



An LSP framework for translation and interpreting pedagogy

Enrique Cerezo Herrero · <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1170-8488>

Universitat Politècnica de València

Camino de Vera, s/n · 46022 · Valencia · España

Astrid Schmidhofer¹ · <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6287-3032>

University of Innsbruck

Institut für Translationswissenschaft · Herzog-Siegfried-Ufer 15 · 6020 Innsbruck · Austria

Melita Koletnik · <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4890-1177>

University of Maribor

Filozofska fakulteta UM · Koroška cesta 160 · 2000 Maribor · Slovenia

ABSTRACT

In this article, we present a pedagogical framework for foreign language teaching in undergraduate translation and interpreting programmes. Within Translation Studies, many scholars support the idea that TILLT (Translation- and Interpreting-oriented Language Learning and Teaching) should be framed within the teaching of Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP), as students will use language as a professional tool in their professional lives. Based on insights from LSP research and practice, the area of Translation Studies dedicated to the development of language competence and expertise research, we have selected and described the key aspects for the development of professional language use in Translation and Interpreting pedagogy. We have then connected them in a framework to show how they interact and influence each other.

Key words: language teaching, TILLT, LSP, translation and interpreting pedagogy, translator and interpreter training

RESUMEN

En este artículo presentaremos un marco pedagógico para la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras en los programas de grado de Traducción e Interpretación. Dentro de los Estudios de Traducción, muchos estudiosos apoyan la idea de que TILLT (Aprendizaje y Enseñanza de Lenguas orientados a la Traducción e Interpretación) debería enmarcarse dentro de la enseñanza de lenguas con fines específicos (LFE), ya que los estudiantes utilizarán la lengua como herramienta profesional en su vida laboral. Basándonos en las aportaciones desde el ámbito de la investigación y la práctica de LFE, el área de los Estudios de Traducción dedicada al desarrollo de la competencia lingüística y la experiencia en investigación, hemos seleccionado y descrito los aspectos más importantes para el desarrollo del uso profesional de la lengua en la pedagogía de la traducción y la interpretación. A continuación, los hemos conectado en un marco para mostrar cómo interactúan y se influyen mutuamente.

Palabras clave: enseñanza de idiomas, TILLT, LFE, pedagogía de la traducción y la interpretación, formación de traductores e intérpretes

1. Introduction

Foreign language competence is a *sine qua non* condition for the undertaking of translation and interpreting tasks (Nord, 2011; Schmidhofer & Ahmann, 2015). As the EMT Competence Framework (2017: 6) puts it, “language specific linguistic, sociolinguistic, cultural and transcultural knowledge and skill [...] constitute the

¹ Corresponding author · Email: astrid.schmidhofer@uibk.ac.at



basis for advanced translation competence”. However, as Kiraly (2000: 181) stated more than two decades ago, “the wealth of articles, monographs and conferences on translation studies [...] is marked by a virtual absence of contributions dealing with the role of second language learning and teaching in translator education”. Nowadays, the situation has improved and the number of contributions is increasing (see, e.g., the edited volumes by Koletnik & Froeliger, 2019; Schmidhofer & Cerezo Herrero, 2021). However, additional language teaching (ALT)² is still not given the prominence it deserves within Translation and Interpreting (TI) programmes (see, e.g., Carrasco, 2017; Cerezo Herrero, 2019, 2020; Cerezo Herrero & Schmidhofer, 2021). Also, vice versa, translation in general language teaching and in LSP has, for a long time, led a marginal existence; nevertheless, over the past two decades, it has played an increasingly important role (Cook, 2010; Leonardi, 2010; González Davies, 2017; Carreres & Noriega-Sánchez, 2018).

Despite this lack of attention, most translation competence models include a sub-competence in foreign language proficiency (see, e.g., Göpferich, 2008; PACTE, 2017; EMT 2009, 2017) as a necessary element to run the translation process (Singer, Rubio & Rubio, 2019). Additionally, the specific literature available highlights that ALT within TI programmes should not adhere to general foreign language teaching tenets (Berenguer, 1997; Angelelli & Degueldre, 2002; Ahmann & Schmidhofer 2017; Cruz García, 2017) and underscores the importance of framing it within a specific language teaching approach (Cruz García, 2017; Cerezo Herrero, 2019; Koletnik, 2020). Despite these reasonable claims, the lack of research and methodological guidelines has indirectly led language lecturers to frequently adopt a more generalist focus in their teaching, closely resembling language teaching in philology programmes (Hernández & Cruz García, 2009; Gallego & Tolosa, 2010), and dissociating itself from its general purpose of training translators (Gallego & Tolosa, 2010).

That said, it is noteworthy that in recent years, interest in this area of study has grown. However, no specific teaching framework has been adopted to date, leaving language lecturers to their own devices when it comes to designing courses and promoting language competence so that the requirements imposed by translation and interpreting tasks can be met. With all this in mind, in this paper we attempt to bridge this gap by establishing an LSP teaching framework in keeping with the linguistic needs of prospective translators and interpreters. We hope that it can help language lecturers in their endeavours to delineate foreign language courses with greater precision and design tailored-made teaching materials.

2. Literature review

2.1. LSP applied to Translation Studies

Additional languages are a fundamental element of TI programmes, as a sound linguistic knowledge is necessary to carry out cross-cultural mediation activities.³ For this reason, most TI programmes offer a series of additional language courses to meet this training need. Language teaching usually precedes translation (and interpreting) courses or run parallel to them, as they are meant to provide students with the linguistic tools necessary for translation activities (Oster, 2003; Schmidhofer & Ahmann, 2015). Students require both a high command of

² “Additional” language refers to any language learned “in addition” to a student’s first language (L1). We use the term because of its inclusivity; additional language can refer to a second, third or any further language learned by a student in either the country where this language is spoken as L1 or any other country.

³ In this article, we use *mediation* as a summative expression for all TI activities.

the additional language per se and a sound knowledge of the kind of language that they are to encounter in translation/interpreting modules so that these can be successfully completed.

In this regard, “translation programs must provide effective, tailor-made language courses for translation students” (Li, 2001: 343), and as such, the teaching objectives should be designed in accordance with this specific reality (Berenguer, 1999; Gallego & Tolosa, 2010), going beyond those pursued in general purpose courses implemented in higher education (Cruz García, 2017; Seidl & Janisch, 2019). Against this backdrop, it seems only logical that language teaching in TI programmes should fall within LSP so that the students’ basic linguistic training needs are catered to through these courses (Malmkjaer, 2004).

According to Basturkmen & Elder, LSP is generally used to refer to the “teaching and research of language in relation to the communicative needs of speakers of a second language in facing a particular workplace, academic, or professional context” (2004: 672). In addition to methodology, content, aims, materials, and teaching and assessment practices, it is primarily the relevance of the purpose of future use of language and consequently the primacy of need to prioritise certain language competences that distinguishes an LSP course from a general language one (see, e.g., Belcher, 2009; Johns, 2013; Trace, Hudson & Brown, 2015). Consequently, needs analysis lies at the very heart of LSP teaching (see, e.g., Robinson, 1991; Dudley-Evans & St John, 2012; Huhta et al, 2013). In addition to taking into account the learner’s needs, and their academic and professional goals, Belcher (2009) also highlights the need to identify the gap between learners’ current and target competences and, in particular, to recognize and address specific (target) needs.

In terms of methodology, Dudley-Evans & St John (2012), referring to English for Specific Purposes (ESP), which remains the most frequently researched language in the LSP context to date, stress the following two aspects: all ESP teaching should reflect the methodology of the disciplines and professions it serves; the nature of interaction between the teacher and learner may be very different from that in a general English class. To cater to the specific needs of their learners, teachers need to identify “specific language features, discourse practices and communicative skills of target groups, and adapt their teaching practices to particular subject matter and learners’ expertise” (Hyland, 2002: 385–386).

In short, by applying a specific methodology, LSP courses focus on the learner’s needs, i.e., the gap between their current and target competences, and their future language use, along with the specific activities they will carry out as language users, most likely in their professional lives. The *methodology*, *needs*, and *use* orientation also justifies why the notion of LSP lends itself to being used in ALT for translators.

The idea of labelling ALT in Translation Studies as a type of LSP was first put forward by Berenguer (1997). Ever since, a multitude of authors have seized upon the idea that TILLT should be regarded as a type of LSP (Cerezo, 2015, 2019; Carrasco, 2019; Koletnik, 2020, amongst others). Nonetheless, despite the self-evident pedagogical value of LSP for additional language teaching in TI programmes, teaching proposals based on LSP have been scarce to date. The study conducted by Carrasco (2017) in Spain shows that LSP, despite being the approach most advocated in the literature, is not playing out in educational practice. This could be attributed, on the one hand, to the lack of clear-cut teaching guidelines, as most studies lack practical applicability in approach; and on the other hand, to the lack of a specific LSP framework applied to translation and interpreting. The dire result is that, despite students achieving advanced proficiency in the additional language, lecturers in MA programmes are compelled to delve into domain-specific language use to help bridge the gap between advanced language proficiency and professional language use (see Angelelli & Degueldre, 2002).

In the case of English, Cerezo Herrero (2019) has presented one of the most cutting-edge proposals to date. Based on the ESP model of Dudley-Evans and Jo St. John (1998), he established a new branch within *English for Academic Purposes* called *English for Translation Purposes*. This branch is flanked by two filters: a thematic filter aimed at covering the broad spectrum of topics that a translator may be faced with throughout their professional career, for which the author uses the classification of the fields of Science and Technology proposed by the United Nations International Commission on Education and UNESCO's International Nomenclature, while the second filter refers to methodology, i.e., teaching aspects of the training process specific to this type of teaching.

2.2. Why is LSP-based TILLT needed?

A frequently used approach to ALT in TI programmes is communicative language teaching. This approach is suitable for TILLT, as it helps students develop general language competence, which is undoubtedly useful for all translators and interpreters. At the same time, it also promotes a vision of language as a form of human action similar to functionalist views in translation theory (Holz-Mänttari, 1984; Nord, 2011), necessitating the use of authentic texts (Kiraly, 2000), focus on meaning, function and context, discourse competence, and discovery techniques (Szabó, 2019), to mention but a few key issues at the interface between Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and translator training. CLT alone, however, is insufficient to satisfy the specific needs imposed by the profession. In CLT, the focus lies mostly in the personal and professional needs of learners, while prospective TI professionals must not only acquire the language for professional mediation, but also grow into the mediator's role (Schmidhofer & Ahmann, 2015; Seidl, 2021), which includes the use of their entire linguistic repertoire. This role requires a "language toolkit" with a level of grammatical and lexical accuracy that is not often found in the communicative language classroom where the fulfilment of the communicative task is a given priority (Ahmann & Schmidhofer, 2017).

The ultimate goal of ALT courses in TI programmes is the enhancement of Translation Competence. This is already a distinctive element, setting TILLT apart from other teaching approaches. The competences of foreign language courses need to be defined in accordance with the competences that students will require to manage their subsequent translation and interpreting courses and the demands that the profession places on them (Schmidhofer & Ahmann, 2015). This is why the promotion of language skills needs to be adapted to this teaching reality. What's more, language skills can be developed on par with other translation and interpreting courses, thus fulfilling different training objectives in line with students' respective linguistic needs. In the Spanish context, Adams and Cruz García (2015) maintain that reading is the skill that is further enhanced in language courses within TI programmes. Reading is given priority from the outset, as translation cannot take place without a thorough understanding of the source text (see Möller Runge, 2001), and the way a reader-translator approaches the text is vastly different to the type of reading performed by an ordinary reader (Weinberg, Caamaño & Mondaca, 2018).

Similarly, listening comprehension is reported to require higher processing levels than general listening comprehension. The literature available so far highlights the need to put into practice a type of active listening (Cerezo Herrero, 2017), i.e., a type of listening that involves a full understanding of the discourse beyond the linguistic level through the simultaneous implementation of a set of specific cognitive processes. Research on written and oral expression skills is scarcer, although they cannot be disregarded in ALT in TI programmes. Oral expression, in particular, seems to frequently be missing from TI programmes (Schmidhofer, Cerezo Herrero & Koletnik, 2021). In the case of written expression, Cerezo Herrero (2020) argues that the translation labour

market requires great flexibility and versatility on the part of its practitioners. This implies that directionality in translation should not be a stumbling block. Thus, written expression should thus prepare the students for inverse translation.

Another key element is the work at the interface of two different linguistic codes. During the 20th century, mainstream approaches in ALT generally adhered to monolingualism in the classroom (Cook, 2010) and envisaged future language use almost exclusively in a monolingual environment. This is still noticeable in many language learning settings nowadays, even though since the beginning of the century, and particularly since the idea of *plurilingual competence* was put forward in the CEFR in mid-1990s (CEFR 2001), plurilingual activities have found their way into the language classroom (Reimann & Rössler, 2013; González-Davis, 2017) and SLA theories (see translanguaging approaches, e.g., Baker, 1996; García, 2008; García & Wei, 2014). Working with two languages in parallel, comparing language at various levels and switching between them is central in all TI-related professions. This is why scholars of TILLT advocate that contrasting and comparing languages and analysing differences on a structural, semantic and cultural level need to be part of TILLT from the beginning (Schmidhofer, 2013).

Finally but importantly, there is the need for teachers to become sensitized to the requirements of ALT for TILLT, and to receive appropriate pedagogical training. The problem seems to rest with European higher education in general because, as the European Commission observed already in 2017, “too many higher education teachers have received little or no pedagogical training and systematic investment in teachers’ continuous professional development remains the exception” (European Commission, 2017). The TRAILS project confirmed for general LSP teaching that there were almost no formal and/or substantial teacher education courses for LSP in the EU. They also found a mismatch between the actual job demands of LSP teachers and the pedagogical training they received, which did not prepare them sufficiently for professional demands related to their LSP context (TRAILS booklet n. d.). The statement may well be applied to Translation Programmes, and the problem needs further professional as well as scholarly attention.

2.3. Relevant insights from expertise research

The general aim of translator and interpreter training is educating students to become translators and interpreters who perform consistently at an expert level. Since its beginnings, it has been central to the discipline to contrast expert behaviour with that of novices or laymen, even though these may have a good knowledge of languages (e.g., Holz-Mänttari, 1984; Kiraly, 2000; PACTE, 2017). The aim of educating students to be well-prepared for the requirements of the professional world was further promoted by the Bologna process, particularly its maxim of *employability* (The Bologna Process, 2020).

Ericsson & Charness (1997: 6) define expert performance as “consistently superior performance on a specified set of *representative tasks* for the domain”⁴ and show that “the central mechanisms mediating the superior performance of experts are acquired” (*ibid*: 18). In a previous contribution, Ericsson, Krampe & Tesch-Romer (1993) argue that experience alone is not enough and what is needed to become an expert is *deliberate practice*. Altuweirash (2017: 113), who applies the concept of deliberate practice to second language learning, identifies six elements of deliberate practice: motivation, concentration, teacher, task, immediate feedback and repeated performance.

⁴ Italics in the original

As mentioned above, the notion of *expert performance* is also central to Translation Studies. In the area of written translation in the last thirty years, various models have been developed to reflect and describe this expert behaviour (e.g., Göpferich, 2008; Kiraly, 2013; EMT, 2017; PACTE, 2017). From the validation process of their translation competence model, the PACTE group (2017) concluded that “translation competence is an acquired competence that is different from bilingual competence” (2017: 281); it affects the quality of the product and is strategy-driven (2017: 281-289). In their studies, high performers showed characteristics of expert performance, which are as follows (2017: 293-294): superior performance, qualitative differences in the representation of knowledge, more highly developed structuring and interconnection of knowledge (see Kiraly, 2013), more highly developed procedural knowledge and more efficient use of documentation strategies.

Also, in the area of interpreting studies, the notion of *expertise* has been found useful to describe the performance of professional interpreters (e.g., Chabasse, 2008; Moser-Mercer, 2008). While in the area of translation, comparisons often involve competent bilinguals, in interpreting studies the focus lies in expert/novice comparisons as bilinguals might translate, but only in few cases interpret, let alone simultaneously (see Moser-Mercer et al. 2000: 18; Köpke & Nespoulous, 2006). Moser-Mercer (2008) stresses the importance of acquiring adaptive expertise which goes beyond performing efficiently in routine situations and the ability to “adapt to new problems experts have never faced before and to approach new domain areas” (2008: 8). The idea that expertise can be developed through practice was also taken up by Chabasse (2008), who points out that the concept of *expertise* has proven more suitable than the notion of *talent*.

The ultimate goal of study programmes in TI is the development of expertise in translation and/or interpreting and hence of language use. Students in these programmes are expected to use language for professional purposes, i.e., for mediating across language barriers, and not for fulfilling personal communicative needs (Schmidhofer & Ahmann, 2015). This role as communication experts requires a high level of language and its use should go beyond general communicative competence. The idea of deliberate practice as explained above can help in the development of this expertise because it helps define goals, minimises the importance of talent, promotes meta-cognition, and helps create tools and opportunities for purposeful practice. Furthermore, the idea of deliberate practice can also be used to promote learner autonomy and learner-centred teaching (Altuweirash, 2017: 114).

3. An LSP-based framework for TILLT

In this section, we present our ALT framework proposal for TI programmes. It is a global and holistic model composed of different interconnected elements, based on empirical evidence and previous theoretical studies and translation competence models as described in section 2. At the centre we can find *professional language use*, derived from the notion that foreign language teaching in TI studies should be framed within an LSP approach. This central element is flanked by three other elements on both sides and at the top: *language skills*, which take on a distinctive and unique role within this training; *teaching materials*, which must respond to specific training needs; and the *thematic spectrum*, i.e., the idea that a translator must be able to linguistically cope with any field of expertise. In the upper part, we find the *contrastive perspective* connected with skills, materials and the thematic spectrum, as it is an inherent methodological aspect of this training, given the need for students to dissociate languages in contact. Finally, in the lower part we find a series of *teacher and student aspects* that have a direct influence on educational practice.

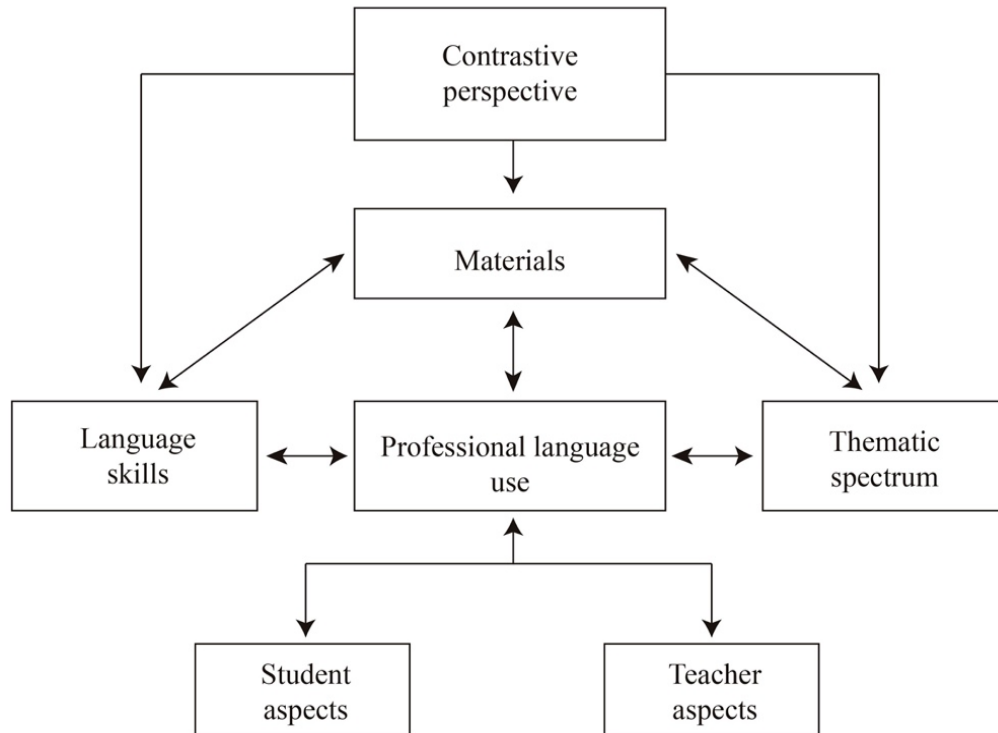


Figure 1. LSP Framework for Translation and Interpreting.

3.1. Core elements

3.1.1. Professional language use

As mentioned, additional languages in a TI programme should be taught with students' future career language use in mind. This is why the central element of the model, referred to as *professional language use*, serves to provide a context for this teaching and put it at the service of a specific purpose.

Vis-à-vis this professional language use principle, we uphold the view that the development of language skills should go beyond communicative language training. Reading comprehension should be understood as a linguistic-textual sub-competence. Translators operate at textual level (Hurtado, 2011), which goes beyond the mere substitution of linguistic material from one language to another (Ruzicka, 2003). Hence, there is a need to not only understand the intralinguistic elements of the text but also the extralinguistic ones. The translator has to develop the ability to decode a text and access its deeper structure through a pragmatic analysis of its textual elements. Additionally, the translator needs to access both the author's intention and what is implicit in the text, so full comprehension is achieved by bringing in their previous knowledge and through the correct combination of bottom-up and top-down processes (see Kußmaul, 2015).

On this basis, we view it as necessary to work on texts from both a macro-textual and micro-textual viewpoint. At a macro-textual level, students should apply skimming strategies in order to determine the function of the text, the target audience, the communicative purpose as well as the textual conventions of that textual typology and the context. Students should also be able to identify possible intertextual references and how they could be best approached as well as interpret the semiotic elements that contribute to the construction of meaning in the text. At a micro-textual level, both vocabulary and grammatical structures should be given priority. Vocabulary should preferably be studied in context and words should be semantically analyzed in order for the student to grasp shades of meaning and connotation. Additionally, synonyms and equivalents in the student's L2 and L1 should be provided and semantically analysed so that they can become aware of the extent to which the word in the original matches the nuances of the target word and, if necessary, come up with strategies that could make up for the loss of meaning.

We recommend a linear progression when dealing with texts. We cannot lose sight of the fact that the vast majority of students come from secondary education and are not used to analyzing texts beyond their superficial level. Therefore, instruction should begin with more general texts, with a progression towards semi-specialized texts and ultimately, specialized texts.

As for grammar, emphasis should be placed on the analysis of structural patterns and uses that differ between the foreign language and the student's L1. Grammar should thus be worked on in context rather than through isolated sentences or exercises devoid of a context. Students need to understand how grammar is integrated into the text and how it contributes to the overall meaning of the text.

3.1.2. Other language skills

Listening comprehension should also go beyond the mere understanding of aural input. Interpreters must develop a listening capacity that is at variance with common everyday listening practice. They need to understand both implicit and explicit meanings to render a faithful interpretation of the original into the target language, making use of active listening strategies. In addition, listening comprehension should be enhanced along with several cognitive efforts that largely determine the degree of comprehension, namely, short-term memory, note-taking (in the case of consecutive interpreting), decodification and analysis of the message, code-switching and re-expression in the target language. Further, listening practice should also serve to develop strategies that allow students to balance the various simultaneously occurring cognitive processes. Thus, in addition to listening comprehension per se, the pedagogical activities employed should contribute to the automatization of these cognitive processes. The capacity of recognizing different accents, both native and non-native, should also be promoted, especially in English.

Written expression should help develop the student's capacity to perform inverse translation/interpreting. To this end, we propose a two-stage process. In accordance with the textual genre in question, in the first stage students should work with parallel texts so that they become acquainted with the structures and linguistic means used in that particular text genre. Extensive work should also be carried out on linguistic issues such as structures or vocabulary, including collocations, set expressions, etc., common in that textual typology. The second stage would correspond to the writing phase itself. For this purpose, training should move from initial creative writing practice to guided writing. Guided writing is intended to limit the free choice of linguistic resources on the part of the student and avoid the use of circumvention strategies. In this way, we recreate the work conditions of inverse translation. Guided writing can include as many elements as the lecturer wishes. Along with the

instructions for the activity and the context and purpose for writing, the lecturer can provide the student with a set of words, structures or sentences in the L1 to be translated and integrated into the text. Guided writing can also be done with oral reports. The student listens to a news report and then writes a summary.

Speaking should focus on both accuracy and fluency. Accuracy should be achieved in the area of grammar and lexis, but also in pronunciation and prosody. As for fluency, work should concentrate on language chunks to free up cognitive capacity.

3.1.3. Materials

In our framework, materials and teaching resources are directly related to language skills. The ultimate requirement placed on ALT materials in TI programmes is authenticity, either exclusively or in combination with textbooks for general language purposes (semi-authenticity), so that they are reflective of real-life professional situations. Ruzicka (2003) argues that the use of authentic texts responds to two premises: first, they allow compliance with the didactic foundations pursued and, second, they are a clear reflection of the type of texts the student will work with in the future, which also serves as a source of interest and motivation for the student. The texts should have rich input and include language structures and lexis appropriate to the respective level of the students' linguistic knowledge. When making decisions on what type of linguistic knowledge should have primacy – knowing *what* vs. knowing *how* – the latter should have primacy over the former; however, given the students' (generally) advanced linguistic competence, the former should nevertheless not be neglected or entirely neglected (see competences in Schmidhofer & Ahmann, 2015).

The materials development cycle, i.e., all processes involved in the production and/or use of materials for language learning, including evaluation, adaptation, design, production, exploitation and research (Tomlinson, 2012), should be closely connected to needs analysis. The materials should be conducive to students' self-discovery of the language, personalizing the learning experience, and increasing learner autonomy (see section 3.3.2. Student aspects).

Once the materials have been used, teachers will need to evaluate their effectiveness: have they met the objectives of the programme, syllabus, course, and individual classes, and the linguistic needs of individual learners? Have these not been met, the materials development cycle must restart again.

3.1.4. Thematic spectrum

In addition to language skills and materials, our framework incorporates the thematic spectrum as a core element. Current ESP models are insufficient if ALT in TI programs is taken into account (Carrasco, 2017). Although the different LSP branches so far focus on texts directly related to a concrete area of specialty (e.g., legal English, medical English, etc.), the spectrum in Translation Studies needs to be broader, as students are to deal with texts genres from diverse disciplines (Berenguer, 1997). Any written or oral text is open to translation. However, given that it is virtually impossible to cover all existing disciplines, we suggest that teaching should correspond to the fields subsequently taught at the institution in their studies. Notwithstanding this, the fields of specialization can be adapted according to the social environment in which the university is located and the labour market.

3.1.5. Contrastive perspective

Translation and interpreting means working with two different languages simultaneously or going back and forth between them. Professional translators and interpreters must be highly competent in each language, but at the same time they should avoid mixing them or switching between them involuntarily, as they are expected to produce a correct and idiomatic monolingual text or speech.

The nature of the relation of different languages in the human brain remains a topic of debate. According to Wilck, Altarriba, Ramírez Heredia & Schwieter (2019: 391), research attempts to elucidate “if linguistic information in individuals with knowledge of more than one language is stored within a single mental lexicon, or among multiple, separate stores.” Nowadays, the debate has moved on from bilingualism to multilingualism (the coexistence of different languages at the social or individual level) and plurilingualism (the dynamic and developing linguistic repertoire of an individual user/learner). The central idea of both, which is directly applicable to TILLT, is that when translating or interpreting, translators and interpreters utilize their entire linguistic repertoire. If we conceptualize TI as a form of cross-linguistic mediation (Carreres, Noriega-Sánchez & Pintado Gutiérrez, 2021: 2), the bi- or multilingual nature of TI activities needs to be acknowledged and a pluralistic approach to language teaching and learning needs to be applied, i.e., an approach that employs learning activities that involve and utilize all of the students’ languages and cultures.

Issues related to representations, associations and storage in the brain are directly related to TILLT and professional language use in TI contexts. The complex cognitive task of producing a correct, coherent and idiomatic text or speech in a target language based on a source text or speech in a different language requires the ability to relate and dissociate the two languages skilfully. Thus, students must learn to relate additional languages with those already learnt, especially the L1. However, at the same time they must learn to dissociate the languages to prevent interferences and avoid incorrect associations between words and word forms across languages (Schmidhofer, 2013).

Including a contrastive perspective on languages in TILLT will enable students to contrast and compare languages (Möller, 2001), to find similarities and differences and manage their multilingual repertoire more consciously and effectively. Contrastive work can be done at a grammar-systemic level by comparing language forms and their associated functions and at a lexical level by analysing equivalences (see Koller, 2011) and focusing on interference phenomena like false cognates. According to TI scholars (Berenguer, 1999), contrastive work should be especially emphasized at the level of discourse because students deal with texts, rather than linguistic systems (Ruzicka, 2003).

3.2. Teacher and student aspects

3.2.1. Teacher aspects

The application of an LSP lens in ALT for future TI professionals also influences the perception of the role of a TI language teacher and the requirements placed on them. As previously expounded, LSP courses are characterised by their methodology, content, aims, materials, teaching, and assessment practices, all of which stem from specific language uses (see, e.g., Johns, 2013; Trace, Hudson & Brown, 2015). The TRAILS project (TRAILS booklet, n. d.) established the following top five needs for general LSP teachers:

- Analysis of target and learner needs in LSP settings,

- LSP vocabulary teaching,
- LSP materials design and development,
- LSP course design and development, and
- LSP disciplinary context awareness.

In terms of TI language learners' target needs, a detailed needs analysis, comprising, in addition to the above-mentioned aspects, also the establishment of initial vs. target language competence values, and its systematic and regular assessment is a must for any TI language teacher (see Koletnik, 2021).

While specialised vocabulary teaching and materials design and development are discussed under a different heading (see 3.1. Core elements), TI language syllabi, course and lesson designs should also reflect the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline they serve and should centre on language (grammar, register, skills, lexis), discourse and genres appropriate to these activities (see Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998: 4-5).

The teachers' awareness of the special disciplinary context of ALT for future translators and interpreters is the area least researched thus far. Some of the questions that will need to be addressed in this respect are: (i) is knowledge of both (all) students' languages and their systems (linguistic, cultural, values and beliefs) required or beneficial to TI language teachers? (ii) should they, in addition to sound pedagogical content knowledge, i.e., understanding of students' learning abilities, educational context, content, and instructional techniques, also have TI experience? (iii) how deep should their knowledge of specialised vocabulary, discourses and text genres be? (iv) should their teaching strategies incorporate translation strategies? (v) what elements of CLT and other methodologies and approaches are best suited to future TI professionals? The list is by no means exhaustive or exclusive.

3.2.2. Student aspects

The goal of TILLT is to help students achieve the skills and attitudes that will enable them to embark on translation and/or interpreting activities. This journey from a general language user to a language expert who can use their linguistic inventory for professional work with two languages involves long-term development at different levels (for a comparison between general language users and translators, see Schmidhofer & Ahmann, 2015). The improvement of language skills for professional language use and of extralinguistic knowledge has been explained in the sections *language skills* and *thematic spectrum*. However, the development towards a professional language user and mediator also involves a transformational process at a psychological level.

When students enrol in TI programmes at university, most of them come directly from school. Their experience in additional languages is usually related to their own personal needs (e.g., travelling or consuming audiovisual products) and language tasks set in school. Yet, at the end of their university TI programme they should not only have acquired linguistic proficiency and competence in translation and interpreting but also perceive themselves as mediators.

This development in self-perception from language user to language expert and incipient professional translator and interpreter can be supported within TILLT by teacher intervention and the support of personal learner development (Seidl, 2021). Texts and topics brought to the classroom by teachers can touch upon different aspects of the profession(s) and the requirements for it. This will help students identify with the goals set by the

programme and the language modules, make them their own and take responsibility for their own learning process.

The development of high-level language competence takes many years and intensive dedication. However, contact hours in TILLT are far from sufficient (Möller Runge, 2001; Gallego & Tolosa, 2010; Kim & Jing, 2019), even more so in times of distance learning. This is why it is paramount that students become independent and expert learners and engage in forms of deliberate practice (see section 2.3) in order to become language experts and also remain language experts through life-long learning. The necessary learner autonomy can be developed by supporting metacognitive strategies in order to set learning goals, plan the learning process, evaluate the process and the outcome and adapt the learning process accordingly (for a thorough discussion of metacognition in language learning, see Anderson, 2008).

4. Conclusions

Although we concur with Colina (2002: 9) that “regardless of the methodology adopted, language teaching is bound to have an impact on translator training”, we are also of the opinion that the success rate will largely depend upon the teaching model adopted and the extent to which this can mobilize specific skills that the translator/interpreter needs to apply in their day-to-day life.

Such teaching should necessarily be framed within the teaching of Languages for Specific Purposes, at the heart of which lie a detailed needs analysis and an identification of the gap between students’ current and target linguistic competences. To this end, we propose an LSP-based framework for Translation- and Interpreting-oriented Language Learning and Teaching (TILLT), which consists of seven inter-related and inter-dependent elements, i.e., the five core elements: professional language use, language skills, materials, contrastive perspective, and thematic spectrum; and two aspects that focus on teachers and students.

The implications of the proposed model for teachers are that they necessarily have to become acquainted with the demands of the translation and interpreting profession, which means adopting an LSP perspective on language teaching, and incorporate this into their teaching strategies, design and classroom techniques. We believe that Communicative Language Teaching alone is insufficient to cater to all the linguistic needs of TI students as emerging language professionals, and should be thus supplemented by activities that involve contrasting and comparing languages and analysing differences on several levels, e.g., structural, semantic, cultural, etc.

Furthermore, we perceive TI students as future language professionals who will be expected to consistently perform at a very high linguistic level (which may well lie outside the CEFR framework), and language courses in TI programmes should (help) develop such expertise. The students should be encouraged to advance their learner autonomy (i.e., plan, manage and evaluate their own learning) and meta-cognitive skills in order to acquire adaptive expertise, which is characteristic of language experts.

Last but not least, some limitations need to be acknowledged. Although the authors have accumulated extensive practice as researchers and language teachers of TI students in three countries, this framework is based on our own experience and perspective. It should thus be revisited against the backdrop of empirical research so that it can be validated. This, in turn, opens new avenues for research that help lay the methodological foundations of TILLT and define best practices.

Declaration of conflicting interests

The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The author(s) received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

About the authors

Enrique Cerezo Herrero holds a PhD in Translation Studies from the University of Valencia. He is currently Assistant Professor at the Universitat Politècnica de València, where he teaches academic and professional English. In the research arena, his interests lie mainly in the teaching of foreign language languages for translator and interpreter trainees and plurilingual education. His papers have been published in high impact journals such as *Porta Linguarum*, *MONTI*, *Sendebarr*, *Quaderns*, *ELIA*, *Hermeneus*, among others. He has also been principal investigator in several research projects on plurilingual education in the Valencian region.

Astrid Schmidhofer works as a Senior Lecturer at the Department of Translation Studies at the University of Innsbruck. She researches translation and interpreting oriented language teaching and learning and translation pedagogy. She is author of many articles in specialised journals and has edited various books. She currently works as lead researcher in a state-funded project.

Melita Koletnik instructs students of English translation at the University of Maribor in Slovenia. She has a PhD in Translation Studies and joined academia from the ranks of professional translators. In addition to translation competence development, assessment and evaluation in additional language teaching and translation, she researches the contested relationship between translation and other associated bi- and multilingual practices, on which she has contributed several articles, organised a conference, and co-edited a monograph. She is a Fulbright Fellow (2015) and recipient of the Go Styria research grant at the University of Graz, Austria (2018).

References

- Adams, H. & Cruz García, L. (2015). Towards LSP (I) – language teaching for future interpreters. In *Proceedings from the V Congreso Sociedad Española de Lenguas Modernas*. Sevilla: Bienza, 29-40.
- Ahmann, H. & Schmidhofer, A. (2017). Translationsdidaktik 15 Jahre nach Bologna – zur Notwendigkeit einer Verringerung der Verschulung und zur Integration und Abgrenzung vom GERS in der Sprachausbildung. In E. Schwarz & U. Stachl-Peier (Eds.), *Das Spiel der Sprachen 4* (pp. 9-36). Graz: Grazer Translation Studies.eng
- Altuweirash, N. (2017). Deliberate Practice in Second Language Learning: A Concept whose Time has Come. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 4(3), 111-115.

- Angelelli, C. & Degueldre, C. (2002). Bridging the gap between language for general purposes and language for work: An intensive Superior-level language/skill course for teachers, translators, and interpreters. In B. Lou Leaver & B. Shekhtman (Eds.), *Developing Professional-level Language Proficiency* (pp. 91-110). Cambridge/New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Anderson, N. (2008). Metacognition and the good language learner. In C. Griffiths (Eds.), *Lessons from Good Language Learners* (pp. 99-109). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Baker, C. (1996). *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* (2nd Edition). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Basturkmen, H. & Elder, C. (2004). The practice of LSP. In A. Davies and C. Elder (Eds.), *Handbook of Applied Linguistics* (pp. 672-694). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Belcher, D. (2009). What ESP is and can be: An introduction. In D. Belcher (Eds.), *English for Specific Purposes in Theory and Practice* (pp. 1-20). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Berenguer, L. (1997). *L'ensenyament de llengües estrangeres per a traductors: Didàctica de l'alemany*. PhD Dissertation. Barcelona, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona.
- Berenguer, L. (1999). Cómo preparar la traducción en la clase de lenguas extranjeras. *Quaderns. Revista de traducció*, 4, 135-150.
- Carrasco Flores, J.A. (2017). *English for Translation and Interpreting. A cognitive and methodological framework of reference for materials analysis and development*. PhD Dissertation. Madrid: Universidad Complutense de Madrid.
- Carrasco Flores, J.A. (2019). Analysing English for Translation and Interpreting materials: skills, sub-competences and types of knowledge. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 13, 1-17.
- Carreres, A. & Noriega-Sánchez, M. (2018). Traducción pedagógica. In J. Muñoz-Basols, E. Gironzetti y M. Lacorte (eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Spanish Language Teaching: metodologías, contextos y recursos para la enseñanza del español L2* (pp. 613-627). London and New York: Routledge.
- Carreres, Á., Noriega-Sánchez, M. & Pintado Gutiérrez, L. (2021). Introduction. Translation and plurilingual approaches to language teaching and learning. *Translation and Translanguaging in Multilingual Contexts*, 7(1), 1-16.
- Cerezo Herrero, E. (2015). English Language Teaching for Translator and Interpreter Trainees: Syllabus Analysis and Design. *Quaderns. Revista de Traducció*, 22, 289-306.
- Cerezo Herrero, E. (2017). A Critical Review of Listening Comprehension for Interpreter Training: The Case of Spanish Translation and Interpreting Degrees. *Porta Linguarum*, 27, 7-22.
- Cerezo Herrero, E. (2019). Lenguas extranjeras con fines traductológicos: en busca de una identidad propia. *Quaderns. Revista de Traducció*, 26, 239-254.
- Cerezo Herrero, E. (2020). La didáctica de lenguas extranjeras en los estudios de Traducción e Interpretación: ¿qué nos dice la investigación? *Hermēneus. Revista de Traducción e Interpretación*, 22, 41-73.
- Cerezo Herrero, E. & Schmidhofer, A. (2021). 25 years of research on language training in TI programmes: Taking stock and ways forward. In A. Schmidhofer & E. Cerezo Herrero (Eds.), *Foreign Language Training in Translation and Interpreting Programmes*, (pp. 17-44). Berlin: Peter Lang.
- Chabasse, C. (2008). *Gibt es eine Begabung für das Simultandolmetschen? Erstellung eines Dolmetscheignungstests*. Berlin: Saxa.
- Colina, S. (2002). Second Language Acquisition, language teaching and Translation Studies. *The Translator*, 8(1), 1-24.
- Cook, G. (2010). *Translation in Language Teaching: An Argument for Reassessment*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Council of Europe (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, assessment*. Strasbourg: Language Policy Unit.
- Cruz García, L. (2017). Foreign Language Training in Translation and Interpreting Degrees in Spain: a Study of Textual Factors. *Revista Digital de Investigación en Docencia Universitaria*, 11(2), 75-89.
- Dudley-Evans, T. & St John, M.J. (2012). *Developments in English for Specific Purposes. A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ericsson, K.A. & Charness, N. (1997). Cognitive and developmental factors in expert performance. In P.J. Feltovich, Ford, K.M. & R.R. Hoffmann (Eds.), *Expertise in Context. Human and Machine* (pp. 3-41). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Ericsson, K.A., Krampe, R.T. & Tesch-Romer, C. (1993). The role of deliberate practice in the acquisition of expert performance. *Psychological Review*, 100, 363-406.

- EMT Expert Group (2009). Competences for professional translators, experts in multilingual and multimedia communication. <https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/default/files/emt_competences_translators_en.pdf> [18/02/2021]
- EMT, Expert Group (2017). Competence framework 2017. <https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/emt_competence_fw_2017_en_web.pdf> [25/06/2021]
- European Commission (2017). Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions on a renewed EU agenda for higher education. <<https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:52017DC0247&from=DA> accompanying-document.pdf> [18/06/2021].
- Gallego Hernández, D. & Tolosa Iguada, M. (2010). Lengua B para traductores e intérpretes o del proceso de llevar la lengua B al espacio-tiempo de la mediación. In M.P. Blanco García (Eds.), *El Cid y la Guerra de la Independencia: dos hitos en la historia de la traducción y la literatura*. (pp. 265-274). Madrid: Instituto Universitario de Lenguas Modernas y Traductores, Universidad Complutense de Madrid.
- García, O. (2009). *Bilingual Education in the 21st Century: A Global Perspective*. United Kingdom: Wiley-Blackwell.
- García, O. & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, Bilingualism, and Education*. New York, NY: Palgrave MacMillan.
- González Davies, M. (2017). The Use of translation in an Integrated Plurilingual Approach to language learning: teacher strategies and best practices. In *Journal of Spanish Language Teaching*, 4(2), 124-135.
- Göpferich, S. (2008). *Translationsprozessforschung: Stand, Methoden, Perspektiven*. Tübingen: Narr.
- Hernández Guerra, C. & Cruz García, L. (2009). La enseñanza del inglés en los estudios de Filología y Traducción e Interpretación. *RAEL: Revista Electrónica de Lingüística Aplicada*, 8, 16-29.
- Holz-Mänttari, J. (1984). *Translatorisches Handeln. Theorie und Methode*. Helsinki: Suomalainen Tiedekatemia.
- Hurtado Albir, A. (2011). *Traducción y Traductología*. Madrid: Cátedra.
- Huhta, M., Vogt, K., Johnson, E & Tulkki, H. (2013). *Needs Analysis for Language Course Design. A holistic approach to ESP*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, K. (2002). Specificity revisited: how far should we go now? *English for Specific Purposes*, 21, 385-395.
- Johns, A. M. (2013). The History of English for Specific Purposes Research. In V. B. Paltridge & S. Starfield (Eds.), *The Handbook of English for Specific Purposes* (pp. 17-42). Boston: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Kim, M. & Jing, B. (2019). A Personalised Autonomous Model for Enhancing Translation Student' Linguistic Competence. In M. Koletnik & N. Froeliger (Eds.), *Translation and Language Teaching: Continuing the Dialogue* (pp. 127-146). Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Kiraly, D. (2000). *A social constructivist approach to translator education. Empowerment from theory to practice*. Manchester: St. Jerome.
- Kiraly, D. (2013). Towards a View of Translator Competence as an Emergent Phenomenon: Thinking Outside the Box(es) in Translator Education. In D. Kiraly, S. Hansen-Schirra & K. Maksymski (Eds.), *New Prospects and Perspectives for Educating Language Mediators* (pp. 197-224). Tübingen: Narr.
- Koletnik, M. (2020). Language instruction for translators from the LSP perspective. In N. Lenassi (Ed.), *Languages for specific purposes: opportunities and challenges of teaching and research: Book of abstracts: 2nd International Conference of the Slovene Association of LSP Teachers: online, Slovenia, 15-16 October 2020*, (p. 24). Ljubljana: Slovene Association of LSP Teachers.
- Koletnik, M. (2021). LSP and Additional Language Teaching for Translators: New Researched-based Evidence. In A. Schmidhofer & E. Cerezo Herrero (Eds.), *Foreign Language Teaching in Translation and Interpreting Programmes*, (pp. 69-86). Berlin: Peter Lang.
- Koletnik, M. & Froeliger, N. (Eds.) (2020). *Translation and Language Teaching: Continuing the Dialogue*. Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Koller, W. (2011). *Einführung in die Übersetzungswissenschaft*. Tübingen: Francke.
- Köpke, B. & Nespoulous, J. (2006). Working memory performance in expert and novice interpreters. *Interpreting*, 8(1), 1-23.
- Kußmaul, P. (2015). *Verstehen und Übersetzen*. Tübingen: Narr.
- Leonardi, V. (2010). *The Role of Pedagogical Translation in Second Language Acquisition. From Theory to Practice*. Bern: Peter Lang.

- Li, D. (2001). Language Teaching in Translator Training. *Babel*, 47(4), 343-354.
- Malmkjaer, K. (Eds) (2004). *Translation in undergraduate degree programmes*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Möller Runge, J. (2001). *Siglo XXI. ¿Innovamos? La enseñanza de una segunda lengua extranjera*. Salobreña: Alhulia.
- Moser-Mercer, B. (2008). Skill Acquisition in Interpreting. A Human Performance Perspective. *The Translator and Interpreter Trainer*, 2(1), 1-28.
- Moser-Mercer, B., Frauenfelder, U.H., Casado, B. & Künzli, A. (2000). Searching to define expertise in interpreting. In B. Englund Dimitrova & K. Hyltenstam (Eds.), *Language processing and simultaneous interpreting* (pp. 107-132). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Nord, C. (2011). *Funktionsgerechtigkeit und Loyalität: Theorie, Methode und Didaktik des funktionalen Übersetzens*. Berlin: Frank & Timme.
- Oster, U. (2003). El fomento de la autonomía y el trabajo en grupo en el aprendizaje de lenguas para traductores a través de un entorno virtual de trabajo. *Quaderns. Revista de traducció*, 10, 79-90.
- PACTE (2017). *Researching Translation Competence by PACTE Group*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Reimann, D. & Rössler, A. (Eds.) (2013). *Sprachmittlung im Fremdsprachenunterricht*. Tübingen: Narr.
- Robinson, P. (1991). *ESP Today: A Practitioner's Guide*. New York: Prentice-Hall.
- Ruzicka Kenfel, V. (2003). Lengua alemana en traducción/interpretación: un concepto particular de la enseñanza de alemán como lengua extranjera. *BABEL-AFIAL*, 12, 5-29.
- Schmidhofer, A. (2013). La especificidad de la enseñanza-aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera en los Estudios de Traducción. *Alfinge*, 25, 95-114.
- Schmidhofer, A. & Ahmann, H. (2015). Translationsrelevanter Fremdsprachenunterricht: Besonderheiten und Zielsetzungen. *Moderne Sprachen*, 59(1), 49-70.
- Schmidhofer, A. & Cerezo Herrero, E. (Eds.) (2021). *Foreign Language Training in Translation and Interpreting Programmes*. Berlin: Peter Lang.
- Schmidhofer, A., Cerezo Herrero, E. & Koletnik, M. (2021). Why we need TI-oriented language learning and teaching (TILLT). *Elope*, 18(1), 71-89.
- Seidl, E., & Janisch, E. (2019). What a Difference Language Teaching Makes in Translator Training. In M. Koletnik & N. Froeliger (Eds.), *Translation and Language Teaching: Continuing the Dialogue* (pp. 171-188). Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Seidl, E. (2021). Translation and Interpreting oriented Language Learning and Teaching' (TILLT) als hochschuldidaktische Professionalisierung. In A. Schmidhofer & E. Cerezo Herrero (Eds.), *Foreign Language Training in Translation and Interpreting Programmes* (pp. 45-68). Berlin: Peter Lang.
- Singer, N.; Rubio, M. & Rubio, R. (2019). Enseñanza de lenguas: una comparación de las representaciones sociales de alumnos de primer y quinto año de la carrera de Lingüística Aplicada a la Traducción. *D.E.L.T.A.*, 35(4), 1-27.
- Szabó, C. (2019). Key Terms in Communicative Language Teaching Applied in the Training of Translators. In M. Koletnik & N. Froeliger (Eds.), *Translation and Language Teaching: Continuing the Dialogue* (pp. 147-170). Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- “The Bologna Process 2020 – The European Higher Education Area in the new decade” (2009) <http://www.ehea.info/Upload/document/ministerial_declarations/Leuven_Louvain_la_Neuve_Communique_April_2009_595061.pdf> [02/05/2021]
- Tomlinson, B. (2012). Materials development for language learning and teaching. *Language Teaching*, 45(2), 143–179.
- Trace, J., Hudson, T. & Brown, J.D. (2015). An Overview of Language for Specific Purposes. In J. Trace, T. Hudson & J.D. Brown (Eds.), *Developing Courses in Languages for Specific Purposes* (pp. 1-23). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i.
- TRAILS Booklet (no date). About TRAILS. <<https://www.researchgate.net/project/TRAILS-LSP-Teacher-Training-Summer-School>> [18/06/2021]
- Weinberg, J.; Caamaño, R. & Mondaca, L. (2018). Comprensión lectora: propuestas didácticas para el lector-traductor. *Sendebarr*, 29, 305-327.

Wilck, A., Altarriba, J., Ramírez Heredia, R. & Schwieter, J. (2019). Learning and Memory in the Bilingual Mind and Brain. In J. Schwieter (Eds.), *The Handbook of the Neuroscience of Multilingualism* (pp. 391-407). Hoboken (New Jersey): John Wiley