualified, more autonomous and more versatile. These various changes and the impact they have had on translators will be examined here.

A. Growing demand

The most important trend in translation over the past thirty years has been growing demand. In response to changes in legislation and the political climate in general, translation services have been established or greatly expanded in both the public and private sectors.

In the federal government, the rise in translation demand in the 1960s and 1970s was reflected in both the Translation Bureau's production (the number of words translated rose from some 90 million in 1960 to over 250 million in 1977-78) and its staff size (339 translators in 1964-65 compared to 1,899 in 1977-78) (Delisle 1984a, 69). This increase was due in large part to the adoption in 1969 of the Official Languages Act, which gave the public the right to be served in either language when dealing with federal departments or agencies and gave public servants the right, within certain limits, to work in either official language. In the late 1970s, owing to the new climate of

budgetary restraint, staff expansion came to an end. Through attrition and lay-offs, the Bureau's staff has declined to around 1300 and production has stabilized at around 290 million words per year. However, the quantity of translation requested has continued to rise, and the Bureau has taken various steps to meet the demand, the most important being to substantially increase the proportion of texts sent out to contractors. And, despite the reductions in human resources, the Bureau remains the largest single employer of translators in Canada. Moreover, according to a report prepared for the Department of the Secretary of State in 1988, the Translation Bureau will need an additional 600 staff translators by 1993-94 to offset the expected turnover and to keep up with anticipated increases in in-house demand estimated at 5% per year (Charpentier 1988, 9).

Demand at other levels of government and in the private sector has grown from almost nil in the early 1960s to where it now exceeds federal demand. While there is some translation activity in every region of Canada, most of the growth in demand outside the Translation Bureau has been in the provinces of Quebec, Ontario and New Brunswick.

In Quebec, as was the case at the federal level, language legislation provided the impetus for increasing translation demand in both the public and private sectors. As part of Quebec's efforts to assert itself culturally and politically in the 1960s, Bill 63, passed in 1969, promoted French as the language of work in the public and private sectors. More

concrete steps were taken in 1974 with the adoption of the Official Language Act, which made French the official language of Quebec, and in 1977, with passage of Bill 101 - the Charter of the French Language - which designated French as the only official language of the National Assembly and of courts under provincial jurisdiction, and imposed francization programs on firms. Even before Bill 101 was passed, the need for translators in the province was increasing. In 1977, the president of the STQ estimated that demand had risen some 300% during the previous two years, and by that year some two hundred Quebec firms had created their own translation services (Bruce 1977, 1). In the late 1970s, the volume of translation continued to increase, especially in the private sector as the francization campaign progressed. From 1971 to 1981, Statistics Canada reported nearly a fourfold increase (from 890 to 3,175) in the number of translators and interpreters in Quebec (Ouellet Simard 1983, 10).

In Ontario as well, translation demand has risen, particularly in the past decade. Demand in the public sector has increased mainly as a result of federal bilingualism legislation and the provincial government's commitment to providing French-language services. In 1968 the government decided to provide certain services in French and hired its first French translators. A decade later, a decision that legal services in the province should be available in French led to the creation of a separate translation section to translate legislation and the rules of civil procedure. These new objectives, accompanied by

growing demand from the various departments, led to a threefold increase (from 1.5 million to 4.5 million words per year) in the volume of translation between the mid-seventies and mid-eighties (Bastarache 1985, 74). Demand for translation into French was further stimulated in 1986 by passage of the French Language Services Act, which guarantees French services wherever there is a sufficient population of Franco-Ontarians. In 1988, the government's French translation section, consisting of 21 in-house revisers and translators and many free lances, translated nearly 7 million words, with an additional 1 million words being translated by the English section (de Bruyn 1989, 56, 58). Demand is rising in the private sector in Ontario as well, particularly in the industrial south. With a high level of private sector activity, the volume of both in-house and contract translation, mainly from English to French and especially in specialized fields, has grown considerably. Thus, although Ottawa continues to be the major centre of translation activity, Toronto has been closing the gap as the federal Translation Bureau's share of the market has declined.

While the vast majority of Canada's translators work in either Quebec or Ontario, there is also significant demand for translation in New Brunswick. Here again, the government's commitment to providing services in both official languages has played a key role. As early as 1967, the provincial government set up services for both general government translation and legal translation. Two years later, translation demand was further

stimulated with the adoption of the province's Official Languages Act, which gave English and French equal status in all areas under the jurisdiction of the New Brunswick Legislature. The provincial government's central translation service (excluding the legislative debates and the legal translation section) was expected to produce some nine million words in 1988-89 through a combination of in-house and free-lance services (Maillet 1989, 16). Although the public sector accounts for the major share of the translation volume, the University of Moncton and some private firms also employ translators and contract out work (King 1987, 73).

Demand - and consequently the number of full-time translators - is much lower in other parts of Canada. In the Yukon, Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island and Nova Scotia, there are few or no in-house translation positions (apart from the federal Translation Bureau's regional offices in Charlottetown and Halifax) and only Nova Scotia has a professional association.⁵ British Columbia and Alberta similarly have only a small number of full-time translation positions (some twenty in B.C. and approximately eight in Alberta), although a number of translators have full-time or part-time free-lance work (Juanita Miller and Anne Godin 1989, personal communications). In Manitoba and the Northwest Territories, recognition of minority language rights has made translation an important activity. In

⁵ Approval of the Nova Scotia association's request to join CTIC was announced in the February 1991 issue of Action CTIC.

Manitoba, both the federal and provincial governments have translation services, employing a total of some forty translators (Bouchard 1987, 50). In the Northwest Territories, the Department of Culture and Communications employs around thirty full-time translators/ interpreters and many more on a part-time basis. While much of the work in these various areas is from English to French, there is also a demand for translation between English and a wide variety of other languages - in particular, Asian languages in the West and native languages in the Northwest Territories.

In conclusion, demand for translation in Canada has increased tremendously since 1960, and is still rising. Growth was strongest in the late 1960s and the 1970s; after slowing somewhat because of the recession in the early 1980s, the market seems now to have regained its strength. According to the Charpentier report, translation demand for 1987-88 in Canada totalled some 750 million words and was expected to continue rising by several percentage points per year (Charpentier 1988, 8). Much of this demand now comes from the private sector. For 1988-89, demand outside the federal government was estimated at 470 million words, involving some 3500 translators (Charpentier 1988, Annexe 1). As a result, the federal Translation Bureau, while still a major player, no longer dominates the industry as it did earlier, when the majority of translators were trained by the Bureau and influenced by its approach to translation. The market has decentralized geographically somewhat as well, though

the main centres of translation activity in Canada are still Ottawa, Montreal, Toronto and Quebec City.

Finally, while demand continues to be greatest from English to French, the proportion of other language combinations has increased. Greater use of French as a language of work in the federal government has increased the demand for translation from French into English. In the Translation Bureau, the percentage of the workload from French to English doubled to over 10% between 1974 and 1984 (SOS 1984, 12). Similarly, in Quebec, owing to francization in the private sector and a greater presence sought by both government and industry in the Anglophone world outside Quebec, French-English translators in the province now account for some 20% of the profession, as compared with 5% twenty-five years ago (Plaice 1987, 29). Foreign language translation, which represents a significant share of the market in the West, is growing in Ontario as well. The two main reasons seem to be the multilingual services set up by the provincial and municipal governments for immigrants and the increased interest on the part of the private sector in marketing products for export (Burgers 1987, 30).

The primary effect of all these changes is that new translators are coming into a much larger and more diversified market. In fact, rising demand is leading to a shortage of qualified translators, with this shortage being felt most acutely in the growing contract market.

B. Increased contracting out

One of the main ways in which the industry has diversified is through increased contracting out. In the Translation Bureau, for example, the volume of work contracted out has risen steadily. From less than 3% of the Bureau's total translation volume in the 1950s, the percentage rose to around 20% in the 1970s. The proportion of work contracted out increased again in the late 1980s to over 30% (some 90 million words)⁶, and is expected to reach 50% by 1993-94. Moreover, an equal if not greater amount is contracted out by departments directly, without going through the Department of the Secretary of State. Provincial governments and private sector organizations also contract out a large part of their workload. In the Ontario government, for example, approximately two thirds of the translation volume is currently handled by translation firms or free lances (de Bruyn 1989, 57). Similarly, the New Brunswick government fulfils some 40% of its translation needs through contracting out (Maillet 1989, 16). Private firms and smaller public-sector employers usually contract out part or all of their translation volume.

While organizations may send work outside when faced with temporary or ongoing overloads or because they do not have any staff translators, the main incentive for contracting out is to reduce expenses. One reason contracting out is considered more economical is that salaries of in-house translators have risen

⁶ In 1989-90, the federal government contracted out 32% of its work, compared with 19% in 1986-87 (SOS 1990).

substantially, whereas free-lance rates have not. The average cost of in-house translation has been estimated at between 40¢ and 65¢ per word, which seems very high when compared directly with the rates in the contracts market (15¢ to 25¢ per word). However, such a comparison is misleading, since the in-house price includes not only salaries, but also overhead expenses such as rent, equipment and documentation (Lefèbvre 1985, 95). In addition, as the federal Translation Bureau now acknowledges, the cost of contracting out must take into account quality control, contract administration costs and decreased in-house production owing to revision of contract work (Landry 1987, 16). Although accurate cost comparison is thus difficult, contracting out, along with controlling demand and raising productivity, is an accepted method of reducing translation costs.

The growing contract market has naturally sparked an increase in the number of free-lance translators and translation firms. For example, according to STQ estimates, approximately one third of Quebec translators in 1986 were either independent professionals or employees or owners of translation firms (STQ 1986, 4). That proportion is no doubt on the rise, since the volume of work contracted out is increasing. Many free lances have voluntarily left in-house positions for greener pastures or have been laid off as a result of cost-cutting measures. Others are new translation graduates who have been unwilling or unable to find work in a translation service. Still others have no formal training or experience but have turned to free-lance

translation because demand is strong. While this trend toward contracting out has created additional opportunities for experienced translators, it does not necessarily benefit new translators. Free-lancing does not provide a beginning translator with the necessary on-the-job training through revision.

An important consequence of the increasing contract market is a shortage of competent free-lance translators. Already, translation firms are having difficulty hiring the experienced translators they look for in order to be competitive. However, they are reluctant to hire fresh graduates because their narrow profit margins call for productive, reasonably autonomous translators. The federal government, as it continues to increase the proportion of its texts translated externally, has become keenly aware of the problem. The number of contractors available is already insufficient, and the shortage is expected to grow more acute in the coming years owing to rising translation demand from all sources (Charpentier 1988, 1). Given the lack of qualified free lances and the fact that staff translators are often best placed to meet an organization's specific needs, many organizations have chosen to maintain their in-house services and to increase cost-effectiveness, in particular through the use of computerized tools.

C. Computerization

New technologies, such as terminology banks, word processors and, to a lesser extent so far, machine-translation systems, have transformed the translator's workplace in just a few years. Even before word processors became common, data bases were being used to assist translators in their work. The data bases most familiar to Canadian translators are large centralized bilingual terminology banks such as Termium and the Banque de terminologie du Québec (BTQ), developed by the federal and Quebec governments, respectively. Now translators working on microcomputers can use commercial software to create their own shared or personal terminology files. Finally, bibliographic and documentary data bases, which can also increase translators' efficiency and accuracy, are slowly starting to become more widely used.

A computer application that has had an even greater impact than data bases on the way translators work is wordprocessing. The changeover to wordprocessing has been rapid, beginning only in the mid 1970s. In the Translation Bureau, for example, word processors were initially purchased for use by support staff, with the first translators receiving terminals in 1979 (Delisle 1984, 61). The Bureau now has hundreds of word processors and microcomputers, the vast majority of which are used by translators. As the benefits of wordprocessing became clear and the price of equipment fell, smaller services also acquired computers for their translators. Even free-lance translators were soon taking the plunge, since translation is well suited to

home computer use. The most obvious benefits of wordprocessing are speed and cost-effectiveness. Because computers eliminate the need for retyping and facilitate such aspects as material presentation and terminological consistency, a clean, accurate, well-formatted text can be delivered to the customer more easily and quickly. Moreover, translators are now beginning to use desktop publishing software in order to produce "camera-ready" texts for customers. The advent of wordprocessing has thus changed many aspects of translation for everyone concerned. Translators, have found a new way of working that increases productivity and quality, while employers benefit in particular from greater cost-effectiveness. Customers, for their part, enjoy faster turnaround, and can receive translations in machine-readable form, thus avoiding retyping.

Now that both data bases and wordprocessing software are quite highly developed and have proven their utility in translation, the next logical step is to integrate these and other computerized tools to make them accessible from a single terminal. This concept is known as the **translator's workstation**. The Canadian government has developed a prototype for a translator's workstation, and field trials began in two Translation Bureau sections in 1990. In addition to a sophisticated wordprocessing package and direct access to computerized data bases, the workstation contains software that will enable translators to query terminology files without leaving their terminal, compare different versions of a document, convert

wordprocessing files and so on (Motard 1990). As Dr. Alan Melby, a prolific writer on the subject, put it, "The evolution of the translator workstation is blurring the distinction between human translation and computer-assisted translation as nearly all translation becomes computer-assisted" (Melby 1987, 7).

Computer assistance is greatest, of course, in **machine translation**. Given the increasing sophistication of other labour-saving aids to translation, one might wonder whether machine translation is required at all. In fact, the need is growing all the time. The initial and continuing impetus for research in this area has been the dramatic growth in information, which has led to a critical need for translation, especially in scientific and technical areas. However, fully automatic machine translation has so far proved feasible and efficient only for highly technical material using a restricted sublanguage. Thus, most existing systems provide "human-assisted machine translation" (HAMT), which achieves a certain degree of automation, but requires human interaction at some point (Nirenburg 1987, 1). All commercial machine translation systems, including Systran, Logos, ALPS and Weidner, include a post-editing component. After the draft translation has been completed by the machine, the translator uses wordprocessing software to revise the text.

The reason so few Canadian translators have had experience with machine translation is that only a few systems are in use in this country. To date, most major employers have been reluctant

to acquire one of the commercial systems available, although some, such as Bell Canada and the Translation Bureau, have tested various systems to see if they meet the requirements for cost and quality. The Bureau is currently testing the Logos system and, in contrast to previous trials, is working directly with the system's developers and contributing to software development. Originally slated to end in March 1988, the project has yielded promising results and has consequently been extended and expanded (Lévy 1989, 479). Two systems are already in use within the federal government. One is METEO, the most successful example of a fully automatic translation system. Developed in the 1970s at the University of Montreal, METEO translates weather forecasts for Environment Canada from English to French and, since April 1989, in the other direction as well (Chandioux 1989, 450). The Department of Employment and Immigration also uses machine translation to translate its job notices and other short texts from English into French using software developed by John M. Smart. Operated by clerks rather than translators, the system has been in use in the Toronto region since 1984, and translates over two million messages a month (Smart 1988, 125).

A certain number of systems are in operation in the private sector as well. The Logos system has been leased by the new Moncton translation firm Lexi-Tech Ltd for English-French translation in the shipbuilding field. GM Canada has used a Systran system since 1976 to translate vehicle maintenance manuals and other technical literature from English to French.

In 1987 and 1988, ALPS acquired the two largest translation firms in Canada - La Langagerie and Multiscript International - and plans to use computer-assisted translation for up to 25% of the workload of its Montreal subsidiary (Hatter 1989, 4).

While current use of machine translation systems is very limited in Canada, interest in them remains strong. This interest is stimulated by the strong translation demand, by the desire of customers to reduce translation time and costs and by the desire to integrate translation into the desktop publishing process. Present efforts in the area will undoubtedly result in organizations with a high volume of technical translation having usable machine translation systems in the foreseeable future. It is important to consider what the growing use of computerized tools will mean to the next generation of translators, those now coming into the market and those preparing to do so. New translators often have the advantage of being more computer-literate than many experienced translators. The latter may be somewhat daunted by the unfamiliar territory of computers and especially machine translation. But translators must stay abreast of developments, so that they can keep up with the changing needs of employers and customers. There seems no doubt that translators who make the effort to continue learning about new technologies will find more employers' and customers' doors open. Moreover, translators familiar with computerized aids to translation can be more effective in influencing research and development and in helping to evaluate MT systems. There is a

strong need for more involvement by translators in efforts to develop new tools, so that the needs of language professionals are adequately taken into account. Although translators will no doubt have the option of not working with machine translation, those interested in and knowledgeable about such systems will have new career options. Auxiliary careers that will likely arise include those of post-editor, system coordinator, machine translation manager and consultant for computer applications in translation.

New technologies are clearly having a strong and growing impact on translators. To date, computerized aids such as terminology banks and wordprocessing have had more influence than machine translation. Wordprocessing, in particular, has affected both working methods and the finished product. Indeed, after the leap from typewriter or dictaphone to word processor, the step to desktop publishing or the workstation will perhaps seem a small one. These new technologies affect not only the translator's work methods, but also the quality and types of services provided and are therefore one of the factors that have led to higher expectations of translators.

D. Rising expectations

Rising expectations on the part of employers and customers are another important trend in the profession. This trend can be seen in particular with respect to recruitment requirements for would-be translators, the quality of the translations produced,

and translators' ability to be versatile and to work autonomously.

One area in which expectations have been increasing is recruitment qualifications. Unlike lawyers or accountants, for example, translators require neither formal training nor professional certification in order to practise their profession. Thus, there are no standardized recruitment qualifications in translation. However, a survey of job ads sent out by ATIO between March 1988 and March 1989 gives an indication of the main recruitment criteria of typical employers. To begin with, just over one third (36%) required or preferred candidates to have a translation degree, and another 29% called for a translation degree "or the equivalent" - presumably meaning a degree in a related field or sufficient experience to substitute for a translation degree. Employers that require a translation degree include Bell Canada, the Export Development Corporation, certain pharmaceutical and insurance companies and some large translation firms.⁷

Employers' growing preference for candidates with a translation degree in fact acknowledges a trend: the proportion of

⁷ In contrast with many other employers, the Bureau has changed its recruitment criteria little over the years and does not give preference to translation graduates. In fact, the requirements for general translators have remained "university graduation; OR completion of secondary school and experience in translation", as a recent job ad stated. Although the academic requirements are surprisingly low, the reality is that few candidates without translator training succeed in passing the recruitment exam.

translators with formal training, in particular a BA in translation, is on the rise. STQ surveys illustrate how this proportion grew even from the late seventies to the early eighties: in 1982, 85% of salaried translators had formal training, compared with 78% in 1977. In interviews, Translation Bureau managers indicated that most of their recent recruits were fresh graduates from translation programs (Card 1987, 7).⁸ This was certainly not the case some years ago: at the beginning of the translation boom, many recruits were former journalists or others with considerable and varied work experience (Clas and Horguelin 1985, 333). However, as demand accelerated and university translation programs were established, new translators were typically young translation graduates with no work experience.

However, lack of translation experience is now a major disadvantage when job hunting, for the majority (80%) of the recent job ads studied call for experience. In particular, translation firms and agencies, for which translation is a business, are little interested in candidates without experience. Moreover, slightly over half the employers called for an area of specialization, though the areas ranged from scientific to the more general economic and administrative, where translation experience would probably provide sufficient knowledge and no formal training would be required. Nearly half (44%) of the employers required or preferred candidates to have wordprocessing skills - an indication that familiarity with computers is fast becoming a

⁸ The interview report is contained in Appendix 1.

necessity for translators. Finally, 20% of the job ads preferred (or required, in one case) professional association membership. This is an indication that membership in a professional association is beginning to have some practical value in the marketplace.

These various, specific requirements on the part of employers show that translators are expected to be well prepared and that employers have developed a somewhat better understanding of what translation entails. It is also clear that, despite their formal training, translation graduates may well have difficulty finding an in-house position, since jobs calling for experience, a specialization or professional association membership (which in turn requires experience) are generally closed to them. Thus, new translators may not have access to the on-the-job training that will help them develop into seasoned professionals under the supervision of other translators.

Expectations have also risen with respect to the quality of translations. Companies doing business in Quebec or outside the country are becoming increasingly aware that poor translation of advertising materials or instructions can doom their products. Consequently, employers and customers are no longer content with translations that are more or less accurate, or that are incompatible with in-house usage or the end use of the translation. They now have higher expectations regarding correct terminology and appropriate style in translations. Even new graduates are rapidly expected to meet these expectations.

Moreover, handwritten or hand-corrected copy is no longer acceptable: texts are expected to be cleanly typed or, better still, done on a computer. The benefits of wordprocessing have certainly not been lost on translation customers, to whom better presentation, higher quality and especially faster turnaround are very important. Customers' expectations in this regard are rising and free-lance translators in particular are feeling the effects. It is becoming common to submit translations on diskette, with many customers encouraging or even requiring the use of compatible machines by contractors. As STQ president Mary Plaice explained, "the client wants a finished product. And he expects, and usually gets, a fully professional service from well-trained, competent language professionals who have gained his respect" (Plaice 1987, 30).

Many employers and customers are also expecting greater versatility on the part of translators. Whereas translation used to be considered an activity separate from everything else in the firm or organization, it has become part of the overall communications strategy. In-house translators in particular now tend to have other linguistic responsibilities in addition to translation. They may be called upon to write and adapt materials, develop and standardize terminology, provide language advice and, for firms in Quebec, participate in francization programs.

Translation firms are also becoming more diversified, frequently offering not only translation, but also typesetting,

graphics and printing services (Plaice 1987, 30). Even some freelancers and in-house translators are now using desktop publishing software to do tasks more economically than were formerly the domain of graphics or printing services. However, not all translators are eager to jump into this "full-service" game. In-house translators, in particular, risk doing more work to prepare texts in final form while still being expected to produce as many words as before. Moreover, in the future they may well find themselves spending less time on actual translation, and more time on material presentation. However, translators in the future may have no choice but to equip themselves for desktop publishing, as expectations rise and hardware and software prices fall.

Another example of the need for greater versatility is that many employers are now requiring translators to translate out of their dominant language. Professional association surveys and job ads indicate that translators are often called on to work at least occasionally into their other language or languages. The tendency seems to be stronger in small private-sector organizations, where translators often work alone and employers tend to have little understanding of what translation entails.

There is also a trend toward greater autonomy and consequently less revision for translators. Revision seems increasingly to be seen in a somewhat negative light, as a training aid for new translators, but one that should be dispensed with as soon as possible. Many job ads call for

autonomous translators, which is not surprising since the translators sought must often work alone. But even in larger translation services and translation firms, the tendency has been to reduce or eliminate the revision function.

There are several reasons that explain the trend toward increased autonomy, despite the many acknowledged benefits of revision. The main one is that it reduces costs. When revisers spend their time producing translations rather than correcting them, the translation unit's productivity rises considerably. Autonomy, along with increased contracting out, has been one of the main repercussions of the acute concern for cost-effectiveness arising out of the economic recession. In addition, long-term revision may pose problems of a professional nature. To begin with, translators appear to be objecting more and more to ongoing revision, feeling that their professional status and competence are being called into question. Second, translators sometimes come to depend on the reviser to pick up mistakes. Third, revisers are limited to correcting copy, and have little opportunity to use their skills for translating, writing, training and so on. Finally, the fact that the reviser is generally also responsible for evaluating the translator adds extra pressure to the reviser-translator relationship. These problems may be resolved somewhat by a reported trend toward team revision, in which translators revise each other's work (STQ 1983a).

The trend toward autonomy has been particularly noticeable in the Translation Bureau. Until recently, most of the Bureau's translators routinely worked "under the supervision of a reviser", as the job descriptions of translators at the entry and working levels stated. Since the late 1970s, when costs became a major concern, revision has increasingly been considered a temporary necessity for new translators, and is minimized or eliminated as soon as the translator reaches the working level. The reclassification of translation positions proposed in the mid 1980s made the degree of autonomy a major criterion for promotion. The new benchmark job descriptions stated that at the TR-2 level (the level of the majority of translators), more than half the texts produced must be such that they did not require revision. For TR-3s, the proportion was 85%. However, these benchmarks were not approved in the end, and the current job descriptions mention autonomy as a requirement only at the TR-3P (senior translator) level, although revision is no longer mentioned in the TR-2 job description.

Higher expectations, then, are another important trend in the industry. Not only are translators required to be better qualified than before, but once on the job, they are expected to produce higher-quality texts and to be more versatile and more autonomous.

CONCLUSION

The four major trends identified in this chapter - growing demand, increased contracting out, the advent of new technologies and rising expectations - have greatly changed the translation industry and continue to do so. Moreover, the impact of the various trends is all the greater because they are interrelated. For example, growing demand is a major factor in the increased contracts market and in the interest by employers and customers in new technologies. Computerization, in turn, has contributed to rising expectations and facilitated contracting out.

It is not always easy to reconcile changes, especially where they involve rising expectations, with responsibilities and rights as a professional. The trends toward contracting out and lack of revision, for example, can put beginning translators in the difficult and sometimes unethical position of taking on work for which they may not yet be fully qualified. Similarly, an in-house translator working alone may find himself under increasing pressure to translate out of his dominant language as well as into it, even if he does not feel fully competent to translate in both directions. Another example of how developments in the marketplace can affect rights and responsibilities would be the in-house translator who might be asked to begin using desktop publishing software to produce camera-ready copy, while still being expected to translate at the same rate. While dilemmas of this type do not have easy solutions, good professional training will help translators face new situations and deal appropriately

with them. Given the expansion, diversification and increasing sophistication of the translation industry in Canada and the changes in the profession, training thus becomes a key factor in determining the preparedness of working translators to meet the challenges of and adapt to the evolving marketplace.

INTRODUCTION

Training for translators is a life-long process, as it is for other professionals. Translators need to update their knowledge and skills continually in order to keep abreast of developments in the world, in the translation profession, in their fields of specialization and in the specific needs of their particular employer or clients. There are no "rules" for how translators acquire and maintain skills. As pointed out in the preceding chapter, neither formal training nor professional association membership are a prerequisite to working as a translator, and translators are not required to take additional training or requalify in the course of their career. In translation, the individual translator's role and responsibility are extremely important in ensuring that his work meets the standards of the profession and the customer.

But it can be said that, in general, initial training is provided by educational institutions and professional development by professional associations and employers. Since the primary interest here is in the transition into the workplace, the main focus in this chapter will be on initial training. It is nevertheless important to look briefly at what training is offered at the professional level because the question of transition is concerned with the intersection between the formal training and professional development.

While much of the ongoing development of the translator is his personal responsibility, some can be provided by professional associations and employers. The larger provincial associations offer a certain number of professional development activities to help their members improve their skills and adjust to changes. The STQ has been the most active in this area, offering sessions in such areas as terminology and specialized translation, computerized tools and the running of a freelance business. Following adoption of the ATIO Act in 1989, ATIO too has begun to give more priority to professional development and recently set up a committee to promote the professional development of its members. Professional association publications and conferences also keep translators abreast of many topics relating to professional development. These topics range from technological advances to translation theory to trends in other branches of the profession. While translators who are not association members can participate in a few association-organized activities, courses and training per se are normally restricted to members.

In addition to professional development provided by associations, some in-house translators, although by no means all of them, benefit from professional development activities designed specifically for them by their employers.¹ The Translation Bureau, for instance, has a special section devoted to organizing training activities ranging from initiation for new

¹ Excluded from consideration here are courses intended primarily for other groups of employees or all employees of the organization.

translators to revision techniques, and varying in length from one day to three weeks.² (The list of activities planned for 1991-92 is given in Appendix 2.) In organizations where the work is quite specialized or technical, the emphasis is often on keeping translators up to date on developments in the field and in the organization. This is the case at IBM, where professional development centres largely on increasing technical knowledge (Lessard 1990).

In addition to courses intended for translators of all levels, many employers provide initial on-the-job training for new translators. This generally consists of having the translators' work closely supervised by a reviser or experienced translator, who initiates the new translator by acting as a resource-person, correcting the translated texts, discussing problems encountered in the work. Moreover, employers often require beginning translators to start with easier texts before going on to more difficult ones. At IBM, for example, new translators are allowed to specialize in a technical area only after spending some time translating administrative and commercial texts for the company. In larger in-house translation services, initial training through revision may be complemented by courses and workshops for new recruits. IBM requires its translators to take and pass an in-house course on the organization's philosophy and activities. In the Translation

² In 1990, the Bureau decided to open many of these activities to contractors as well.

Bureau, most new translators are sent on three-week training courses after a few months on the job.

However, in light of the contracting out trend mentioned in Chapter 1, growing numbers of beginning translators are now working independently, or for translation firms or small in-house services - settings in which they often do not have access to formalized training or even systematic revision. By the late 1980s it was becoming clear that not enough such training was available and that other measures might be needed to help fill the gap between university training and the workplace (Charpentier 1988; Landry 1988, 19).

I. OVERVIEW OF UNIVERSITY TRAINING

While employers and professional associations offer a certain amount of training and development for translators already in the workplace, the bulk of formal training for those intending to become professional translators in Canada is provided by the universities. However, this was not always the case. Prior to the establishment of the majority of Canada's university translator training programs, the setting up of an independent translation school was proposed seriously at least twice - in the late fifties and in the mid sixties³ - although neither plan came to fruition. However, in response to the acute

³ The first proposal was by the Society of Translators and Interpreters of Canada, in 1958, and the second by Carleton University and the University of Ottawa in 1965 (Delisle 1981, 12-3; Delisle 1987, 73).

shortage of qualified translators, the federal Translation Bureau established its own training school in 1963 to polish the practical skills of candidates who failed the recruitment exam but who showed potential. The school later provided transitional training to bursary holders and to translators recruited in Europe. It was closed in 1971, after university translator training programs began filling the gap (Delisle 1984, 44-5). Since then, although the idea of an independent school still resurfaces from time to time, professional translator training in Canada has been provided only by universities.

Although just one type of institution offers translator training, a variety of programs are involved. First of all, most language programs include one or more translation courses, usually in literary translation, to improve language proficiency. Second, certificate programs, generally taken part-time and equivalent to five full courses, are offered at a number of universities, especially in Quebec. Third, Concordia and McGill have a major, as well as an honours program, although the major is not considered to be a professional program even by the universities themselves.⁴ Fourth, M.A. programs are offered by five universities. One of these (University of Alberta) involves literary translation only, and the other four (University of Ottawa, University of Montreal, Laval University and Glendon College), concentrate on professional training, research or both.

⁴ Concordia's 1986-87 calendar (p. 7) states: "This programme is not designed for those who intend to pursue a professional career in translation".

Fifth, there are four graduate diploma programs in translation, one at Woodsworth College in Toronto and three (in specialized areas) at the University of Ottawa. Finally, there are undergraduate programs leading to an Honours degree in translation. The latter are the focus here because they are intended for students who wish to become professional translators. Laval University, for example, states that the aim of its B.A. Honours translation program is "former des traducteurs professionnels dotés d'une culture générale de niveau universitaire et bien formés aux techniques de leur métier" (Université Laval, F-86). Since the vast majority of translators entering the profession are products of B.A. Honours in translation programs, it is appropriate to examine these programs in particular in terms of what the preceding chapter has presented as being the standards of the profession and expectations of the workplace.

Undergraduate Honours degree programs in translation are offered by eleven Canadian universities. From east to west, these universities are the University of Moncton, Laval University (Quebec City), the University of Quebec at Trois-Rivières, the University of Montreal, McGill University (Montreal), Concordia University (Montreal), the University of Ottawa, Laurentian University (Sudbury), Queen's University (Kingston), Glendon College (York University, Toronto) and Collège universitaire Saint-Boniface (University of Manitoba, Winnipeg). Most of the translator training in Canada is from

English into French, with ten of the eleven universities offering programs for Francophones. Only four offer an Anglophone option (French-English translation) as well as a Francophone option, and just one (Queen's) provides training only for Anglophones.

Although the duration of most of the programs is three years, following first-year university or CEGEP, Moncton and Laurentian have four-year programs. However, since these two programs do not contain a greater number of courses directly related to translation, they are essentially three-year programs with specific requirements in the preceding year to improve students' language skills and general knowledge. Moreover, Quebec students who have completed a pre-university program at a CEGEP enter the second year of the program at Laurentian, just as they would at other universities outside Quebec with three-year programs. Finally, some universities enable students with the necessary prerequisites to shorten their B.A. programs. For example, both the University of Ottawa and Laurentian University offer a two-year accelerated honours program for students having a degree in some other area, and Glendon College grants exemptions from compulsory courses on the basis of language skills or courses taken previously.

Although the B.A. programs that are the focus of interest here are now the core of professional training, the first degree program in translation was at the graduate level.⁵ Indeed, many

⁵ This program was offered by the University of Montreal, beginning in 1951 as a graduate-level option of the linguistics section. An overview of the evolution of translator training at

translation educators, who face the difficult challenge of teaching students who are inadequately prepared, have continued to favour graduate-level training (Glaus 1973, 2; Henry 1985, 298; Krawutschke 1989, 180). However, nearly all the translation programs set up in the sixties and later were undergraduate programs, established at that level to help fill the urgent need for trained translators to meet the rising translation demand. Establishment of such programs was given a more concrete impetus by the Translation Bureau's bursary program, started in 1968. Under this program, participants received their tuition in a university translation program, an allowance and a guarantee of summer employment in return for a commitment to work for the Bureau after graduation ("L'Université..." 1968, 61). Universities, for their part, received a certain sum for each bursary student enrolled. The bursary program naturally sparked enthusiasm on the part of both students and universities for translator training, with the result that seven translation programs were set up between 1968 and 1972. The universities concerned were the University of Montreal (1968), the University of Ottawa (graduate program in 1968, undergraduate program in 1971), Laurentian University (1968), Laval University (1969), the University of Moncton (1972) and the University of Quebec at Trois-Rivières (1972).

this university and at the other pioneer institution in this field - the University of Ottawa - is given in Appendix 3.

Queen's University followed with its program in 1974. Then, there was a hiatus until 1979, when translation programs were introduced by three other universities: York University (Glendon College), Concordia University and McGill University. The newest entrant on the translator training scene is the University of Manitoba's Collège universitaire Saint-Boniface, which started its program in 1983.

The eleven B.A. Honours programs thus established have various roots, which account to at least some extent for the differences in program organization and content that will be analyzed later in this chapter. All but two were set up under departments in the related fields of linguistics or modern languages and literature.⁶ The exceptions were Laurentian University and the University of Ottawa, which both created an autonomous School of Translators and Interpreters from the start. However, even the translation programs at these two universities were heavily weighted toward modern languages and linguistics, respectively, and contained few translation courses per se. Moreover, in the case of the University of Ottawa, the School kept, for the first two years of its existence, the linguistics-based program it inherited from the Department of Linguistics and Modern Languages (STI 1972, 1). The programs of all the universities were strongly influenced by their roots and tended to have a predominance of courses in the field of the sponsoring

⁶ Only two programs - those at Glendon and Saint-Boniface - were moved after their foundation from their original department to an independent school or department.

department. As we shall see, this influence, although now much less strong, is still visible in many programs, and is to a large extent responsible for the differences between programs.

II. PROGRAM ORGANIZATION AND CONTENT

The B.A. programs in translation offered by the various Canadian universities differ in many respects, including duration, organization, emphasis and special features. For comparison purposes, these programs are summarized in terms of both basic characteristics (Chart I) and content (Chart II) in this section. By comparing the different aspects of the programs, it is possible to draw certain conclusions about the preparation provided to aspiring professional translators by the individual universities.

A. Description of programs

The four areas selected for comparing program content in the eleven universities offering undergraduate translator training are as follows:

1. **Translation skills:** courses focussing on the translation of actual texts by students

2. **Writing/language skills:** courses to improve students' comprehension and writing ability in either the source or target language; these courses range from intermediate-level second-

language courses to courses such as précis-writing which hone language skills and more directly complement translation courses

3. **Auxiliary courses** of various types: some develop research skills (terminology, documentation); others improve transfer skills (comparative stylistics, revision); still others instill a broader understanding of translation (linguistics, cultural contexts, history, theory)⁷

4. **Practical experience** (internal or external practicums).

These four areas have been chosen because the amount of training in each gives a good indication of a program's orientation. For example, the fact that Queen's has no courses to improve language skills in the students' dominant language (English) is in keeping with the program's emphasis on French as a second language (the program comes under the French Department). Similarly, programs with more credits in the area of translation skills also tend to include practicums, both factors indicating an emphasis on professional training.

The charts that follow indicate the number of credits various B.A. Honours programs offer in each area. This information is based on recent calendars (1989-90, in most cases) from each university. However, it is difficult to calculate the

⁷ Third-language and subject specialization courses are excluded.

credits exactly for several reasons. First, the way in which credits are calculated varies from program to program. For example, the programs at Moncton and Laurentian are spread over four years (120 credits), while the other universities do not include credits for first-year or CEGEP courses as part of their programs. Consequently, the large number of credits in some areas, particularly writing/language skills, for these two programs is misleading. Another complication in calculating credits is that Glendon uses a slightly different system from the other universities to calculate degree requirements. Courses, rather than credits, are counted, since half courses may be either three or four credits, and full courses either six or eight credits. For comparison purposes, therefore, half courses have been assigned three credits and full courses six credits in the charts.

A second problem involves the division of program offerings into compulsory courses, options and electives. This is more complicated than it might first appear for several reasons. For one thing, courses are not always clearly labelled as a compulsory course, an option or an elective. For another, labels differ from one university to another. However, using the labels and definitions found in the Queen's University calendar, I have categorized all courses in the same way to allow for comparison.⁸ Compulsory courses are defined as those which students are

⁸ Queen's University, Faculty of Arts and Science calendar, 1987-88, p. 5.

required to take. Options are courses chosen from a specific list, and electives are courses freely chosen by the student. The category that poses the most problems is the option category, for options may be very limited or very broad, depending on the "specific list" provided. An example of the first type is the University of Ottawa's practicum, which is compulsory, but may be taken as either an in-house or an external practicum. The two settings are represented by different course codes, and thus constitute options. At the other end of the scale, some programs include a list of four or more courses in a given area, such as literature, and will also accept substitutes in that area, with prior approval. In this case, the option becomes almost an elective. Since it is impossible to reflect the various types of option in the charts, the program credits have simply been divided on the basis of the definitions given above for compulsory courses, options and electives.

Third, the calendars do not indicate whether courses listed as options and electives are actually offered every year. Here again, the University of Ottawa serves as the example, not because the situation is unique to that university but because the ex-director volunteered the information. Two optional courses to improve Anglophones' writing/language skills in French are listed in the School's calendar. In fact, one of the courses has not been offered for some years for budgetary reasons, and the other is used occasionally to provide extra practice for students having difficulty, for whom the course is compulsory.

As this example shows, the calendars by themselves may be somewhat misleading in terms of the numbers of courses offered in various areas.

The fourth and final difficulty in establishing the charts involves the separation of courses and credits into the four categories (translation skills, writing/language skills, auxiliary courses and practical training). It is not always clear where a given course belongs in the chart. To begin with, course titles do not necessarily match course descriptions (where available), and these in turn may not accurately reflect course content. Moreover, some courses fall into more than one of the chart's categories, and the best solution seems to be to assign half the course credits to each category. For example, the Laval program has two courses entitled "Langue anglaise et traduction", which include both writing/language exercises and translation practice. Therefore, three credits are assigned under translation and three under writing/language skills.

Despite the difficulties in calculating credits and classifying courses, the following charts serve as a useful basis for comparison.

CHART 1 - PROGRAM ORGANIZATION

	<u>PROGRAMS OFFERED</u>	<u>DEPARTMENT</u>	<u>PREREQUISITES</u>	<u>CREDITS</u>
UNIVERSITY OF MONCTON	BA Honours in Translation Eng-fr	Département de traduction et langues	Secondary school diploma	132 cr. (4 years): 81 compulsory; 6-12 options; 21-27 electives
LAVAL	BA Honours in Translation Eng-fr	Direction des études de langues et littératures modernes	DEC	90 cr.: 48 compulsory; 36 options; 6 electives
UQTR	BA in Translation Eng-fr	Module des langues modernes/Département des langues modernes	DEC + entrance exam	90 cr.: 48 compulsory; 33 options; 9 electives
UNIVERSITY OF MONTREAL	BA Honours in Translation Eng-fr	Département de linguistique et philologie	DEC + entrance exam	90 cr.: 48 compulsory; 30 options; 12 electives
MCGILL	BA Honours in Stylistics and Translation Eng-fr	French Language and Literature Department	DEC + entrance exam	90 cr.: 45 compulsory; 24 options; 21 electives
CONCORDIA	BA Specialization in fr/Eng Tr'n Eng-fr; fr-Eng	Département des études françaises	DEC + entrance exam	90 cr.: 27 compulsory; 36-39 options; 24-27 electives

CHART 1 - PROGRAM ORGANIZATION (Continued)

	<u>PROGRAMS OFFERED</u>	<u>DEPARTMENT</u>	<u>PREREQUISITES</u>	<u>CREDITS</u>
UNIVERSITY OF OTTAWA	BA Hon. in Translation; also accelerated program and co-op option Eng-fr; fr-Eng	School of Translators and Interpreters	DEC or first year 'nl + entrance exam	90 cr.: 63 compulsory; 3 options; 24 electives
LAURENTIAN	Hon. Bachelor of Science in Translation; also accelerated program Eng-fr; fr-Eng	School of Translators and Interpreters	Grade 13; Quebec students with DEC accepted into second year	120 cr. (4 years): Anglophones: 57 comp.; 33 options; 30 electives Francophones: 57 comp.; 27 options; 36 electives
QUEEN'S	Honours BA in Translation fr-Eng	Department of French Studies	first year university	90 cr.: 36 compulsory; 54 electives
GLENDON	Honours BA with Major in Translation Eng-fr; fr-Eng	School of Translation	first year university + entrance exam	90 cr. ¹ : 60 compulsory, but exemptions possible
SAINT-BONIFACE	BA Honours in Translation Eng-fr	Secteur de traduction	first year university + "test de présélection" and "examen d'entrée"	90 cr.: 60 compulsory; 6 options; 24 electives

¹full courses and half courses have been converted to 6 credits and 3 credits, respectively, for comparison purposes, since Glendon does not use a credit system.

CHART 11 - PROGRAM CONTENT

	<u>TRANSLATION SKILLS</u>	<u>WRITING/LANGUAGE SKILLS</u>	<u>AUXILIARY COURSES</u>	<u>PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE</u>
UNIVERSITY OF MONCTON	22%-31% cr. into dominant language; 4% cr. into second language	12-15 cr. in dominant language; 6 cr. in second language	Introduction to tr'n, comp. stylistics, documentation & terminology, terminology & lexicology.	Optional practicum (3 cr.)
LAVAL	18-30 cr. into dominant language; 12 cr. into second language	9-12 cr. in dominant language; 3 cr. in second language	Comparative stylistics & grammar, comparative lexicology & terminology, terminology.	Optional practicum (3 cr.)
UQTR	21-27 cr. into dominant language; 9 cr. into second language	9 cr. in dominant language; 15 cr. in second language	Compulsory: comparative grammar, terminology. El: theory, lexicology, applied terminology.	Optional practicum (3 cr.)
UNIVERSITY OF MONTREAL	9-27 cr. into dominant language; 6 cr. into second language	10%-16% cr. in dominant language; 7%-16% cr. in second language	Compulsory: linguistics, cultural contexts, doc'n & termino, revision. El: theory, history, syntax, semantics, phonetics.	Optional practicum (6 cr.)
MCGILL	18 cr. into dominant language; 6 cr. into second language	6-9 cr. in dominant language	Linguistics, terminology, theory, semantics, lexicology, sociolinguistics, literature.	
CONCORDIA	6-15 cr. into dominant language; 0-3 cr. into second language; 3 cr. mixed (intro. course)	9-12 in dominant language; 6 cr. in second language	Fr-Can lit, history of tr'n, linguistics, theory, terminology (6 cr.), revision.	Optional practicum (6 cr.)

CHART 11 - PROGRAM CONTENT (Continued)

	<u>TRANSLATION SKILLS</u>	<u>WRITING/LANGUAGE SKILLS</u>	<u>AUXILIARY COURSES</u>	<u>PRACTICAL TRAINING</u>
UNIVERSITY OF OTTAWA	18 cr. into dom. lang.; 9 cr. into second lang.; electives: 3 cr. dom. lang. (francophones); 3 cr. second lang. (Ang)	12 cr. in dominant language; 3 cr. in second language; electives: 6 cr. second lang. (Ang); 9 cr. dom. lang (fr)	Compulsory: doc'n, ling., termino, lex., compar. styl., theory, computers and tr'n. El: interp'n, human info. processing	Compulsory in-house or external practicum (3 cr.); Co-op option
LAURENTIAN	21 cr. into dominant language; 15 into second language.	Francophones: 15 cr. in dom. lang. Anglophones: 9 cr. in dom. lang.; 9 cr. in second language	Comp.: Intro to tr'n, comparative gr. ling. (francophones), doc'n & termino. El: computers & tr'n, theory, interp'n	2 optional practicums (3 cr. each) (Students take both or neither.)
QUEEN'S	7 1/2 cr. into dom. lang; 1 1/2 cr. into second lang; 6 cr. combining theory and tr'n exercises	12 cr. in second language	Termino and document'n, linguistics, lit, theory, fr-Cdn lit, comparative stylistics	
GLENDON	15 cr. into dominant language; 3-6 cr. into second language	12 cr. in dom. lang; 12 cr. in second lang.	Compulsory: comparative styl., theory, revision, document'n. Electives: semantics, terminology, lexicology	Optional practicum (3 cr.)
SAINT-BONIFACE	12 cr. into dominant language; 6 cr. into second language	27 cr. in dominant language (including 3 cr not counted in total program credits); 6 cr. in second language	Compulsory: comparative lexico., compar. syntax, termino & doc'n, revision. Electives: applied terminology, text linguistics.	Optional workshop course simulating working conditions; optional commented translation (mémoire)

III. ISSUES IN TRAINING

A. Program issues

On the basis of program content, the general orientation of various undergraduate Honours programs can be considered to range from mainly academic to strongly professional in orientation. A large number of credits in language, literature and linguistics, a relatively small number of translation courses or the lack of a practicum in the program would indicate a more academic bent. Conversely, a large number of translation credits, auxiliary courses directly related to translation and the inclusion of a practicum reflect a more professional orientation.

While a number of programs have evolved toward more professional training over the years, this trend is less marked in the case of others. Some translation programs, such as those at Queen's, Concordia and McGill, continue to include a high proportion of linguistics or language/literature courses. Queen's, for instance, concentrates on French language skills and includes relatively few credits directly related to translation. Moreover, the fact that Queen's students generally spend one year of the translation program at a French university further dilutes the emphasis on professional translation skills. McGill, for its part, does not claim to provide professional translator training as such and does not include any practical experience. Instead, the aims are to improve target- and source-language skills and increase general knowledge. Literature features strongly in McGill's required and optional courses, and even the general

knowledge courses are restricted to the humanities. It should be noted, however, that McGill includes more translation-related auxiliary courses than some other universities. Like McGill, Concordia emphasizes literature in its requirements and options and has few compulsory translation credits (of which half involve literary translation). The Concordia program does, however, include a number of relevant auxiliary courses (in fact, more auxiliary courses than translation courses), and an optional six-credit practicum. Given the high proportion of language and literature credits and the low proportion of credits related to professional translation, the programs at Queen's, McGill and Concordia can be considered to have a less professional focus than the others.

Other programs which started with a linguistics or language/literature bias have since become more professional by gradually reducing or eliminating most of the original linguistics or literature courses. At the University of Ottawa, for example, the strong emphasis on linguistics was soon reduced in favour of more translation courses. Thus, by 1975-76, the number of credits for translation courses had increased from six to thirty, and linguistics was no longer compulsory. While a three-credit course in linguistics as applicable to translation has since been reinserted in the program, the number of translation courses remains high. At Laurentian, where the translation program was designed mainly by teachers of modern languages, courses in literature and language initially accounted

for 40% of the compulsory component (Henry 1985, 298-9). By 1983, this percentage had been reduced to 19%, and translation courses represented 52% of the compulsory content, up from 30% in 1969 (Henry 1985, 305). Similarly, when it was set up in 1968, the University of Montreal's new "licence" in translation was heavily weighted toward language and literature, which accounted for 63% of compulsory credits, while translation courses represented around 26% (University of Montreal calendar, 1968-69, 46-9). By 1981-82, all literature courses had been dropped from the program, and language courses represented only 22% of compulsory credits (University of Montreal Arts and Sciences calendar, 1981-82, 2-48). In the same period, the proportion of compulsory translation courses rose from 26% to 39%.

Although all programs that emphasize professional training have increased the number of translation and translation-related courses they offer, they differ from each other in certain important respects. For example, the program at the University of Quebec at Trois-Rivières offers more translation courses than any of the other universities, but has only six credits of auxiliary courses. In contrast to most of the other programs, this one emphasizes specialized translation (commercial, legal and so on), and includes little general translation. UQTR is also the only university to require a third language. Another example of the differences among B.A. programs in translation is the place given to language improvement courses. While all the universities find it necessary to provide such courses, the

number of these courses offered varies considerably from one program to another, as the charts indicate. Not surprisingly, Moncton and Saint-Boniface, both located in areas where Francophones are living in an essentially English environment, have the largest number of target-language improvement courses. Despite these and other differences, the majority of undergraduate translation programs now offer more practical translation courses and translation-related auxiliary courses. This change clearly indicates an effort to adapt to market needs by producing graduates with more hands-on experience.

An issue that is central to any discussion of professional training for translators is that of **practical experience**. Practical experience in this context can be defined as work performed during a period of weeks or months by students under the supervision of a professional for the purpose of becoming familiar with the translator's workplace and duties. The question of practical experience, although it has attracted much attention in the last fifteen years, is by no means new. Surprisingly, the early programs, whose translation content was quite low, often included a compulsory practicum in a translation service. As far back as the 1950s, the University of Montreal's M.A. program featured a compulsory practicum, which was carried over into the "licence". The University of Ottawa, too, added a compulsory practicum soon after its M.A. program was set up. It was no doubt felt that true practical training was not possible in a university setting, and that a period of work in a transla-

tion service would adequately complement the linguistics- or literature-oriented academic component of the program. However, the practicums were not carried over into the new B.A. Honours programs.

With the introduction and expansion of the undergraduate programs, two problems arose with respect to practicums. On the one hand, some translation educators did not consider practicums an essential element of professional translator training. On the other, it was becoming increasingly difficult to find enough practicums for the growing numbers of students. Nevertheless, the first practicum at the undergraduate level was set up at Laval in 1976, and this sparked renewed interest in the matter. The benefits and constraints involved in practicums were considered at length during a three-day conference on the subject organized at Laval in 1981 (GIRSTERM-STQ-ACET 1981). And, in the years that followed, more universities, including Ottawa, Moncton and Glendon, introduced practicums into their programs. By this time, however, the shortage of extended practicums (both paid and unpaid) had become acute, and other steps had to be taken to enable the majority of students to acquire practical experience.

Various alternative ways of providing practical experience have been suggested and tried over the years. One example was the "translation day" concept explored by Daniel Gouadec at the University of Ottawa. At the beginning of the day, students were given a fairly lengthy text for translation. They then worked as

if in an office setting, applying the research skills and translation principles they had learned in their courses. Gouadec recommended that these translation days be used in the first year of the program, that a week-long in-house practicum be organized in second year and that a longer practicum with an employer take place in the final year (Gouadec 1979). Because of organizational difficulties, however, translation days did not become a regular part of the program at the University of Ottawa or elsewhere.

Another attempt to simulate real working conditions has been through an in-house translation service. Within the framework of a fourth-year translation course, Queen's offers a translation service to give students some semblance of professional experience. With the same objective, the University of Ottawa developed English-French and French-English in-house practicums, in 1982 and 1984 respectively, for those fourth-year students who could not find or did not want an external practicum. Each student involved is expected to translate at least 5,000 words and help manage the service, with the texts being revised by professionals.

Yet another form of practical experience has been tried by the University of Quebec at Trois-Rivières, which undertook two large projects for clients. The first was a terminology project, in which translation students produced a lexicon of technical terms used in the pulp and paper industry. The second consisted of the translation into French of an educational software

package. The main benefits were that students were able to work directly and at length with real clients to produce a lexicon or translation, and thus gain practical experience (Larose 1981, 308-9).

A systematic way of integrating practical experience into academic training is by means of a co-operative education program, which alternates periods of work and study. The first such program has recently been implemented at the University of Ottawa. In this three-year option, students complete nine terms: six study terms and three work terms in a translation service. The main benefits expected are better job opportunities for graduates, better students attracted to the university's undergraduate program and stronger ties with professionals and employers (STI 1987). A co-op program of this type seems ideally suited to translator training.

All these methods - practicums with employers, translation days, student translation services and co-operative education - increase the practical component of university translation programs. But, although the utility of practicums has become more widely accepted over the years, there are still a few universities with translation programs that do not include this type of practical experience at all, and most others provide it only as an option, open to some but not all students. Thus, many translation students still do not have the contact with the "real world" of translation that practical experience provides.

Another controversial issue in training has been that of specialization at the undergraduate level. Such training, intended to produce translators to work in specialized areas, is an extension of the idea that translators need to possess more than just language skills. The early Canadian programs offered no specialization but some devoted a significant proportion of their courses to general knowledge. In doing so, they were following the model of the European programs, in which a strong general-knowledge component was (and still is) a major feature. At Laurentian, for example, general education courses (those in areas other than language, literature and translation) accounted for 30% of the original program. However, the general knowledge component tended to decrease in university training programs as more practical translation courses were added.

At the same time, the universities were under pressure to help meet the need for specialized translators. The shortage of specialized translators was being felt keenly worldwide by the mid sixties for two reasons: first, there was an abundance of technical material requiring translation and, second, machine translation had turned out to be far from ready to take up the slack. As a result, translation schools were called on to produce technical translators (Citroën 1966; Gravier 1967). However, the fledgling Canadian translation programs, already burdened with an excess of linguistics or literature/language courses, did not take up the challenge, although the University of Montreal originally intended to create a diploma in

specialized translation as an optional follow-up to its degree program in general translation (Bernier 1968, 93). As the programs gradually introduced more courses aimed directly at developing translation skills, it became evident that full-scale specialization was not feasible at the undergraduate level. Students entering the programs from high school or CEGEP were generally found to be insufficiently prepared in terms of language skills and general knowledge, and a three-year program was barely sufficient for general translation training and the necessary remedial work on language skills.

Over time, the universities have tended to go in one of several directions on the issue of specialization. Some, in particular Queen's and those with newer programs such as McGill, Concordia, Glendon and Saint-Boniface, have concentrated nearly exclusively on general translation and, in a couple of cases, on literary translation as well. Others, such as Laval, UQTR and the University of Montreal, have introduced a number of translation, writing and terminology courses in specialized areas such as economics, law and general science. Their aim seems to be to enable students to acquire a mini-specialization or at least the basis for later specialization. Laurentian has taken a different approach with the same goal in mind, by including enough electives in its program to permit a concentration in an arts or science discipline. Thus students undertaking such a concentration at Laurentian would have background knowledge but no translation practice in their non-translation discipline.

Finally, Moncton and Ottawa have steered a middle course: with twelve and fifteen credits, respectively, of specialized translation in their programs, these two universities focus on general translation, but give students an introduction to specialized translation.

Since actual specialization has been found to be impractical at the undergraduate level, the few specialized programs that exist are at the graduate level. The University of Quebec at Trois-Rivières offers a certificate in technical translation and writing at the graduate level, and the University of Ottawa has a graduate diploma in legal translation. Concordia has just introduced a graduate-level diploma with an option in computer-assisted translation. By offering such programs, universities are helping to meet the need for specialized translators while focussing primarily on general translation at the undergraduate level.

Another trend in university translator training has been toward the elimination of the requirement for a third language. Initially, most programs required students to study a third language: this was the practice in European translation schools and it was argued that any translator applying abroad or to an international agency would require more than two languages. In Canada, however, the market for translation in languages other than English and French has always been very limited (although this market has shown some recent growth). This fact, combined with the need to make room for more translation and auxiliary

courses, has gradually led to the elimination of a third-language requirement, although the study of a third language is still recommended to students. Only the University of Quebec at Trois-Rivières has kept a compulsory third-language component in its translation program.

While knowledge of a third language may not be considered vital for translators in the current Canadian context, familiarity with computerized aids to translation is becoming increasingly necessary, as was seen in Chapter 1. Some universities are already responding to this need: the University of Ottawa has had a compulsory course in this area for a decade, Laurentian and Laval offer an optional course and Concordia has an elective in this area. So far, however, other universities have not introduced formal training in computerized tools, although students in some of the more professionally oriented programs are introduced to the major terminology banks and encouraged to learn wordprocessing skills.

B. Program structuring

One important consideration in any professional training must be the prerequisites set for admission into the program. As Chart I indicates, seven of the eleven universities claim to have some type of admission test. In fact, it appears that some of the universities do not administer the tests as a rule, and that others use them as placement tests to determine which language-improvement courses students should take. Only two or three

universities seem to use entrance exams to screen out applicants who do not possess the required language skills and/or general knowledge. Thus, many students are admitted uniquely on the basis of their previous marks, even though, given the fact that students come from very different schools with differing academic standards, previous marks do not necessarily provide an adequate screening device.

A complementary means of ensuring that translation graduates are reasonably proficient is through end-of-program exams. At the moment, only Queen's University requires students to take such tests, in both general and technical translation. However, it seems that these exams are passed by most, if not all Queen's students and therefore do not perform a thorough screening function. Nevertheless, the very existence of such tests probably means students work harder. Thus they may have a beneficial effect on the translation competence of graduates.

A higher professional standard at the end of a program requires not only a number of appropriate, well-taught courses, but also a careful sequencing of courses. In many programs, the attempt to sequence courses is reflected by a series of courses with the same title (for example, Version I, Version II and so on). However, it is not always clear how much progression there actually is between the courses in such series. Two programs, those at Laurentian and Saint-Boniface, feature a particularly clear progression. Laurentian, in its four-year program, has two cycles of two years. The emphasis in the first cycle is on

language training, while the second cycle contains nearly all the translation workshops and translation-related auxiliary courses. This idea of sequencing is carried even further at Saint-Boniface, where the first year of the program is centred on writing/language skills, the second year emphasizes general translation and the third year focusses on specialized translation. At least part of the reason that Laurentian and Saint-Boniface organize their programs in this way may be that, since they are both located in areas where French is a minority language, an extra effort is required to improve students' dominant language skills before beginning the actual translation training.

C. Methodological issues

In addition to the above issues involving the types of courses offered and the structure of the program, another important issue is the methodology used in translation courses and writing courses. These courses are the backbone of a translation program, since they teach and test the specific practical skills translators use in their daily work. Two major aspects involved in methodology are the didactic works used and individual professors' approach to teaching their practical courses.

The rise in the number of translation skills courses in translation programs has been accompanied by a steady increase in the number of didactic works on translation. In 1988 and 1989

alone, at least seven new works relating to the teaching of translation⁹ were published in either French or English, and a special issue of Meta (June 1988) was devoted to the topic. Five of these recent works are intended as methodological guides or course manuals for students at the beginning or advanced levels of translator training programs: Paul Fournier, Language to Language. Beginning Translation; P. Guivarc'h and C. Fabre, A Companion to Economic Translation; Peter Newmark, A Textbook of Translation; Liliane Pollak, La traduction sans peur... et sans reproche. Cours d'initiation à la version; Henri Van Hoof, Traduire l'anglais. Théorie et pratique. The other two works are collections of articles, one describing various aspects of translation didactics (the Meta issue, entitled Teaching Translation in Canada), and the other dealing with both language teaching and translator training (the ATA volume Translator and Interpreter Training and Foreign Language Pedagogy, edited by Peter Krawutschke).

Not only are more didactic works being published, but they have tended on the whole to become increasingly specialized in terms of the level of students and types of texts and to deal more directly with pedagogical issues by gearing explanations and exercises to particular difficulties or aspects of translation. Moreover, the focus has generally been shifting away from the

⁹ Pédagogie raisonnée de l'interprétation by Danica Seleskovitch and Marianne Lederer, and The Theoretical and Practical Aspects of Teaching Conference Interpretation by Laura Gran and John Dodds were excluded from the list since they do not deal directly with translation.

comparison of elements of source-language texts and their translations or the presentation of a series of texts for translation, toward methodologies aimed at imparting major principles and specific skills involved in the translation process. Nonetheless, somewhat surprisingly, some of the most recent didactic works go against this trend by returning to earlier ideas and "methods".

The evolution to date in methodology can be shown by a brief survey of representative manuals illustrating different approaches to the teaching of translation in Canada. The nine books selected, which are described in chronological order below, can be grouped according to their content and their target audience into three large categories. The first consists of works containing mainly texts or exercises for translation trainees (Chemins de la traduction by L. Bonnerot; Guide de la traduction appliquée by Geoffrey Vitale, Michel Sparer and Robert Larose; and the workbooks for Stylistique comparée du français et de l'anglais by Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet). The second group, also intended for students, include explanations of the principles of translation or of the difficulties involved in the texts presented for translation (Pratique de la traduction : version générale by Jean-Paul Bénard and Paul Horguelin; Traduire: pour une pédagogie de la traduction by Claude Tatilon; Language to Language. Beginning Translation by Paul Fournier; and Traduire l'anglais. Théorie et pratique by Henri Van Hoof. The third category of didactic works contain more background material

and theoretical observations, and are intended for teachers at least as much as for students: Stylistique comparée (the textbook), Jean Delisle's L'Analyse du discours comme méthode de traduction and Peter Newmark's A Textbook for translation fall into this category.

The best-known early work - and still a widely used pedagogical tool in Canadian translation circles - is Stylistique comparée du français et de l'anglais, by J. P. Vinay and J. Darbelnet, along with the accompanying exercise books. First published in 1958, this book is valuable for its observations on the differences in character between English and French. However, contrary to what its subtitle indicates, it is not a "method of translation." Despite the presentation of seven "translation procedures", Vinay and Darbelnet's book deals more with the product of the translation process than with the process itself and the examples used are primarily isolated phrases and sentences for which a single equivalent is proposed. The authors' observations nonetheless have considerable application in the comparison of French and English versions of a text and the book has been the basis for the comparative stylistics courses that are part of most translator training programs. In addition, Stylistique comparée has served as a springboard for numerous other authors of works on translation teaching.

One example is L. Bonnerot, who, in his 1968 book Chemins de la traduction, set out to apply Stylistique comparée more directly to the teaching of translation. However, the work

consists primarily of a large number of short literary texts for translation in French and English. The brief introduction to the book merely summarizes the approach and translation procedures found in Vinay and Darbelnet's work, without developing them or exploring their application to the teaching of translation. Thus, Bonnerot's book does not provide a methodology as such.

With the development of translator training programs and the growing need for translators of non-literary texts beginning in the late 1960s, there was an evolution in teaching methodology with three important didactic works written by Canadian translation professors in the next decade. All three share two important characteristics: they feature non-literary rather than literary texts and move away from the comparative stylistics approach. The first of these, published in 1977, was Pratique de la traduction : version générale by Jean-Paul Bénard and Paul Horguelin, which contains explanations plus texts for translation. Intended for French-speaking college or university students learning to translate into their mother tongue, this book provides a description of the translation process and proposes a useful working method that can be applied to any type of translation. To make the link between theory and practice, the authors present a small number of commented texts to illustrate the application of their method. The rest of the book contains a series of complete texts for translation. Pratique de la traduction thus introduces valuable pedagogical elements, although translation difficulties are not studied systematically

and students using this manual will not necessarily have the feeling of making progress in their skills.

The empirical method of merely assigning random texts and then going over the corrections in class was challenged by Geoffrey Vitale, Michel Sparer and Robert Larose in their Guide de la traduction appliquée, which appeared in 1978. Intended for translation students beyond the introductory level, this textbook groups specialized texts by theme, each one preceded by a short introduction to the field and a glossary of specialized terms. In particular, the authors provide numerous annotations for each text with the stated aim of preventing mistakes and increasing student motivation. However, many of the notes give the impression that there is only one way to render the passage or difficulty in question, and use comparative stylistics terminology without explaining the principles behind the terms or the approach. Moreover, some notes are unclear; others are either too advanced or too elementary for students without translation experience but with several translation courses behind them. Nonetheless, the texts themselves are well chosen and the use of carefully prepared annotations can be of value in guiding students' reflexion once they have completed a first draft of their translation.

A more structured approach was taken by Jean Delisle in his introductory-level textbook L'Analyse du discours comme méthode de traduction, first published in 1980. In this book, Delisle seeks to systematize the initiation into English-to-French

translation by presenting a firm theoretical basis for his teaching approach, followed by a series of objectives and accompanying exercises. The objectives centre on the analysis of the text's message through the linguistic and extralinguistic context, the development of the student's expressive resources in French, the promotion of a greater awareness of cohesion at the text level, and the study of particular translation difficulties. While the use of such objectives and exercises can no doubt help professors better structure their practical translation courses and give students more of a sense of progress than the translation of texts alone, some of the theory and a few of the objectives in the book are likely beyond the reach of first-year translation students.

In contrast to Jean Delisle's book, certain more recent works do not deal with the translation process in depth but rather treat a variety of translation difficulties. One such book is Traduire : pour une pédagogie de la traduction by Claude Tatilon, published in 1986. A compilation of articles by the author, this book is aimed not only at translation students and teachers, but also at language students and teachers. Perhaps in view of this broad audience, Tatilon covers a large number of points such as lexical, grammatical and stylistic differences between French and English, the translation process and types of information contained in a text. However, in most cases the treatment is superficial. Although the book does contain many examples, a number of them are from literary texts or are taken

from other works on translation. A useful feature of the book for teachers and students is the suggestions for exercises and for further reading that accompany the theoretical part of each chapter.

Like Tatilon's book, A Textbook for Translation (1988) by Peter Newmark is more a series of observations on difficulties of translation than a teaching manual.¹⁰ This book differs from the preceding one, however, in that it does not contain or suggest any particular exercises, and it is not intended for language students but for translation students at advanced levels and practising translators. While the first part (entitled "Principles") covers various aspects and types of translation, the second ("Methods") contains a series of texts for text analysis and translation criticism. Since the theoretical elements in the "Principles" section tend to be disparate and not always well developed, they do not form a cohesive framework to guide professors or students of translation. Moreover, there is no logical progression to the material and the reader moves abruptly from one aspect to another without any explanation of the links between them. Finally, some of Newmark's more categorical statements - such as "'sincérité explosive' is what the text, a serious novel, says, so 'explosive sincerity' is what you have to write, whether you like it or not..." - may be misleading, in particular for students or inexperienced

¹⁰ Newmark's book is, by the author's own admission, an expansion and revision of his 1981 book Approaches to Translation.

translators. Newmark does, however, raise numerous translation difficulties, make practical suggestions, and illustrate his points with numerous examples. In short, this book is probably more useful as a reference work for experienced translators than as a course manual.

Another manual that appeared in 1988 - Language to Language. Beginning Translation by Paul Fournier - clearly targets students at the introductory level. Fournier's book, which is enlivened with humorous drawings and plays on words, focusses on non-literary translation and presents numerous translation difficulties such as idioms, prepositions and verb tenses. Each section is followed by exercises, which comprise over half the book. In contrast to most of the other manuals, the examples and the exercises involve translation from French into English as well as from English into French. At the college or first-year level, this book could help spark students' interest in translation and alert students to various translation difficulties and the need for strong language skills.

Quite a different approach has been taken by Henri Van Hoof in his 1989 book entitled Traduire l'anglais. Théorie et pratique. Van Hoof is firmly in the comparative stylistics camp: much of the book is taken up with explanations of and exercises on contrasting characteristics of English and French. These are presented as four basic principles (English is more concrete, French is more abstract; English is more dynamic, French is more static; and so on). Moreover, the "procedures" introduced by

Vinay and Darbelnet - transposition, modulation and so on - are central to his discussion of the translation process. The author includes forty-five short texts for translation, divided between expressive texts ("à dominante émotionnelle") and informational ones ("à dominante rationnelle"), but no notes or annotations accompany the texts. Although comparison of two language systems is no doubt useful to students as a means of improving their language skills and raising their awareness of certain general differences, it is not at all clear that this approach provides the basis for an effective or motivating method of teaching translation.

As this overview of representative manuals or methodologies shows, there has been a general trend toward a stronger theoretical basis and a more systematic approach to the teaching of translation. Most of those writing in the last fifteen years or so - Henri Van Hoof being a notable exception - have moved away from the "post-mortem" comparative stylistics approach to focus on translation principles and the translation process. Moreover, the more recent works contain not just a series of texts for translation, but explanations of translation difficulties and exercises on these particular problems. In addition, the emphasis has shifted from literary to non-literary texts. As a result, the explanations, as well as the exercises and texts proposed, are generally better suited to professional translator training.

Perhaps the major development is that didactic works are both reflecting and inspiring a greater variety of methods suitable for use in the teaching of translation. These methods include not only sight translation and assigned texts for translation, but also exercises of various types and annotations to guide students. Moreover, some of the works provide a coherent theoretical basis to support the observations and strategies proposed. However, the impact of the evolution in didactic works on classroom methodology is difficult to assess, since there have been virtually no symposiums or other forums to discuss the ways in which translation is actually taught in university training programs.¹¹

Although there has been no formal examination to date of teaching methods used in practical translation courses, discussions with a certain number of translation professors and information contained in articles have enabled me to present **educators' views** on certain methodological issues.

First of all, the content and methodology used in translation courses is influenced by the skills level of the students entering translation programs. Translation educators generally find that students are weak in the critical areas of general knowledge and language skills (Roberts 1985, 347).¹²

¹¹ In May 1990, the School of Translators and Interpreters of the University of Ottawa held a day-long workshop for full- and part-time professors on this topic.

¹² Although the level of students' general knowledge and language skills is often thought to have declined in the last generation, there seems in fact to be no consensus on whether the

Target language skills, in particular, are often considered inadequate (Jean Delisle, Geneviève Mareschal 1990, personal communications). And translator training programs are too short to compensate entirely for these deficiencies. However, a concerted effort is usually made early in the program to reinforce and improve students' writing ability in their dominant language. For example, as already mentioned, Laurentian, Moncton and Saint-Boniface require students to take a number of French grammar and writing courses in the first part of the program. At other universities, such as the University of Ottawa, the first-year writing and translation courses concentrate on reviewing grammar and developing stylistic resources (Jacqueline Bossé-Andrieu, Geneviève Mareschal 1990, personal communications). Professors of introductory translation courses may even try to relate the content to that of other first-year courses, especially where the treatment of such aspects as comparative grammar and anglicisms (or gallicisms, depending on the target language) is concerned (Gouanvic 1990, 157). However, coordination of courses at the same level or between levels is difficult, since professors tend not to consult each other on course content and since the large number of part-time instructors in most programs usually have little contact with full-time professors and therefore little guidance (Delisle 1979, 2; Geneviève Mareschal 1990, personal communication).

skills of translation students today, at least in those programs with a rigorous admission examination, are weaker than those of students fifteen or twenty years ago.

The actual methodology used in translation courses varies from courses to course and instructor to instructor. While the main method seems to be the assignment and correction of short texts for translation, a number of other methods are now being used as well. These include sight translation, the use of errors in students' papers to illustrate translation principles and problems, and exercises on particular difficulties. Jean Delisle has developed this last aspect in his use of learning objectives: following a short presentation on a given difficulty, students translate a number of passages containing examples of the difficulty and may be asked to find additional examples. Delisle finds that this approach motivates students and makes it possible to evaluate progress in specific areas as well as overall translation skill (Jean Delisle 1990, personal communication). Although literary texts were often used in translation courses in the early days of training, and are still used in less professionally oriented programs, most professors now choose non-literary texts for general translation courses. These texts, while often somewhat better written and more journalistic than the average text of the working translator, are generally felt to be a more realistic preparation than literary texts for future professional translators (Delisle 1984b, 33; Gouarvic 1990, 45).

CONCLUSION

Translation programs in Canada have clearly evolved significantly over the past twenty years. A number of steps have been taken by the universities to provide more professional training. Among the most important are a reduction in the initial emphasis on linguistics or language and literature, the creation in some cases of a school of translation as an autonomous department, more effort to provide practicums or a similar experience for students and the introduction of computer training. These changes indicate a shift in priorities toward producing graduates with the professional skills that will facilitate their integration into the marketplace.

Although, as already mentioned, a large proportion of part-time instructors can hinder coordination of program content, the involvement of professionals in translator training would seem to be beneficial overall. In order to keep abreast of changes and trends and to provide students with the skills they need, universities need to maintain close contacts with the profession and employers. Indeed, the extent of such contacts and the resulting co-operation may be considered to be a good measure of how professionally oriented a translation program is. Practicums represent an important and obvious form of co-operation between the universities and the marketplace. However, there are other ways in which working professionals have influenced translator training programs as well. Professional translators involved in university translation programs as instructors have

often helped reorient existing courses or have suggested new courses to meet employers' needs. For example, in response to francization efforts by Quebec companies and government agencies, in particular the need to prepare glossaries, translation programs began to include terminology and documentation courses. Increased contact with employers and professionals has also contributed to the development of specialized programs at the graduate level. Moreover, the involvement of the profession has helped shift the focus away from literary texts (Klein-Lataud 1987, 256). Thus a different, more market-oriented type of translation is being taught than was the case when translation in an academic setting served mainly as a tool for language training and for comparative literature studies. In general, then, it can be said that translator training has moved toward becoming a separate discipline emphasizing professional skills.

CHAPTER 3 JUNCTION OF TRAINING WITH THE PROFESSION AND MARKETPLACE

INTRODUCTION

One might assume that with eleven undergraduate translator training programs, not to mention the other types of programs, Canadian employers would be spoiled with an abundance of job-ready graduates. In fact, university translation programs have always been and continue to be criticized for not preparing students adequately for the workplace. The first section of this chapter examines the various major criticisms from the profession and the marketplace. On the basis of the trends in the profession and marketplace identified in Chapter 1, the content of present translator training outlined in Chapter 2 and the criticisms directed at training programs, the second section discusses the possibility of an ideal university translation program. Finally, the third section examines the juncture of training with the profession and marketplace, that is, the transition from the university to the workplace.

I. MARKETPLACE CRITICISM

The criticism from professionals and employers covers virtually all aspects of training, including the level of the students accepted, the evaluation of students' work and, in particular, the content of the training programs. While considerable criticism has been aimed at university translator training programs, much of it has been in the form of a remark

made in passing in some conference discussion, a letter to the editor of a professional magazine, or perhaps a paragraph in a report or article touching on training. Although more and more has been written about translator training in recent years, those writing are mainly educators, who naturally have a different perspective from those receiving new graduates in the marketplace. Criticisms expressed by working translators and employers are often somewhat vague, in particular because, with the exception of those involved in training as instructors, professionals tend to have few contacts with translation programs and consequently have only a very general idea of what is taught. Nonetheless, on the basis of available literature and a series of interviews conducted with employers, I have tried to identify the major criticisms levelled at translator training programs. These criticisms must also be evaluated on the basis of trends in the profession and marketplace, the content of translator training programs and the constraints on translation educators. While many of the criticisms of employers and working translators are well founded and should be acted upon by the universities, some have a less solid basis (or assume that three-year university programs can do the impossible) and others may perhaps not go far enough. Views from the marketplace regarding university translator training can be roughly divided into two categories: those relating to the general level of satisfaction and those relating to a specific aspect of training.

A. General level of satisfaction

Reactions from employers began to be expressed only in the 1970s, with the proliferation of translator training programs following the introduction of the federal Translation Bureau's bursary program. Generally speaking, employers in the seventies could be described as being "somewhat satisfied" with the training provided by the universities. While few surveys have been conducted on training from the perspective of the marketplace, one such survey was done by Meta in 1974. Forty translation companies and the Translation Bureau were asked, among other things, whether university translator training programs were adapted to market needs. Of the respondents, 52.5% answered yes, 27.5% answered no and the remaining 20% felt they did not know enough about the university programs to respond (Chartrand 1974, 225). Thus a slight majority of the employers felt that training was adequate.

The Bureau, at that time the largest translation employer by far, reacted both positively and negatively to the training provided by the universities during that early period. The official Translation Bureau view seems to be expressed in the 1975 report of a joint Bureau-university committee set up in the early 1970s to examine university translator training and make recommendations. In this report, the committee took the position that translator training was clearly beneficial. One of the report's clauses outlines the general benefits of training:

[. . .] l'enseignement universitaire de la traduction est une excellente préparation, car elle exige de celui

qui la suit l'esprit d'analyse et de synthèse, ainsi que des connaissances étendues, et l'aptitude à rédiger; (Rapport 1975, 2)

However, supervisors of new recruits often found the translation graduates to be lacking in general knowledge and language skills in comparison with recruits from other backgrounds. As one supervisor concluded later, "les traducteurs venus, sans diplôme en traduction, d'autres secteurs avec une très longue expérience et une parfaite connaissance de leur domaine ont été dans l'ensemble plus rentables que les jeunes diplômés en traduction" (Goffart, in Clas and Horguelin 1985, 334). One might argue that it is hardly fair to compare the typical product of the government's bursary program - that is, a young graduate of an undergraduate translation program, possessing no work experience and no specialization - with a specialist having years of professional and life experience behind him. However, this supervisor's criticism does indicate that translation graduates were often found to be inadequately prepared for the work they were expected to take on.

Comparison of translators with formal training and those from other backgrounds was also undertaken by the joint Bureau-university committee, but its opinion was different from that of Goffart. The committee report is quite complimentary to university training with respect to the longer-term development of translation graduates and non-translation graduates:

[. . .] les traducteurs qui ont reçu une formation universitaire en traduction progressent relativement beaucoup plus vite, au terme de six mois à un an

d'expérience, alors que, dans certains cas, leurs collègues qui n'ont pas la même base plafonnent (Rapport 1975, 1)

Thus the committee was clearly in favour of university translator training over other backgrounds. And this seems to be the general opinion of the 1970s.

In contrast, results of a series of interviews conducted in 1987, mainly involving Translation Bureau supervisors, were much less conclusive (Card 1987, 7-9).¹ There appeared to be two main reasons that those interviewed found it difficult to compare the success of translation graduates and non-translation graduates. First, relatively few non-translation graduates have joined the Bureau in recent years, and second, most translation graduates are generalists, while most non-translation graduates are specialists. What is clear, however, is that the pass rate for the Translation Bureau's recruitment exam is significantly higher for translation graduates than for candidates with other backgrounds. According to statistics (still considered to be representative) for 1983, 18% of translation graduates passed the exam, compared with 8% of all candidates taken together (Malcolm Williams 1988, personal communication).² Thus it would seem that university translator training programs generally prepare candidates better than many other backgrounds.

¹ The interview report can be found in Appendix 1.

² Most new recruits at the Translation Bureau are apparently translation graduates, although statistics on this point were not available.

Moreover, in response to the question of whether the university training received by translation students was satisfactory overall, the majority of the supervisors interviewed in 1987 indicated that it was. However, a few of those who felt that training was adequate also maintained that translation training was not necessary, and that a degree in another area plus the necessary language skills provided a background that was equally good preparation if not better (Card 1987, 11). These supervisors would not likely be swayed by the exam and recruitment statistics. They might argue, for example, that many non-translation graduates taking the exam are not really qualified, and that translation graduates are at an advantage since their training has prepared them to pass such an exam.

Even those critical of early training efforts acknowledge that training has improved over time. Goffart, for example, noted a changing trend after the first decade of university training, a decade in which, according to her, "les écoles de traduction ont créé plus de maux de tête qu'autre chose" (Goffart in Clas and Horguelin 1985, 334). She felt that the improvements in the quality of graduates recruited by the Bureau resulted from a variety of factors: economic factors, better translator training programs and stricter admission requirements. Although it is not clear what Goffart means by economic factors, she may be referring to the budget restrictions in the federal government that reduced hiring from the late 1970s onward. As recruitment slowed, selection became more rigorous, and this no doubt helped

to increase the average skill level of the translation graduates hired. Whatever the reasons, Goffart's opinion that training had improved was also expressed by several of the supervisors interviewed. In their general comments on university training, several of those interviewed in 1987 indicated that universities were doing a better job than in earlier years (Card 1987, 11). This view seems to be shared as well by former translation students who are now experienced professionals. Jean-Marie Côté, for example, indicated that translation programs "ont été grandement améliorés" over the past fifteen years, in particular thanks to better didactic tools and more appropriate course content (Côté 1990, 37).

While, generally speaking, professionals and employers tend to feel that university translator training programs are adequate overall and have improved over the past two decades, there are nonetheless a number of specific criticisms that they continue to direct at university training.

B. Specific criticisms

The most common criticism of university translation programs is really an observation: translation graduates tend to lack general knowledge and solid language skills. This point is made by employers and working translators at virtually every forum where translator training is discussed. At a translation symposium held at Glendon College in 1980, for example, professionals present "ont longuement souligné l'insuffisance de

la formation des diplômés, dont ils déplorent particulièrement l'absence de culture générale et le manque de formation à la rédaction" (Bossé-Andrieu 1981, 170).

Criticism of graduates' general knowledge appears to fluctuate somewhat. While only 7.5% of the employers in the 1974 felt that the level of general knowledge of the average translation graduate was inadequate, that view seems to be much more prevalent by 1980, as indicated above. In the 1987 interviews, however, respondents were evenly split on whether translation graduates possessed sufficient general knowledge. Some felt that the level was generally adequate, while others felt that graduates were very often weak in this area, sometimes appallingly so. It is not clear what conclusions can be drawn from this inconsistency in professionals' opinions regarding graduates' general knowledge. Perhaps the group of professionals meeting at Glendon in 1980 had particularly high expectations. Perhaps the level of general knowledge among students has improved since then. More likely, there has been little overall change, but professionals' opinions are based on the small number of translation graduates they have dealt with. Given the wide variety of educational backgrounds, work experience and ages of translation graduates, there are necessarily significant differences in their level of general knowledge. Although university training programs can encourage students to read and take courses to increase their understanding of the world, students themselves must take primary responsibility for

increasing their general knowledge. Nonetheless, students' general knowledge could be one of the aspects tested in a mandatory admission exam. Students who do not pass that part of the exam could be either refused entry to the program or asked to work on their own to increase their general knowledge in order to reach a required level by the end of the program. Including a general knowledge component in admission exams would also emphasize to translation students the importance of this part of the translator's baggage.³

The one aspect that has been criticized more often than the level of general knowledge is language skills. Insufficient knowledge of both the source and target languages has been cited consistently since the 1970s. In the 1974 Meta survey, 30% of the employers surveyed felt that graduates had an insufficient knowledge of their dominant language, and 15% felt that second-language skills were inadequate. In the 1987 interviews, about half the supervisors indicated that language skills, particularly in the target language, were inadequate.

As noted in the preceding chapter, translation educators are well aware that students' language skills, especially in their dominant language are often inadequate. If admission exams were designed to eliminate all candidates whose language skills were not fully acceptable, the numbers of translation students, and

³ An Ottawa translation firm manager recently rejected both practicum candidates referred to him after translation of a test text showed their general knowledge to be inadequate (Roda Roberts, personal communication).

therefore graduates, would be reduced drastically, and the shortage of qualified translators would consequently be aggravated. The answer to this dilemma must thus be a combination of efforts. First, as with general knowledge, students must realize the necessity of working on their own time to increase their language skills during their training and afterward. Second, those universities not already doing so should screen out candidates who do not meet a minimum level of language skills, provide courses specifically designed to develop students' comprehension and writing ability, and include as much practical training as possible in their programs in order to further improve language skills. Third, employers must be prepared to provide initial on-the-job training, in particular through regular revision, to help bridge the gap between the skill level of the average graduate of a professionally oriented translation program and the working level of the average translator.

A second criticism often levelled at university translation programs is that they are too theoretical and leave little room for practical training. By "theoretical", professionals and employers mean any one of a number of things: overemphasis on linguistics or literature, too many auxiliary courses such as documentation, comparative stylistics and translation theory, or practical courses that do not begin to reflect the work of professional translators. This criticism has been heard since translator training programs began in Canada. Although Roger

Goffin's remark that "les cours feraient une part trop large à la théorie, verseraient dans l'abstraction, accorderaient beaucoup trop d'importance à l'aspect historique" (Goffin 1971, 66) pertained to the situation in Europe, it also represents the views of many Canadian employers in the early 1970s. Translation graduates have also expressed the view that programs do not have enough of a practical orientation. During a round table on translator training, one student voiced this complaint: "J'ai appris deux fois plus en six mois de stage qu'en deux années d'étude . . . La différence entre la théorie et la pratique est trop grande" (Horguelin 1975, 45).

The call for more practical training is still being heard today. Many of the supervisors interviewed in 1987 reiterated this demand, suggesting in particular that the texts given to students be longer and more representative of those encountered on the job, that deadlines be much tighter at least on occasion, and that practicums be mandatory (Card 1987, 11). At least one employer, speaking at the 1989 ATIO convention, felt that even a practicum of a few weeks duration was inadequate preparation for the realities of the workplace. Overall, what employers are seeking is new recruits who have a fairly clear idea of what translation entails on a day-to-day basis.

Although criticism is still warranted with respect to the practical content of translator training programs, particularly because some programs continue to be more academic than professional in their orientation, there has been a general

increase, as we saw in the last chapter, in the amount and quality of practical training provided. Programs tend to include a significant proportion of translation courses, often taught by practising professionals, that make use of non-literary texts of the type that translators encounter on the job. However, a series of such courses consisting of the translation and correction of individual texts is not enough to give students the methodology they need to approach new texts confidently and efficiently. In order to be of as much benefit as possible, practical courses must use the specific problems found in texts to impart general principles which students can apply to other texts.

However, even a large number of well-structured translation courses will not give students the many hours of translating they need in order to make the transition smoothly between the university and the workplace. While practicums and other means of simulating actual working conditions have become quite common, and one university now has a co-operative education option in place, the majority of translation students still do not have the benefit of a practicum in the workplace. A number of universities need to make a greater effort to ensure that their students acquire practical experience. However, they are only partly to blame for the lack of practicums, which require the co-operation of employers willing to provide places and proper supervision for students. Even unpaid practicums can be difficult to arrange: some employers have policies preventing

anyone working for them without payment and therefore offer no practicums at all when their financial situation makes paid practicums impossible. As for those employers who feel that a single practicum is insufficient to ensure job-ready graduates, they should be prepared to take co-op students when such options are established. They should also work with the universities to find other means of providing practical experience, such as visits to the workplace and workshops organized in co-operation with the universities. Finally, they might also re-evaluate their expectations of new translators fresh out of university, since graduates of other professional programs such as law and engineering are not expected to perform immediately at the working level with little supervision. Even some professionals are concerned that marketplace expectations tend to be overly high. Jean-Marie Côté, for example, stated that he was somewhat saddened when he heard colleagues insist that new recruits should from the outset be able to produce accurate, elegant translations at a cost-effective rate (Côté 1990, 39). Both the universities and the employers have a responsibility to realize that only by spending time in the workplace will students acquire certain skills, such as the ability to produce high-quality work quickly and to deal with clients. Universities should therefore do all they can to provide practicums, set up co-op options where possible and explore other means of making practical experience an integral part of translator training programs.

In addition to calling for a higher level of language skills and general knowledge, employers have also criticized university translation programs for not producing specialized translators in spite of the high demand for them. This issue of **specialization** was addressed in the 1975 report by the joint Translation Bureau-university committee, which estimated that the demand for technical translation within the federal government might reach 75% of the translation workload. The committee therefore recommended that "les écoles de traduction donnent une orientation à majeure partie technique à leur enseignement de la traduction" (Rapport 1975, 4). However, although the universities generally did not take up the challenge of training technical translators, this criticism is rarely heard today. Robert Dubuc, for example, makes no mention of specialization when he lists the profession's expectations with respect to university translation programs. Instead, he feels that specialists are needed for relatively few texts and that "pour l'ensemble de ses besoins, le client préfère être desservi par un généraliste compétent" (Dubuc 1987, 246). In actual fact, however, there seems to be a strong and growing demand for specialized translators in Canada as elsewhere.

Although translation educators recognize the need for specialized translators in various areas, universities are hard put, in the three or four years at their disposal, to produce graduates who are proficient generalists, let alone specialists in translation of texts in a given field. Even the University of

Quebec at Trois-Rivières and the University of Montreal, which emphasize specialized translation more than the other universities, both state in the introduction to their programs that their aim is essentially to train generalist translators. As Roda Roberts pointed out, some of the essential core material of an undergraduate translation program would have to be eliminated if students were to receive a solid basis in one or more specialized areas; specialized programs are therefore best developed at the graduate level (Roberts 1981, 255). What the universities can do is to provide some specialized and technical translation courses in which the emphasis is on the methodology needed to deal with specialized texts rather than on the specific content. Students can subsequently apply the analysis and research skills developed in these courses to texts in any field. Moreover, universities can and do encourage students to use their electives to acquire a good grounding in an area that interests them, although the number of such courses is by no means enough to make specialists of them. It seems clear, then, that actual specialized training should take place either on the job or through subsequent specialized training only after basic translation skills have been mastered in an undergraduate translation program.

This progression from generalist to specialist is applicable to the vast majority of translation students who enter translation programs without a previous degree. However, there are always a few students who have previous training or ex-

perience in another area and can therefore begin work immediately as technical translators upon completion of their translation studies. Such students often opt for the accelerated (two-year) BA programs offered at Laurentian and the University of Ottawa, which are geared to those who hold a previous degree. But given the very limited number of such students, specialization at the undergraduate level no doubt needs to be restricted to a few courses where the method of dealing with specialized texts is emphasized more than the acquisition of specialized content.

Although most complaints concern language skills, general knowledge, practical training and the need for specialized translation training, a number of other criticisms have also been levelled at translator training programs. First, universities have been accused of setting **admission standards** which are too low. As far back as 1974, professionals were saying that programs needed stricter selection criteria. In a letter to the editor of L'Antenne, Gilles Colpron lamented the lack of a minimum education requirement at McGill and felt that, even at the University of Montreal, where a college diploma was required, "on admette beaucoup de 'bois mort' et cela malgré l'examen d'admission que l'on fait subir" (Colpron 1974, 4). As H  l  ne Brisson, head of recruitment and training for the Translation Bureau, stated at the 1989 ATIO Congress, although responsibility for providing students with language skills and general knowledge that should already have been acquired might not lie with the universities, it certainly did not lie with employers, and

universities must therefore be rigorous in their selection. Inadequate selection clearly poses problems for professional training, since students who are not adequately prepared to begin with will not reach even a minimum level of job-readiness in the limited time of their training. As has already been mentioned, the admission process varies from program to program. A few universities have entrance exams (which differ from one university to another), others have placement tests, and still others accept all students whose files show that they have completed courses at a prerequisite level. Not only employers, but also many educators as well would like to see admission standards raised (see Bossé-Andrieu 1981, for example). One reason universities are reluctant to weed out more students by means of admission exams is that university funding is often tied to the number of students in a program and strict selection therefore runs counter to universities' financial needs. Whatever the universities' reasons for admitting mediocre students, criticism regarding selection seems to be justified to a large extent. Even the fact that some universities take selection very seriously by imposing a rigorous admission examination does not help the situation, for the same weak students who are refused admission to such universities are often readily admitted elsewhere. One way to redress this situation would be for universities to develop a standardized, rigorous admission exam for applicants to translation programs.

The criticism regarding student selection in translator training programs has been accompanied by the related complaint that students are marked too easily. Some professionals and employers have expressed the view that even mediocre students often graduate with high averages and thus have an inflated idea of their abilities.⁴ There is no doubt some truth to the accusation that students are marked too easily, although marking practices vary considerably from program to program and overall averages are probably not as high as the critics in the profession think they are. Nonetheless, translation professors should not hesitate to give low marks and to fail students where necessary in order to ensure that graduates are indeed ready for the workplace. On the one hand, the universities have a duty to ensure that translation students have a realistic idea of their skill level, at least in comparison with their fellow students. More importantly, employers too need a means of comparing candidates, and because the marks of translation graduates are not accurate indicators of skill levels, many employers use a recruitment exam to screen all applicants.

In addition, some professionals would like to see university translator training programs teach not only basic translation skills but also job-readiness skills. These include the ability to work in a multidisciplinary group, to communicate with clients, to produce at a cost-effective rate, to work under

⁴ This criticism came up, for instance, in discussions at the 1987 CTIC conference.

pressure and meet deadlines and to use computerized tools (Dubuc 1987, 246-7). Another professional, Betty Cohen, complained that university training "ne prépare pas le futur traducteur à exercer sa profession sur la plan pratique et ne lui dispense aucune formation en gestion ni en organisation du travail" (Cohen 1986, 3-4). While these skills are undoubtedly vital for working translators, it is hard to see how an undergraduate translation program lasting six semesters can cover these additional areas as well as the basic skills. Moreover, some of the abilities called for (such as good communication skills and the ability to produce at the working level) are difficult to inculcate through training and come only through experience. Others, such as the ability to manage a business, may well be beyond the mandate of university translator training programs. Since short-term business management courses are already offered by community colleges and other institutions, it is perhaps not feasible to try to organize similar courses for credit at the university level. The university's role may be limited to stressing the importance of such skills to students, making them aware of what is offered elsewhere, and perhaps attempting to have the credits count toward the translation degree. Generally speaking, however, most of the additional work-related skills mentioned by professionals in their criticism can best be gained through a practicum with a conscientious employer.

However, one aspect of the translator's workplace for which students do need practical preparation is the use of **computerized**

tools: wordprocessing, the major term banks, other data bases, desktop publishing, terminology management software and even machine translation, which is not currently very widespread but is likely to be encountered by students as their translation careers progress (Meyer 1989, 552). The basic needs in wordprocessing and term banks seem to be generally met today. In addition, translation students generally learn to use at least one of the major terminology banks in their terminology courses. However, students' skills in using these aids should be reinforced by their being required to use them in all advanced-level translation courses. Moreover, most students receive little initiation to additional tools such as other data bases, desktop publishing software, terminology management software and machine translation. While it may be argued that although universities cannot afford at present to provide access to machine translation systems, which are extremely expensive and mostly still in the development stage, graduates who understand the basic concepts will be a step ahead in being open to working with machine translation when and if it becomes part of their workplace. Since computerized tools have become an integral part of the translator's workplace, universities have a responsibility to familiarize students with the potential and use of these tools. At present, only three universities offer a formal course in computerized tools for translators, and it is an optional course at two of them. Since familiarity with computerized aids is now so important for translators, it would be appropriate for

every professionally oriented translation program to include a compulsory course in this area.

Finally, whereas most criticism has focussed on the content and quality of the training provided, there is also some concern in the marketplace that the universities are not producing nearly enough translation graduates to meet market needs. In particular, the 1988 Charpentier report predicted an acute shortage of qualified translators in the nineties, with an average of 700 new translators a year being required to meet the demand, expected to grow by 5% a year (Charpentier 1988, 8). However, according to statistics gathered by the Canadian Association of Schools of Translation, Canadian universities are producing translation graduates at the rate of only some 500 per year (Henry 1990, 6). Thus if the Charpentier report's estimates turn out to be reasonably accurate, there will be a serious shortfall of new translators, especially since translation graduates often continue their studies or work in other fields. However, what the universities can do to overcome this problem is not clear. The main obstacle to admitting large numbers of students appears to be the lack of well-qualified applicants. There is no point turning out twice as many graduates if their average skill level is even lower than it is today. Moreover, as already mentioned, the demand for translators is greatest in the free-lance market, and few translation graduates are immediately capable of translating without revision. The best solution to the shortage of translators may be to make translation a more desirable career

option, for example by improving working conditions and long-term career prospects, so as to attract qualified students who would otherwise go into other fields.

II. Possibility of an ideal program

Having examined what is expected of professional translators, how aspiring translators are trained in Canadian universities and how university translator training programs are perceived by professionals and employers, it is now appropriate to consider what an ideal program might consist of. In the absence of any constraints, it would be easy to propose such a Super Program. Offered by an autonomous department at the graduate level, this intensive three-year program would be open to students possessing a previous degree, preferably in a sought-after specialization. Candidates would be required to demonstrate a high level of general knowledge and strong language skills (including perhaps a third language) by passing a rigorous entrance exam. The program would contain numerous practical translation and writing courses, in which the class size would be limited to about twelve students. Although it would not include either literature courses or remedial language courses because of the students' proven level of skills, numerous auxiliary courses would be offered. Some of these would be mandatory: in addition to terminology, documentation, theory and comparative stylistics and lexicology, students in the Super Program would be required

to take courses in the history of translation, professional ethics, computerized aids to translation and revision. Optional auxiliary courses might include applied terminology or lexicology in the student's area of specialization, interpretation and text linguistics. The professors, most of whom would be full-time, would co-ordinate and sequence their courses as much as possible. Moreover, the department and professors would develop and maintain close ties with employers, working translators and professional associations in order to gear the program to the changing realities of the profession and marketplace. Students graduating from the Super Program would also have gained firsthand knowledge of the workplace, since, in addition to completing the intensive three-year academic program, students would be required to accumulate the equivalent of at least eight months' practical experience through closely supervised practicums.

Although the Super Program would almost certainly produce highly qualified beginning translators, the present and projected demand for translators is such that it would no doubt be impractical to extend the training time either by making university translator training programs longer or by placing them at the graduate level. Few would-be translators would qualify for the Super Program, and fewer still would persevere to graduation. The profession and the marketplace would thus not be better served than at present if the universities produced only a small number of highly qualified translators. Consequently, the

goal must be to make the best possible use of the three years available in the existing undergraduate training programs.

As educators have rightly pointed out, just over one thousand hours - the length of most B.A. Honours programs - is very little time in which to prepare students who have no subject specialization, limited language skills and no work experience for the workplace. The short time available means that training must be efficient and sequenced. In fact, some translation programs tend to lack cohesion. Students, being the most directly affected, tend to be more aware of this problem than either educators or employers: the only written criticism that I have seen to date focussing specifically on co-ordination of program content came from a recent translation graduate, who deplored the "manque d'uniformité entre les cours" (Cohen 1985, 13). Courses may overlap or provide instruction at the same level when they should be teaching different or more advanced material, and courses that should reinforce each other often do not. To overcome this problem, program content needs to be better co-ordinated both "vertically" and "horizontally". In other words, a logical progression should be ensured in the content of courses of the same type from one level to the next (general translation I and general translation II, for example), and certain courses, such as writing courses and translation courses, should complement each other at a given level. Some universities have already placed special emphasis on sequencing and co-ordination; one example is Saint-Boniface (Brisset 1989,

68). However, while most programs seem to be more or less sequenced on paper, they are generally much less so in practice owing to the lack of firm guidelines regarding the level or content of courses and the lack of consultation between instructors.

A major factor in the lack of cohesion is the high proportion of part-time instructors, especially in the more professionally oriented translation programs. (That the involvement of significant numbers of professionals should contribute to reducing training effectiveness is ironic, given the vital input of these instructors in influencing the course content and overall direction of translator training programs.) Lack of cohesion tends to result when, as is sometimes the case, all sections of certain undergraduate courses or even all courses at a given level in the program are taught by part-timers. There tends to be little contact among part-time instructors or even between part-timers and full-time professors, in particular since the former spend little time at the university and generally teach only a single course. Moreover, part-time instructors generally receive little orientation or ongoing guidance in setting the objectives of their courses, choosing appropriate methodology or evaluating students. Overall, more effort is desirable on the part of directors and full-time professors to co-ordinate and sequence program content. Cohesion could be ensured more easily if more full-time professors were made available, through additional hiring if necessary, to teach under-

graduate courses. However, if part-time instructors continue to teach a significant proportion of courses in translator training programs, they should at least be provided with more guidance on how to do their job.

Since translation is coming to be considered an independent discipline, training for a career in translation is probably best offered by an independent department or school. The director and professors in an independent department are more likely to have training, experience or at least a strong interest in translation. Consequently, ties to the profession and the marketplace will generally be stronger, and program content is more likely to be geared to the realities of the translator's future workplace. Moreover, there is one less layer of administration to work with or against in implementing changes to programs to bring them more in line with market needs. Program additions or modifications are difficult and time-consuming even in independent translation schools, and are likely to be even more so where translation is one section among others in a department. Finally, when translator training comes under a linguistics or language department, it tends to be an adjunct of the academically oriented discipline which is the main focus of the department and staff. Placing the program in a separate department maximizes the emphasis on professional skills and minimizes the emphasis on linguistics, language-learning and literature. One example of the problems created by trying to train translators in a department where the emphasis is other than translation can be

found at Queen's. Since the translation program at Queen's falls under the Department of French Studies, no writing courses in English have been included, even though the students in the program are ostensibly being trained to translate from French to English. Overall, it would seem to be more difficult for language, linguistics or other departments to assess and meet the needs of aspiring translators than it is for translation schools or departments. Consequently, universities should work to create independent translation departments in order to have translation recognized as a distinct discipline and provide truly professional training.

One of the major roles of an independent translation department would be to keep abreast of market needs and adapt its programs accordingly. This is obviously not being done systematically at present, as the situation of **French-English translation** clearly shows. Although some 85% of the translation demand in Canada is from English to French, five of the eleven universities train French-English translators. As a result, a disproportionate number of French-English translators come onto the market each year. Many of these cannot find work in translation, especially if they do not live in Ottawa or Montreal, and end up in editing or writing jobs or in other fields altogether. In order to adapt to market demand, the universities should consider training fewer French-English translators, even if this means that one or more of the universities concerned must eliminate its option in French-to-English translation.

The need for rigorous and standardized admission exams was examined in the preceding section. However, screening is appropriate not only at the outset of translation programs but also at the end of training. If a translation degree is to have the same value as other professional degrees, there must be some way of ensuring that all graduates have a similar level of proficiency. Because the content of the eleven B.A. Honours programs in translation is so varied, with more or less emphasis on professional skills, employers at present cannot assume that all translation graduates have achieved a minimum level of skill through their training. The translation degree thus has little real meaning, since translation graduates must be tested in the same way as applicants without formal training. While the translation equivalent of the provincial bar exams may be a long way off, a **standardized end-of-program exam** for all translation graduates could be implemented to screen out those without good basic skills and encourage universities to emphasize professional training. This exam would ideally be organized on a national rather than a provincial basis, given the small number of universities, even in Quebec and Ontario, offering translation programs. Such an exam would encourage universities to strive for rigorous standards and, if the exam results were published, students could choose a university on the basis of its success rate. Moreover, an end-of-program exam would no doubt encourage universities to select students carefully, in order to ensure a high pass rate on the final exams. End-of-program exams would

also enhance the value of the translation degree in the eyes of the profession and this, in turn, would help encourage would-be translators to take formal training. If translation students from all Canadian universities were required to prove that they had acquired a certain minimum level of skill before they could receive their degree, employers' recruitment exams could perhaps be reserved for those applicants without formal training. Finally, if the exams were set in conjunction with the professional associations, and especially if successful candidates were granted associate member status, the associations could influence training, screen beginning translators and increase their membership. A stronger role for professional associations would not only further the cause of professional recognition, but would also oblige the universities to aim for more professional standards and thus enhance the value of the Honours BA translation degree.

III. Transition from university to the workplace

Even if an ideal program - one that met the above criteria and took into account the valid marketplace criticisms examined in section I - could be implemented, much attention would still need to be given to the transition from university to the work setting. The fact is that even capable translation graduates from the most professionally oriented schools need a considerable period of guidance and revision in order to become competent professionals (Gouanvic 1988, 156). There is often a sort of

tug-of-war that goes on in discussions between representatives of employers and universities, with the former suggesting that beginning translators should be able to start at the working level and the latter asserting that integration into the workplace is the responsibility of the employer. Between these two extreme views are many educators and professionals who recognize that responsibility for the transition from student to translator must be shared by employers, professional associations, universities and, of course, students.

It is clear that there is a gap between the average student's skills upon graduation and the working level of a typical translator. This gap has grown more noticeable and significant with the trend toward autonomy for translators with little or no experience. Growing marketplace expectations have in fact merely added fuel to the long-standing debate over whether the universities should be producing finished products (that is, translators with the practical skills and experience required to perform immediately at the working level) or semi-finished products (that is, beginning translators with the background needed to become competent professionals after a period of initiation under supervision). As they stand, university translator training programs seem equipped to produce only the latter, and some sort of transition into the profession must be provided for. The problem of transition has become acute because of the virtual disappearance of on-the-job training under an experienced reviser, which facilitated the integration into

profession of most translators during the period of large-scale recruitment by governments and big companies. Since initiation under the supervision of a reviser in a large in-house translation service is now the exception rather than the rule, other ways must be found to enable graduates of translator training programs to integrate into the profession. Generally speaking, this transition can take place in one of two ways. The first is by ensuring that students gain a substantial amount of practical experience during the university program. This is the purpose of the co-op program, which exists currently at only one university. The Translation Bureau, clearly believing that co-op programs go a long way toward compensating for the limitations of university translation programs, has indicated in its five-year plan that it intends to help establish more of them. Practical experience may also be an integral part of a professional program without the use of the co-op format. Students in physiotherapy, for example, are required to complete 1200 hours of clinical experience before graduation. The curriculum is set up to reflect the complementary nature of academic training and practical experience in developing professionals: "The undergraduate education of physiotherapists in Canada consists of two major interrelated components, academic and clinical" (Canadian Physiotherapy Association 1985, 2). While the academic component of the physiotherapy curriculum provides the theoretical background students require for their professional placements during training, "the clinical component

provides for the transfer of learning from the academic to the clinical environment and the development of clinical competence" (ibid). Thus one way of easing students' transition into the workplace is to incorporate a significant amount of practical experience into the training program.

Another way is to require a supervised initiation period after the academic training before graduates can be considered professionals. This is the approach taken, for example, in law and medicine, where graduates must successfully complete a lengthy period of on-the-job training, and, in the case of law, a bar admission exam as well. This question of supplementary requirements, in addition to a degree, is one which Quebec's Office des professions has been grappling with for some time. Its position is that the knowledge required for graduation must not be retested since doing so is pointless and does not enhance the protection of the public. However, the Office does support the idea of supervised initiation periods aimed at meeting real objectives concerning integration into professional practice (Office des professions du Québec 1989, 21-2). While no such supervised initiation period is yet de rigueur in translation, professional associations do make a distinction between associate and certified members - with the former being required to have at least one year's experience before being eligible for the certification exam; this seems to be a recognition that newcomers to the profession are necessarily still learning. However, given the trend toward autonomy and free-lance work, the traditional

transition structures are fast disappearing, and the challenge in translation is to find new ones to replace them that have been eliminated as the industry has evolved. Some ideas have been put forward, but most of these have yet to be developed. One possibility, proposed by Jean Charpentier in his 1988 report for the Translation Bureau, is for the federal government to financially assist translation firms in providing on-the-job training for new translators. Another idea would be for the professional associations to work with the universities to provide some sort of transitional professional development for new translators. This seems to be the gist of what ATIO Vice-President Julien Marquis was proposing in 1989 (Marquis 1989, 5). Yet another possibility, presented by Jean-Marie Côté at the 1990 CTIC conference, is based on the articling period imposed on would-be lawyers: students would choose a seasoned professional to work under for a certain period before obtaining their degree. Some of these proposals, or others still, will need to be implemented in order to help ease the transition of translation graduates into the profession.

CONCLUSION

Adaptation to market needs requires not only structural changes, but also changes in attitude on the part of all parties concerned. The universities must listen to the profession if they are to produce well-rounded, job-ready graduates. While academic aspects of translator training should not be neglected,

greater emphasis should be placed on "professional" aspects to ensure that graduates have the practical skills essential for the workplace. However, although universities should improve their translation programs to bring translator training in line with market requirements, they cannot be expected to adapt to all expressed needs. Employers' needs are extremely varied and may fluctuate. The problem is particularly acute where specialized fields are concerned. A field in which translators are in great demand at one point may lose its importance within a few years, and a specialty which is lucrative in one region may not be so in another. The same is true of skills such as knowledge of a specific wordprocessing program. Moreover, since no one knows future needs, universities would be relying on guesswork in emphasizing particular areas of specialization or additional skills. They should therefore ignore calls for specialization and concentrate on training generalists capable of dealing competently with a variety of specialized fields. The profession, on the other hand, needs to become more moderate both in its demands and in its criticisms. Above all, it must realize that, since programs cannot be changed overnight (minor changes require a year to introduce and major changes at least two or three years), universities cannot be expected to respond immediately even to suggestions that are justified or at all to those that may be short term in nature.

Clearly, the best way for both the universities and the profession to ensure that translator training programs are better

adapted to market needs is through increased contact and closer co-operation. In addition to building on the types of co-operation already in place, such as practicums and the use of professionals as instructors, the two sides need to work together in such areas as applied research, workshops and visits to the workplace. The profession, including employers and the professional associations, can also contribute to better adaptation by taking an active interest in the training offered by the universities and by helping to monitor trends in the profession and assess the effects that developments such as free trade and professional recognition have on translation.

CONCLUSION

The objective of this thesis has been to examine the juncture of university translator training with the translation profession in Canada. An examination of the major trends in the profession and marketplace indicated that today's beginning translator was likely to be working autonomously, quite possibly as a free lance from the start, using computerized tools to help meet the increasing expectations of varied clients. Against this backdrop of the major trends in the profession, the development and present content of undergraduate translation programs were analysed. The programs were found to vary considerably in both organization and content, with the key differences being the amount of practical training and experience provided and the types of auxiliary courses offered. Overall, training can be described as better adapted now than in the 1970s. Some of the universities are doing a reasonably good job of preparing students for the realities of the workplace, although there is always room for improvement. Others, however, fall short in one or more important areas of professional training. In the final chapter, marketplace criticisms of training were examined and various possibilities for easing the transition from the university to the workplace were explored. While some reproaches were found to be quite justified, others were much less so. Above all, it was clear that universities, the professional

associations and employers must make a concerted effort to help bridge the gap between formal training and the workplace.

In addition to the points dealt with in the thesis, there are certain other aspects of the marketplace which might have implications for training and which have so far received little attention either from professionals or from educators themselves. One such aspect is the common requirement, mainly in small in-house services, that translators work at least occasionally into their second language. Several of the translator training programs include very little translation out of the dominant language (often a single half course) and thus do not adequately prepare students for their future positions.

There are other market trends that are so recent that their impact has not yet been felt even in the profession, let alone in training. Two such trends are professional recognition and internationalization. As mentioned in Chapter 1, in both Ontario and New Brunswick, professional recognition became a reality in 1989. After numerous submissions, the Société des traducteurs du Québec too appears poised at last to get reserved title (Cohen 1991, 1). At this point, the precise repercussions of the new legislation on the language industry are not yet clear. However, one effect seems to be increasing co-operation between professional associations and employers, in particular the federal Translation Bureau. For example, negotiations are under way to enable translators who have passed the CTIC certification exam to be exempted from TB freelance accreditation exam.

Moreover, TR-2s and TR-3s in the federal government are expected to be "grandfathered" into ATIO, that is to be granted certified member status without having to pass the CTIC exam. The implications of professional recognition for training are even less evident. The only clause of the Ontario legislation to touch on training at all (paragraph 6(1)(b)) states that the Association's council may pass by-laws "prescribing a curriculum and any courses of study to be pursued by students in order to satisfy the certification requirements". From this provision, it would appear that the association intends to become involved in course accreditation and that universities would eventually be expected to gear their courses to the CTIC examinations, since association membership would become the "benchmark of professional competence" (Burgers 1987, 42). Such involvement in training by the associations would mean a new relationship between the universities and associations, whose spheres of activity have up to now been more or less separate. Increased co-operation between the professional associations and the universities would be both a natural result and a condition of this changed relationship. If the professional associations do become active in "prescribing a curriculum", one wonders whether certain programs would receive the required accreditation and what the consequences would be if they did not.

Universities may, in the future, be called upon to adapt their training programs not only to the requirements of the translation profession in Canada, but also to those of the

profession worldwide, for another new trend on the horizon is the internationalization of the translation industry. Internationalization is a term which covers several recent developments.

First, the free trade agreement with the United States, concluded in 1988, gives American translators access to the Canadian market and vice versa. While the long-term impact on language professionals is not known, reaction has been mixed, with some translators welcoming the opportunity to compete in a larger market and others feeling threatened by the lack of market protection. The current free-trade talks between Canada, the U. S. and Mexico add yet another dimension. The need to see the translation industry in a North American rather than a national context has been recognized by the organizers of the 1992 FIT North American Regional Congress, for which the theme will be: "Towards a Community of Translators in North America in the Context of Free Trade" (Roda Roberts 1991, personal communication). Looking across the Atlantic, it is clear that, with 1992 just around the corner, companies wishing to do business in a unified European market will need to do so in the customer's language (Plaice 1989, 199). Canadian translators may therefore find more work, especially toward languages other than French or English, destined for European readers.

A second trend under the general heading of internationalization is the establishment of multinational translation companies with a network of offices and computer-assisted translation systems. An example is ALPNET,

which took over two large Canadian translation agencies as a base for its international operations. Multinational translation companies have become feasible because of advances in computer and telecommunications technology. In addition, developments in these areas have made it possible for clients to have work done abroad.

Translation, like many other industries, is thus becoming more international. This trend will increasingly affect the careers and day-to-day work of translators and it may also require adjustments in training in the long term. These adjustments may include more insistence on translator training in a third language so that translators of the future can compete in the international market.

The profession is responsible, at least to some extent, for keeping universities informed of these and other developments. And the universities are responsible for taking these developments into account. However, there is also a third party involved in training: the student, whose vital role in the training process is not often mentioned. The importance of personal suitability tends to be underestimated by all three parties. Some students lacking in motivation and/or talent do manage to pass their courses and graduate. Employers, for their part, make no mention of the student's responsibility for training in their criticisms of university translation programs. And students do not usually realize that

they have as much responsibility for their training as the university.

Personal suitability can be divided into two aspects: talent and attitude. Clearly, without natural ability, no one will become a good translator, with or without formal training. The same applies to attitude or motivation, which training can encourage but not instill if it is lacking to start with. Since even basic skills cannot be taught unless the student actively learns them, attitude is all important. These two aspects of personal suitability - talent and attitude - come together in various qualities a student must have in order to adapt successfully to the needs of the marketplace. One of these qualities is intellectual curiosity, which, for translators, is the willingness to expand and update their knowledge of the world around them and their knowledge of the fields in which they work. Translators must also be willing to keep themselves up to date on computerized aids and other new translation tools. The ability to work with others is also an individual trait that is vital to a translator's work. Ironically, some of those attracted to translation have been "loners", who were looking for a pursuit where they would not have to work with others. In reality, especially in today's workplace, translators must be able to accept revision, discuss and co-operate with fellow translators and deal effectively with clients. Other personal qualities that can only be promoted but not taught include consistency and meticulousness, the ability to carry out research effectively and

to record results for future use, and the ability to organize a translation workload.

Such qualities as intellectual curiosity and the ability to work with others cannot be tested properly by even the most rigorous screening exam set by either universities or employers. And, even if a student does exhibit a lack of intellectual curiosity or problems in getting on with others, universities cannot be expected to fail him or her merely on that basis. However, they do have the opportunity and responsibility to weed out those students lacking talent. For employers, on the other hand, it is not enough to have a talented, well-trained employee who is unreliable or who is not a team player. Therefore, applicants who pass the screening exam are interviewed in order to evaluate personal suitability. In addition, many employers have a probation period in which they reserve the right to dismiss anyone not deemed suitable. The student's individual aptitude and responsibility are thus important factors in the transition from the university to the profession. Although these factors need to be taken more seriously by all three parties in training, students in particular must be aware that they have an active role to play in their own initial and ongoing development as professional translators.

While a professional attitude is a personal quality and cannot be "taught", formal training may well have an impact in this area. One of the roles of translator training should be to produce translators who are open to new developments and issues

affecting their profession. Indeed, Hendrik Burgers, then President of the Association of Translators and Interpreters of Ontario, stated in 1987 that the new generation of university-trained translators was more active in promoting the profession's interests. Noting the prevalence of translator training programs today, he said: "This gradual shift from training in the 'school of hard knocks' to formal education has been an integral element in the new way that translators now perceive themselves as professionals deserving of recognition" (Burgers 1987, 37).

What has become clear is that training does not take place in a vacuum, but rather influences and is influenced by developments in the profession. The market situation is always evolving and the universities must reflect the changes in their programs. Graduates of these programs will, in turn, influence the profession. Universities, students and the profession are three corners of a triangle, each as essential as the other, each essential to the other. If the points of the triangle are joined by strong, unbroken lines, translation, in all its aspects, will benefit.

APPENDIX 1 - REPORT ON INTERVIEWS WITH EMPLOYERS

Summary of Interviews with Ten Employers Regarding Translator Training

Although much is being written in the area of translator training, most of the viewpoints are those of educators or of professionals associated in some way with training. No systematic study seems to have been carried out to date of employers' views on the training provided by university translation programs. This report therefore summarizes the opinions of ten employers or managers concerning the quality of translator training and any changes they would suggest.

The information was gathered using a questionnaire (see appendix) covering three main areas. These areas are the level of preparedness of translation graduates, any differences noted between new translators with a translation degree and those without, and ways in which universities could improve their training for aspiring translators.

The study is not a statistically valid one, but rather reflects the ideas of a sampling of employers. Of the ten employers interviewed, three are Anglophones and the rest Francophones. Only four - all Francophones and among the youngest of the interviewees - are graduates of university translation programs, but all have at least ten years' experience in translation. The interviews were taped over a one-month period and the information was then transcribed for compilation. In the report that follows, the order in the questionnaire is followed.

PART I TRANSLATION GRADUATES

The first part of the questionnaire pertains to translation graduates only, and deals with three questions: the level of basic skills, the need for specialization and the utility of practicums in translator training programs. The views expressed will be summarized for each question in turn.

1. Basic skills

The question on basic skills of translation graduates is divided into seven points, ranging from writing ability to coping with production and deadline pressures.

General comments regarding the basic skills of translation graduates concerned both expectations and actual skills. Some of the employers noted that new translators were not expected to master all translation skills upon arrival, since their work is closely revised for the first year or longer. With respect to translation graduates' basic skills, a number of employers considered them to be adequate overall, since candidates without

sufficient skills were not hired. Others felt that the skills of translation graduates were often weak, and that the employer had to do more training than should have been necessary. According to one or two of the interviewees, the situation had improved over the years as translation programs matured. Finally, at least one employer felt that skills tended to be better on the English side, since selection was more rigorous, with fewer translators needed.

(a) Writing

Writing ability includes the use of correct grammar and the possession of wide resources in the target language (TL). All those interviewed agreed that the ability to write well was essential in translation. Although a number of the employers felt that writing skills were generally adequate, with some exceptions, others felt that translation graduates had an insufficient mastery of grammar and style. Reasons suggested were insufficient reading and the current emphasis on audiovisual teaching methods over composition and dictation.

Two of the employers indicated that Francophone translation graduates from Quebec universities tended to be strong in French but weak in English, while the opposite was true of those trained in Ontario. These employers and others felt that it was more difficult to develop good style and flexibility in the TL than it was to correct grammar and spelling or improve comprehension of the source language (SL). One even went so far as to say that, since language skills and thinking skills are closely linked, a new recruit lacking the ability to express ideas clearly had little hope of becoming a good translator.

(b) Comprehension

About half the employers found that translation graduates generally had an adequate understanding of the source language. The others felt that new translators' knowledge of the SL was often insufficient: some had difficulty with basic expressions and grammar, and even those with adequate language training often had little previous contact with informal or poorly written texts in the SL. As one employer put it, problems in comprehension stem from living exclusively in one of the two cultures, rather than having a foot in each one.

(c) Translation skills

This point and the following (methodology) are, of course, closely linked. Translation skills, however, focus on the ability to transfer the message without major errors, as well as on judgment, initiative and independence in the course of the work. Methodology, on the other hand, covers the preparatory steps of text analysis and research skills.

Most employers felt that the translation graduates hired were generally able to avoid major errors. Weaknesses in this area were considered to reflect an individual translator's inability to link ideas and detect errors in logic, rather than

shortcomings in university training programs. The ability to convey a message accurately requires judgment, intelligence and general knowledge in addition to language skills. However, translation programs were criticized in two respects concerning translation skills: one employer felt that the teaching methods used caused students to replace their all-important intuition by mechanical reflexes, and that intuition had to be "relearned" in the workplace. Another said that more practice during their university training would help students learn to move away from the SL text and not reproduce errors in the original.

It was stressed that new translators were not expected or encouraged to be independent; one employer even stated that the main emphasis in the first year was on developing judgment concerning how much to research and when to call the customer or consult colleagues.

(d) Methodology

In general, the work methods of translation graduates are usually good or at least adequate, according to most of the employers interviewed. University translation programs apparently familiarize students quite well with general sources of documentation and research methodology. In fact, some employers find translation graduates overly painstaking at first, spending too much time on researching small points.

However, one employer felt that the methodology taught and used in the university setting, where texts were short and superficial, was often not applicable on the job. In their daily work, translators must learn to be very specific and efficient in their research.

(e) Proofreading

While most interviewees found that proofreading was not a problem, in particular since the advent of word processors, some found that beginning translators tended to be careless. One employer linked proofreading ability to writing skills in the target language. The same employer felt that personality also came into play, in that some people find it very difficult to focus on detail for a prolonged period of time.

(f) General knowledge

Most employers felt that general knowledge - both ongoing awareness of current events and familiarity with areas such as literature, history, economics, Canadian political institutions and computer science - was essential for translators. All agreed that the level varied considerably from person to person, depending on past experience and the amount of reading done. Those interviewed were evenly split on the question of whether translation graduates possessed this asset. Some felt that the level of general knowledge was adequate and that the most important thing for beginning translators was intellectual curiosity and varied interests. However, others felt that

translation graduates were very often weak in this area, sometimes appallingly so.

(g) Production and deadlines

There was general agreement that the adjustment to production and deadline pressures was a short-term problem, if a problem at all. Little pressure is exerted on new translators to start with. Although most translation graduates work slowly at first and some do not take deadlines seriously, they gradually adjust and increase their production. Difficulties in coping with deadlines and increasing production vary greatly from one person to another.

2. Specialization

According to the interviewees, the university should produce generalists rather than specialists. However, even generalists, as we have already seen in 1(f), should have a grounding in a variety of areas.

The employers indicated three possibilities for filling the need that exists for specialized translators, particularly in legal and technical areas. First, bilingual specialists could be hired as translators. Although this was often necessary and in some cases worked out very well, a number of the employers felt this solution had definite disadvantages. It seems that few specialists have the necessary language skills along with the willingness to accept revision and keep abreast of their field.

A second solution was for general translators to work alongside specialized translators in order to develop a specialization. Although this was seen as a good solution in many cases, some employers cautioned that this type of translator was only a semi-specialist, who lacked the in-depth knowledge to handle certain legal and technical texts.

A third solution, which was seen as ideal because it compensated for the shortcomings of the other two possibilities, was for general translators to return to university for specialized training. A number of the employers felt that a full program of study in the specific field, supplemented by experience if possible, was probably necessary, especially for legal translation. Two felt that a specialized translation program might be sufficient and were eagerly awaiting the results of the University of Ottawa's new Legal Translation program.

3. Practicums

All the employers considered practicums to be very useful. Translation graduates who had done a practicum generally adapted more quickly, it was felt, since they understood the system in the workplace and the translator's role better, and were often more efficient in their work. Two benefits to the employer were also mentioned. One employer indicated that practicums were the best way of recruiting new translators, since they which gave the employer an opportunity to assess students' strong and weak

points and their interpersonal skills. Another employer felt that practicums were a worthwhile investment on the part of employers to ensure better-trained translators in general.

Conclusion of Part I

Of the three questions in Part I, the first, on basic skills, gave rise to a great variety of opinions, while those concerning specialization and practicums were less controversial. A slight majority of the employers considered translation graduates' basic skills to be adequate in general. The areas that seemed to be the most satisfactory were methodology, proofreading and the adjustment to production and deadline pressures. Opinion was more divided regarding comprehension and translation skills, with some employers finding performance in these areas to be adequate, but others noting major shortcomings.

However, it was in the two areas considered by many to be the most important - writing skills and general knowledge - that there was least agreement. According to some employers, the average level of writing skills and general knowledge had fallen in recent years, and one employer wondered whether the Translation Bureau would have to consider reopening its training school. One employer mentioned that standards for Translation Bureau exams had been lowered in order to ensure the same pass rate as in the past. Among those interviewed, Francophones were more likely to find writing skills and general knowledge to be insufficient.

In very general terms, it might be said that employers felt that the level of basic skills was adequate overall, that individual ability played a key role and that translation techniques had improved in recent years, while writing ability and general knowledge had declined.

Specialization in university translation programs and the utility of practicums were the subject of greater agreement. Employers felt that universities should train generalists rather than specialists, since undergraduates needed to acquire good basic skills, and could specialize later if they wished. Practicums were considered by all the employers to be very useful to students, with some interviewees indicating benefits to the employers as well.

PART II TRANSLATION GRADUATES VERSUS NON-TRANSLATION GRADUATES

The second part of the questionnaire compares the adaptation and development of translation graduates with that of non-translation graduates. The three questions in Part II are closely related, covering the proportion of new translators with and without translation training, the particular weaknesses of each group and differences in longer-term development. One employer was unable to make a comparison: while Bell Canada does not have a recruitment exam, the company hires only translation graduates, considering them to have the best preparation.

Another interviewee wished that this was the case at the Translation Bureau, where the academic requirement is a university degree or equivalent.

1. Proportion

Only two of the employers interviewed had information on the pass rate of translation graduates compared with that of non-translation graduates. Both indicated that translation graduates fared better. According to statistics (considered to be still representative) on the Translation Bureau exam results for 1983, 18% of translation graduates passed the exam, compared with 8% of other candidates.

Although statistics on those hired were not available, most employers indicated that nearly all translators recruited in recent years were translation graduates. The reverse was true in one area with a high volume of very specialized texts.

2. Basic skills

According to some employers, the level of basic skills had more to do with individual ability and interest than with the type of training. However, many of those interviewed were able to draw certain distinctions, and a number felt that translation graduates tended to be better prepared and to adapt better.

It should be pointed out that non-translation graduates are of two types: generalists with a degree or experience in an area other than translation, and specialists with expertise in a given field. Their strengths and weaknesses seem to be somewhat different. One employer gave an example concerning the former group. A number of second-language teachers passed the recruitment exam because they wrote well and avoided major translation errors. However, they had difficulties after hiring because they lacked research and translation methodology.

In comparing specialists with translation graduates, the employers felt that, on the one hand, specialists generally understood the concepts and nuances in specialized texts better, and possessed greater general knowledge, work experience, maturity and autonomy. On the other hand, translation graduates were considered to have stronger language skills and to be less set in their ideas and therefore less resistant to revision.

3. Longer-term development

Four aspects of longer-term development were broached in the questionnaire: advancement, specialization, length of employment and ongoing professional development. Here again, some employers were of the opinion that individual initiative and ability played a more important role than background. According to others, the differences noted above between translation graduates and non-translation graduates were strong at first but soon evened out, so that longer-term development was very similar.

In contrast, some employers felt that translation graduates, who clearly had an interest in the profession to begin with, were more likely to advance to the reviser level and beyond;

specialists were often hired at a higher level than translation graduates but tended not to advance.

Little comparison could be made with respect to specialization, given the very low proportion of non-specialists without translation training. This section therefore overlapped question I.2 (specialization of translation graduates); a few interviewees emphasized that, with interest and initiative, translation graduates could generally develop a specialization.

The majority of those interviewed felt that translation graduates generally remained in the profession longer than non-translation graduates. Among the reasons suggested were that those with translation training had a better idea of what to expect and perhaps had fewer career options than translators with other backgrounds. Specialists come to translation in some cases because they are waiting for opportunities in their own field or because other options did not work out. According to a few employers, the reverse might be true. One pointed out that turnover in translation was naturally high, owing to the tedium and content of the work. Translation graduates often moved on to communications and administration positions for which their training and experience prepared them. In contrast, specialists tended to be at the end of their careers and therefore remained translators.

With respect to ongoing professional development, the employers had relatively little to say. Membership in a professional association was generally not viewed as an advantage, especially by those without training in translation. In particular with such a large employer as the federal Translation Bureau, translators seemed to feel little incentive to become members. However, some of those interviewed felt that translation graduates were more likely than other translators to join professional associations. One employer stressed the need for translators to read a great deal in order to keep abreast of new concepts and terms as well as changes in writing styles and general vocabulary.

Conclusion of Part II

In many cases, employers were not able to answer all the questions in this section, either because the proportion of non-translation graduates was too small for comparison or because they did not have the necessary statistics at hand. It turned out that non-translation graduates themselves were of two types: specialists in a specific area, who were often at the beginning or end of their career and therefore not long-term translators, and generalists with a degree in languages or some other field. The latter group may be more similar to translation graduates than to specialists in terms of adaptation and longer-term development, since the distinction generally made by employers was between translation graduates and specialists. However, it may be simply that, among new recruits, non-specialized

translators with degrees other than in translation form such a small proportion that they were hardly mentioned by employers.

PART III CONCLUSION

In the final part of the questionnaire, interviewees were asked whether they felt university translation programs were providing adequate training in general and how they felt about specific aspects. They were also invited to make any other comments. Employers' opinions on the general adequacy of translator training and their closing comments tended to overlap, and I will therefore deal with these two questions (III.1 and III.3) together. First, responses given on three specific points (question III.2) are summarized.

Specific areas

(a) Co-op program

Most of the employers interviewed were enthusiastic about the possibility of a co-op program in translation, even though some of them had not heard of the idea before. The benefits indicated were the same as those already mentioned in response to question I.3, regarding practicums. Two employers qualified their enthusiasm, favouring one long practicum (six months, according to one; one full year, according to the other) after the second or third year of a translation program; another interviewee felt that a co-op option could be truly successful only if extra resources were provided. According to the one employer who did not favour a co-op program, students would not have enough preparation after only one-and-a-half years and would therefore be learning at the employer's expense while contributing little.

(b) Auxiliary courses

With respect to the utility of auxiliary courses such as theory, terminology, documentation and linguistics, opinions were divided. At one end of the spectrum, about half of those interviewed felt that a course in translation theory was worthwhile because translators required not only practical skills but also a broader understanding of the field in order to have a professional perspective. A background in terminology, documentation and linguistics was considered necessary by these employers in order to develop good work methods. At the other extreme, some employers would rather see all these areas integrated into practical courses or into a single course, so as to leave more time for practical training or general knowledge courses. Thus, there was little agreement on this point.

(c) Basic skills course

In contrast, when employers were asked about the utility of a basic skills course to cover text analysis, research

methodology and proofreading, they were neither strongly in favour nor strongly opposed. Some felt that extra emphasis on these aspects could be helpful, while one suggested a course in typing techniques would be more beneficial.

Adequacy of training / general comments

The majority of employers felt that universities were training translators adequately on the whole and better than in the past. Some indicated that the quality of translator training had improved, and that translation graduates were arriving with better work methods and translation skills. A few employers pointed out that the quality of training varied considerably from one university to another. In a number of areas, employers emphasized that an individual's intelligence, level of general knowledge and initiative were key factors, without which no amount of training could produce a good translator.

Among those who viewed training as adequate, three felt that translation training was not necessary. These employers considered that a degree in another area plus the necessary language skills provided a background that was as good or better for translation.

However, most felt that translator training was desirable, and a few considered the university programs to be less than adequate, especially in the area of practical skills. Nearly all those interviewed suggested improvements in various areas. Although a few felt that students needed more training in language and research skills, the major suggestions were for more practical content in translation programs and greater emphasis on market needs. These two points are summarized here.

Many of the employers called for increased practical training for translation students, in particular through the introduction of longer texts, much tighter deadlines at least on occasion, texts that were more representative of those encountered on the job, and mandatory practicums. Moreover, according to about half of those interviewed, students should be given a grounding, although not a specialization, in such fields as law, history, economics, accounting and computer science.

A number of employers also emphasized the need for universities to work with employers to adapt translation programs to market needs. To this end, some called for more job-related training, such as instruction in typing, dictation and word processing; visits to employers, libraries and industries; and an introduction to running a small business, since many students would become freelance translators. It was also felt that closer cooperation with the profession, including consultation with employers and course instruction by professionals, would keep university translation programs more in tune with the market.

Although, as these proposals indicate, translation programs are considered far from ideal, a number of the employers pointed out that personal suitability was a key factor in the development of good translators. Individual abilities and aptitudes regarded as essential included intellectual curiosity and initiative, in

order to continue improving skills and knowledge and perhaps develop a specialization; intuition and a love of language; intellectual rigour and persistence; a professional attitude toward translation; and the ability to work in a multidisciplinary group and communicate with customers and colleagues. In spite of the fact that these aptitudes vary greatly from person to person, employers felt that the universities could play a role by selecting and marking translation students rigorously and by encouraging them in these areas.

Conclusion of Part III

On the whole, the employers considered the training provided by university translation programs to be more or less adequate, but far from perfect. There was little agreement on possible improvements, except that the majority favoured more practical training, including the introduction of a co-op program, and closer links with the profession. However, a number of the employers - in some cases the same ones who called for greater emphasis on practical skills - were also in favour of theory, terminology and other auxiliary courses. This apparent contradiction would be possible only if the additional practical training were given outside the university setting, through practicums or co-op work terms.

In most cases, the answers and comments did not appear to reflect the language or training of the employers. However, in the case of the three employers who felt university translation training did not produce better translators, all were Anglophones with degrees in other areas. Although a number of Francophones without translation training considered university translation programs to be the best background, it is not clear that language is the relevant factor since no Anglophones with a degree in translation were interviewed.

CONCLUSION

Since the employers' opinions have been largely summarized in the conclusions following parts I, II and III, this section will attempt to draw some general conclusions. I will first look at employers' expectations regarding translation training programs and then examine certain factors that made some of the information in the questionnaire hard to analyse.

On the basic question of the adequacy of university translation programs, the majority of the employers felt that the training received by translation students was sufficient overall, though numerous and diverse changes were suggested.

One area of general agreement was the need for increased practical training for translation students. All employers considered practicums to be very worthwhile, if not essential, and nearly all favoured the introduction of a co-op option in translation. Moreover, when asked which areas they felt were not

adequately stressed in translation programs, many employers were quick to mention practical skills. Ironically, in the question regarding basic skills, most employers considered translation graduates to be relatively strong in the practical areas of translation skills, methodology, proofreading and ability to cope with deadline pressures. The weaker aspects were writing skills, general knowledge and, to some extent, comprehension. Other areas in which employers felt improvement was needed include new translators' attitude toward their work and their interpersonal skills. One would think, therefore, that the most pressing need would be to work on these areas rather than on practical skills.

There are probably two answers to this apparent contradiction. First, practicums and co-op work terms can no doubt help develop stronger language skills, a more professional attitude and better interpersonal skills, as well as improving practical skills. Second, as employers pointed out numerous times, many aspects of translation ability, including attitude, interpersonal skills and general knowledge, depend a great deal on the individual. Although university translation programs were not expected to be able to "teach" these things, they could encourage their development and should select students carefully.

In addition to providing students with practical training, university translation programs are expected by many employers to give an academic education. The majority of those interviewed felt that theory, terminology, linguistics and other auxiliary courses should be taught, in order for translators to have a more professional perspective. The other type of academic training favoured by many was an introduction to a variety of fields to increase general knowledge and perhaps provide a basis for specialization.

Those interviewed generally agreed that specialization should come only on the job or through additional academic training, but should not be attempted in undergraduate translation programs. Except in legal and strictly technical or scientific translation, employers reported better success with general translators acquiring a specialization than with hiring specialists in a given field. These specialists often had inadequate language skills and difficulty adapting to revision and other aspects of the translator's work. An ideal solution seemed to be for a good translator to return to university for specialized training.

These, then, seem to be the employers' expectations with respect to university translation programs. First, student selection should be rigorous, in order to choose those with the right personal qualities. Second, considerable practical training should be given, at least partly in the workplace if possible. Third, the practical training should be complemented by auxiliary courses. Finally, students should be given an introduction to various other fields.

The information gathered was sometimes difficult to analyse for various reasons. For example, although opinions were varied, it was generally not possible to draw distinctions among

employers' views on the basis of language or training. The opinions of Francophones and Anglophones, and those with translation training and those without generally overlapped. This may be because the sample of employers was small. In particular, there were no Anglophones with translation training. Only a more extensive study would reveal whether opinions break down along those lines.

Another problem with this sample of only ten interviewees is that all but one work for the federal Translation Bureau. It is therefore difficult to know whether the responses given are representative of translation employers in general.

Moreover, to permit a useful comparison with translation graduates in Part II, the questionnaire would have to deal separately with those non-translation graduates who are specialists in certain fields and those who are generalists. The two groups are different in terms of both basic skills and longer-term development.

Finally, it was often difficult to decide how many of those interviewed were in favour of or opposed to certain points not specifically mentioned in the question. The fact that a given view was expressed by one person but not by someone else was not necessarily indicative, unless the opposite was said. For example, a few mentioned that training had improved, but since this was not one of the questions asked, we do not know whether the others agree. The only way to assess such views would be to conduct a second interview to obtain reactions to others' opinions.

In conclusion, this study revealed certain shared opinions regarding translation graduates, non-translation graduates and the adequacy of university translator training programs. However, a larger, more thorough study would be required to draw solid conclusions.

INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE FOR MANAGERS AND EMPLOYERS

Part I - Translation graduates

1. Do translation graduates have sufficient basic skills - ie, are they extremely weak in any of the following areas?
 - (a) writing (correct grammar, wide resources in TL)
 - (b) comprehension in SL
 - (c) translation (judgment, independence, conveying message without major errors)
 - (d) methodology (text analysis, research skills)
 - (e) proofreading
 - (f) general knowledge
 - (g) ability to cope with production and deadline pressures
2. Do you prefer translation graduates to have a specialization? If so, which areas are most useful? Do you feel the university translation program should provide this specialized training?
3. Do translation graduates who have done a practicum
 - (a) have a higher pass rate on the competition exam?
 - (b) adapt more quickly to the workplace?

Part II Translation graduates versus non-translation graduates

1. Proportion of translation graduates versus non-translation graduates who (a) pass the competition (b) are hired.
2. Do translation graduates and non-translation graduates have different problems and weaknesses to overcome in terms of the basic skills above? In general, do translation graduates adapt more easily or vice versa?
3. Are there differences in longer-term development?
 - (a) promotion/time required to reach working level
 - (b) development of specialization
 - (c) length of employment
 - (d) ongoing professional development (membership in professional associations; courses, seminars, etc)

Part III Conclusion

1. Are universities training translation students adequately? What do you feel are the areas that are not adequately stressed in translation programs?
2. Can you suggest any changes? For example, would you favour
 - (a) the introduction of a co-op program?
 - (b) more or less emphasis on translation theory, auxiliary courses such as linguistics, terminology, documentation?
 - (c) addition of a basic skills course (text analysis, research methodology, proofreading and so on)?
3. Other comments?

APPENDIX 2 - 1991-92 PROGRAM OF THE TRANSLATION BUREAU'S
TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT SERVICE

The Training and Development Service of the Secretary of State Department's Linguistic Services Division planned to offer the following activities in 1991-92:

Activities for Francophones

- Formation initiale (3 weeks)
- Formation initiale des terminologues (3 weeks)
- Ressourcement des traducteurs (4 days)
- Formation des chefs d'équipe - volet révision (3 weeks)
- Ressourcement des chefs d'équipe - volet révision (4 days)
- Formation des contrôleurs de la qualité + suivi (2 days)
- Sensibilisation au contrôle de la qualité (1 day)
- Adaptation à la destination (2 days)
- Autorévision (1 day)
- Encadrement de stagiaires en traduction ($\frac{1}{2}$ day)
- Encadrement de stagiaires en terminologie ($\frac{1}{2}$ day)
- Gestion du temps pour les traducteurs (1 day)
- Gestion du temps pour les terminologues (1 day)
- Principes d'expression écrite (1 day)
- Principes de rédaction en terminologie (1 day)
- Principes de rédaction législative (1 day)
- Principes de révision (1 day)
- Recherche terminologique (1 day)
- Reformulation
- Traduction des noms géographiques
- Traduction technique
- Traduction de textes à caractère financier
- Traduction de textes mal rédigés

Activities for Anglophones

- Adaptation to end use
- Practicum supervision
- Principles of legislative drafting
- Skills review
- Translating poorly written source texts
- Translation Quality Control

APPENDIX 3 - DEVELOPMENT OF TRANSLATOR TRAINING AT THE UNIVERSITY OF OTTAWA AND THE UNIVERSITY OF MONTREAL

Although the first B.A. Honours program in translation was introduced only in 1968, translator training in Canada dates back much further. The two pioneers in this area are the University of Ottawa and the University of Montreal.

1. University of Ottawa

The first course in professional translation was offered at the University of Ottawa in 1936. Designed and taught by Pierre Daviault, this two-year course in English-French translation combined "theory" - principles and tricks of the translation trade - with practice through weekly assignments. Provided to between fifteen and forty students each year, it helped aspiring and relatively new translators pass the entrance and advancement examinations of the Civil Service (Daviault 1957, 152-3). In 1950, a course in French-to-English translation was added, under the direction of Clément Beauchamp. It is worth noting that the French-to-English course seems to have been intended for Francophones rather than Anglophones: not only was it given by the French department, but also the four instructors who succeeded each other during the nineteen years the course was offered were French translators.

In the mid-1960s, hopes were raised that a more or less independent translation school would be created in the capital, perhaps jointly by Carleton University and the University of Ottawa ("École . . ." 1967, 34). A joint committee developed a detailed plan and even obtained approval in principle from the senates of the two universities (Delisle 1981, 13). However, the plan was never implemented.

In place of such a school, a graduate-level translation program was established in 1968 by the University of Ottawa under its new Linguistics and Modern Languages Department. This M.A. program included a strong linguistics component, a thesis or lengthy translation and only two courses involving translation practice, along with a compulsory practicum. In 1971, the School of Translators and Interpreters (STI) was set up as a distinct department. In addition to the M.A. program inherited from the linguistics department, the fledgling STI offered an undergraduate program leading to a B.A. Honours in Applied Linguistics (Translation). This program, like the M.A., had a strong linguistics bias and included few practical translation courses. In the first few years of its existence, the undergraduate program was changed to a B.A. Honours in Translation and given a strong professional orientation. Following the changes in the B.A. program, the M.A. program was revised between 1974 and 1976 to concentrate on research rather than on professional training. The title of the degree was changed in 1983 from M.A. in Applied Linguistics (Translation) to M.A. in Translation. The M.A. program was also modified along the way to accommodate part-time students, who constitute the majority in M.A. courses.

Since its beginnings, STI has made various other changes and additions through five directors and one acting director. In 1976, an accelerated B.A. program was created for students already holding an undergraduate degree. An option for anglophones was added in 1978. In 1980, a certificate program in French and English writing

techniques got under way. A graduate diploma in interpretation was offered in 1982 for the first time, and six courses in sign-language interpretation were also initiated that year. In 1986, diploma programs in legal translation and in Spanish translation were added. The most recent addition, in 1988, was the co-op option under the Honours B.A. program.

2. University of Montreal

Soon after the first translation course was offered in Ottawa, similar courses were organized in Montreal. Set up in 1940 by Jeanne Grégoire, these night courses were given by Georges Panneton. Two years later, Grégoire and Panneton founded the Institut de traduction, which became affiliated with the University of Montreal in 1944 (Vinay 1957, 150-1). Between 1945 and 1953, translation courses were also offered by correspondence. The Institut added two new courses during this period: one in interpretation in 1949 and one for Civil Service exam candidates in 1950 (Delisle, 1987). In 1965, the Institut was placed under the University's extension service, and a translation certificate program was created in 1968 as part of the continuing education service.

In the meanwhile, degree programs in translation had been set up by the University of Montreal's linguistics department.¹ The first to be initiated was a translation option at the graduate level. Jean-Paul Vinay was responsible for this program, which provided training for aspiring translators, while including a thesis requirement (Vinay 1957, 148). The program became an M.A. in translation in 1965. In 1968, the department's translation section established a three-year "licence" in translation to replace the two-year M.A. program, and planned to set up a specialized translation diploma, which could be taken after the licence (Bernier 1968, 93). However, this specialized diploma was never launched and the licence was changed to a B.A. the following year (1969).

After a lapse of three years, the department's translation section again offered an M.A. in applied linguistics with an option in translation in 1971. This program has since evolved into an M.A. in translation, offering professional training to those with a degree in another discipline, and further training and some opportunity for specialization for those with a B.A. in translation. In addition, an M.A. in applied linguistics (terminology) is available for those wishing to specialize in terminology. Both M.A. programs include an optional practicum.

These programs, like the B.A. Honours program, are still offered in the department of linguistics. Despite the number of translation-related programs at the University of Montreal and despite the large number of translation students, translation has always been a "section" of the larger department of linguistics. The University of Montreal granted approval in 1971 for the establishment of an independent school of translators, but the plan did not become a reality.

Despite the fact that the University of Montreal's translation programs have not gained a department of their own, they have broken new ground in a number of areas. The M.A. program, established in

¹ The name of the department has changed several times over the years.

1951, predates all other graduate and undergraduate programs by nearly two decades. Moreover, the University of Montreal has played a major role in the development of machine translation systems and terminology banks in Canada. Its research efforts in machine translation date back to 1965, and in the mid seventies it developed the very successful MÉTÉO system for the translation into French of weather forecasts. In 1968, work began on a terminology bank, which was later taken over by the federal government and served as the basis for what is now Termium III.

These then are the major milestones in translator training at the University of Ottawa and the University of Montreal, the two pioneers in translator training in Canada. Although the translation programs in the two universities have evolved somewhat differently, each has a number of achievements to its credit and has had substantial influence on translator training in other Canadian universities.

APPENDIX 4 - QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN INTERVIEWS
WITH EDUCATORS

A. TRANSLATION COURSES

I. Level of skills of students

1. Do you feel that translation students are adequately prepared in the following areas:

- (a) general knowledge (Explain)
- (b) comprehension of source language (L1, L2) (Explain)
- (c) target-language writing skills (L1, L2) (Explain)

2. How long have you been teaching practical translation courses? Do you find that students' skills have improved or worsened over this period?

- (a) general knowledge (Explain)
- (b) comprehension of source language (L1, L2) (Explain)
- (c) target-language writing skills (L1, L2) (Explain)

II. Methodology

1. (a) What is your teaching approach for practical translation courses, and why?

- Do you use text translation only, text translation + other exercises? What types of texts do you use (non-literary, literary); typical of working texts or polished)?

- Do you use a particular theoretical approach or textbook?

(b) Have you seen changes over the years in

- (i) your own teaching methodology
- (ii) the methodology used by others

III. Programs

1. Do you feel that the content of translation programs is adequately sequenced? In theory? In practice?

2. In your opinion, is there sufficient consultation among professors regarding the content of translation courses?

IV. Transition to the workplace

1. Do you feel there is a gap between the level of skill required of translation graduates by the universities and the level at which employers are willing to hire? If so, how could this gap be bridged?

2. What would you do if you were in a position to make changes to training (short-term changes, long-term changes)?

B. WRITING COURSES

I. What contribution do you feel writing make to a translator training program?

II. Level of skills of students

Do you feel that the writing skills of translation students

- are generally adequate?
- are weaker than those of students some years ago?
- tend to be strong or weak in particular areas?

II. Methodology

1. (a) What is your teaching approach for writing courses in translator training programs, and why?

- Do you use of a particular theoretical approach or textbook?
- What types of exercises do you find most useful?

(b) Have you seen changes over the years in

- (i) your own teaching methodology?
- (ii) the methodology used by others?

APPENDIX 5 - LIST OF PERSONS CONSULTED AND INTERVIEWED

Translation service managers interviewed

Donald Barabé, Director, Justice Section, Translation Bureau
 Jacques Carrière, Director, Environment Section, Translation Bureau
 Alain Hogue, Team Leader, Energy, Mines and Resources Section,
 Translation Bureau
 Nada Kerpan, Director, Linguistic Services, Bell Canada
 Louis Martineau, Director, Regional Industrial Expansion Section,
 Translation Bureau
 Nick Todd, Chief, English Translation I, Translation Bureau
 Eddy Verreault, former Director, National Defence Section,
 Translation Bureau
 Gail Wagdin, Chief, English Translation II, Translation Bureau
 Roland Wesemaël, Director, Transport Section, Translation Bureau
 Malcolm Williams, Director, Linguistic Services, Translation Bureau

Professionals and educators consulted

- Professionals

Joan Boyer, Association of Translators and Interpreters of Manitoba
 Hendrik Burgers, President, Association of Translators and
 Interpreters of Ontario
 Anne Godin, Alberta Association of Translators and Interpreters
 Michael Hundt, Mitel Corporation
 Michel Limbos, former President, Canadian Translators and Interpreters
 Council
 Elliott Macklovitch, Canadian Workplace Automation Research Centre
 Juanita Miller, Society of Translators and Interpreters of British
 Columbia
 Mary Plaice, President, Canadian Translators and Interpreters Council

- Educators

Jacqueline Bossé-Andrieu, School of Translators and Interpreters,
 University of Ottawa
 Annick Chapdelaine, French Language and Literature Department,
 McGill University
 Jean Delisle, School of Translators and Intepreters, University of
 Ottawa
 Lise Dubois, Département de traduction et langues, Université de
 Moncton
 Ronald Henry, School of Translators and Interpreters, Laurentian
 University
 Amal Jammal, Département de linguistique et philologie, University de
 Montreal

Louise Larivière, Secteur de traduction, Collège universitaire de
Saint-Boniface, University of Manitoba
Robert Larose, Département des langues modernes, Université du Québec
à Trois-Rivières
Alan Manning, Département de langues et linguistique, Université Laval
Geneviève Mareschal, School of Translators and Intepreters, University
of Ottawa
Pamela Russell, School of Translators and Intepreters, University of
Ottawa
Candace Séguinot, School of Translation, Glendon College, York
University
Agnes Whitfield, Department of French Studies, Queen's University
Judith Woodsworth, Département d'études françaises, Concordia
University

APPENDIX 6 - LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS USED

ACTRA: Alliance of Canadian Cinema, Television and Radio Artists

ACET: Association canadienne des écoles de traduction (English title:
CAST)

ATIO: Association of Translators and Interpreters of Ontario

CAST: Canadian Association of Schools of Translation (French title:
ACET)

CTIC: Canadian Council of Translators and Interpreters

GIRSTERM: Groupe interdisciplinaire de recherche scientifique et
appliquée en terminologie

STI: School of Translators and Interpreters (University of Ottawa)

STQ: Société des traducteurs du Québec

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