

Tracing the evolution of translator training in Anthony Pym's research

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Anthony Pym, as a dedicated translator trainer and translation researcher, has produced a substantial body of work that collectively sheds light on the major developments, debates and turning points in translator education over the last three and a half decades. This study sets out to provide a meta-look at Pym's contributions to translator-training research, based on a systematic reading of over fifty works published between the early 1990s and the present. Tracing the evolution of translator training through Pym's work, this meta-look also seeks to show the relevance of his ideas for current practices and future directions in the field.

Keywords: Anthony Pym, translator training, translation competence, translation and technology, translation profession

Introduction

As a researcher always interested in the evolving and complex nature of translator training (TT), I have found Anthony Pym's ideas on translator education inspiring and responsive to the challenges in the field. He is one of the most influential and prolific researchers in TT, having authored or co-authored, to the best of my knowledge, 54 publications on the topic. These publications collectively help us trace the major developments, debates and turning points in TT from the early 1990s to the present. This study sets out to provide a meta-look at Pym's contributions to TT research, documenting how TT has evolved in higher-education contexts worldwide and bringing into focus the main debates in TT from his perspective. The analysis is based on a systematic reading of his publications on TT, including books, peer-reviewed articles and book chapters. Rather than aiming for an exhaustive bibliographical review, the study focuses on recurring themes and concerns throughout Pym's works, especially distance learning, competence, technology and the changing sociological aspects of translator education. The

themes discussed in the analysis were determined through close reading, comparison and manual clustering of related topics in the corpus.

A thematic look at Anthony Pym's works on translator training

Before providing a detailed thematic analysis, it is useful to present a quantitative overview of the main topics addressed in Pym's works on TT. It should be noted that this study focuses on works closely related to the training of translators. However, many of Pym's other publications also offer important implications for TT, even when this is not their main focus. Among the publications examined in this study, technology-related themes constitute the largest group (15 works), reflecting his interest in translation technologies since the late 1990s and, more recently, machine translation (MT) and generative artificial intelligence (GenAI). This is followed by studies focusing on employment, professionalization, and market-related issues (9 works), also with a strong focus on the changing effects of technology. Translation competence and distance/e-learning each constitute four works. Other TT-related studies cover a wide range of areas, including translator trainer training (3 works) and the relationship between translation and language teaching (4 works). Although these categories inevitably overlap in some, if not most, cases, the distribution provides a general sense of how developments and debates in TT are represented in his work.

Distance learning and e-learning in translator training

I first met Anthony Pym in 2006 when I began the PhD Program in Translation and Intercultural Studies at the Universitat Rovira i Virgili (URV), which was offered remotely with regular gatherings of students and professors in Tarragona. I was very happy to be accepted to the program; however, many people around me in Turkey were skeptical about my decision to enroll. At the time, distance education was widely viewed with suspicion and often dismissed as lacking academic quality. Nevertheless, the program at the URV not only offered a rigorous academic environment but also brought together students and professors from different parts of the world, creating an intellectually stimulating community that was anything but *distant*.

The doctoral program in Translation and Intercultural Studies started in 2003. In the early 2000s, Pym authored and co-authored several papers on distance learning and e-learning (e.g., Pym 2000a; Pym 2000b; Fallada-Pouget and Pym 2000; Pym 2002a). Anthony Pym views the "distance" in distance learning not as a deficit, but as a powerful pedagogical asset. He identifies three key types of distance: external (physical separation), internal (hierarchical differences) and cultural (the gap between the learning activity and a student's everyday life) (Pym 2000a). Pym (2000a) argues that

maintaining an optimal “Vygotskian threshold” of distance provides students with enough novelty to stay motivated, while remaining close enough to ensure comprehension. Breaking from daily routines through this distance is often precisely what makes education inspiring and transformative.

A main principle of Pym’s approach is the recognition that online learners differ significantly from traditional on-campus students, as they are often older, working professionals managing complex schedules. Because of this demographic shift, Fallada-Pouget and Pym (2000) argue that directly comparing distance education with face-to-face learning to find a “no significant difference” is a fundamentally flawed research methodology. Instead, qualitative attention must be paid to the unique challenges these learners face, particularly student distress, which frequently derives from technological frustration, ambiguous expectations and a sense of isolation.

That being said, to combat this distress and prevent waning motivation, Pym (2002a) advocates interactive, community-driven online environments built on the concept of “controlled asynchrony.” Rather than letting students work entirely at their own isolated speeds, this approach keeps cohorts on the same weekly schedule to facilitate meaningful peer collaboration and socialization. Pym (2000a, 2002a) also strongly advocates tandem learning, in which students with complementary linguistic or technical skills rely on one another to complete tasks.

Over two decades later, with the global COVID-19 pandemic, distance and online education have become an indispensable part of contemporary life. And it seems they are here to stay, increasingly complementing and, in some cases, replacing traditional face-to-face contexts. Today, we can feel the implications of Pym’s approach in modern distance education. Rather than asking if online learning is better or worse than in-person formats, today’s educators focus on matching technological tools with specific instructional goals that cater to the needs of online learners. Probably, Pym’s most important lesson is that all education relies on human-to-human communication; digital tools must be used to expand, rather than restrict, the human aspect of the learning experience.

Towards transferable skills in translator training

Translation competence has been one of the most popular and controversial topics in translator-training research. Several typologies of competence have been developed, some of which are still used and regularly updated in light of the profession’s evolving nature and pedagogical tendencies. Pym (1991) offers an early critique of multicomponent approaches to competence, an argument that reappears in his later works:

[T]he multicomponent models of competence are heavy with assumptions not just about what translation is and how it should be taught, but more especially about the level at which specific teaching is

needed, and for how many years. They inevitably feed into complex professional profiles (“a good translator needs A, B and C...”); they thus underscore not just a transcendental ideal translator who has no place in the fragmented market, but also the long-duration interdisciplinary training programs that purport to produce such things (mostly university degree programs lasting four or five years). In most cases, the complex models of competence coincide more or less with the things taught in the institutions where the theorists work. (Pym 2003: 487)

He argues that complex models, which often list exhaustive linguistic, cultural and technological sub-competencies, tend to reflect institutional curriculum structures rather than the realities of a fragmented professional market. Defining competence in an electronic age, Pym (2003) distills translation into a two-fold process based on decision-making and problem-solving: the ability to generate multiple viable target texts for a single source text, followed by the ability to select the most appropriate one:

We propose that, together, these two skills form a specifically translational competence; their union concerns translation and nothing but translation. There can be no doubt that translators need to know a fair amount of grammar, rhetoric, terminology, computer skills, Internet savvy, world knowledge, teamwork cooperation, strategies for getting paid correctly, and the rest, but the specifically translational part of their practice is strictly neither linguistic nor solely commercial. It is a process of generation and selection, a problem-solving process that often occurs with apparent automatism. (Pym 2003: 489)

This definition has gained even greater relevance in an age that has moved beyond being purely electronic and is increasingly dominated by artificial intelligence (AI). As ongoing debates question whether human translators are or will be replaced by AI, translation competence can be understood as the ability to select one viable target text from amongst the countless options generated by AI tools and to adapt it for the target audience. This, however, raises a basic question: can one meaningfully post-edit AI output without knowing how to translate? More than two decades later, it therefore seems more important to keep in mind that translation competence first and foremost concerns “nothing but translation”:

Most of the electronic tools are simply techniques that speed up and broaden the production of alternative TTs (cf. what can be done with web searches); others are extensions that favour the authoritative elimination of alternatives (cf. the basic advantages of translation memories and glossaries of all kinds). Translators produce and select from alternatives; the various new technologies do not alter those tasks, they simply make them wider-ranging, dealing with more of the world in less time. To that extent, a minimalist view of competence

should help keep us aware of the ends of our tasks, without getting lost in the means. (Pym 2003: 489)

Ten years after defining translation competence in an electronic age, it should not be a coincidence that, in the *Meta* journal again, he sets out to define translation skill sets in a machine-translation age. Neural machine translation (NMT) had not been introduced yet, and Pym suggests revising our translation competence models and training programs in consideration of MT:

I would argue, statistical-based MT, along with its many hybrids, is destined to turn most translators into posteditors one day, perhaps soon. And as that happens, as it is happening now, we will have to rethink, yet again, the basic configuration of our training programs. That is, we will have to revise our models of what some call translation competence. (Pym 2013: 488)

The technological changes related to translation have always required changes in various aspects, including the basic terms of translation, e.g., the source text renamed as the start text given that translators no longer work with a single original text but with “the text, the translation memory, the glossary, and the MT feed” (Pym 2013: 492), and the social space of translation in which machine translation, non-professional post-editors and professional translators collaborate, requiring new hybrid skill sets beyond traditional models of translation competence (Pym 2013: 492).

In the age of MT, translators need skill sets that include the ability to quickly master new technologies, assess the reliability and cost-effectiveness of proposed matches, allocate cognitive effort according to task conditions and pay structures, detect suprasentential errors such as cohesion and punctuation problems caused by segmentation and conduct substantial post-draft revision (Pym 2013: 494-497). Considering that technologies have been changing rapidly, teaching MT should be conceived not as a standalone technical module but as a skills-based pedagogical approach integrated across the curriculum, emphasizing repeated hands-on use of technologies, peer collaboration, self-analysis of translation processes, teamwork with area experts and the development of adaptive expertise rather than static tool-specific knowledge (Pym 2013: 497-499).

These were the studies that directly address competence in Pym’s research. Pym (2015) also defines translation in terms of risk management, i.e., as a process affected by three forms of risk, including credibility risk, uncertainty risk and communicative risk, which emphasize that translators constantly make decisions under imperfect conditions. This perspective is still in line with his earlier definition of competence as the ability to select a viable translation solution “quickly and with justified confidence” (Pym 2003), since such confidence necessarily involves evaluating uncertainty and assuming responsibility for one’s choices. Furthermore, works such as Pym (2021), Pym et al. (2023) and Macreadie et al. (2025) discuss trust, primarily in

relation to credibility risk, as an essential element of translation practice. These works suggest a broader understanding of competence that extends beyond decision-making only related to the text: "...confronted by alternatives between which an ethical decision is to be made, translators should look at least beyond the text in front of them" (Pym 2021: 21).

Taken together, Anthony Pym's ideas on competence in TT have focused first on moving away from multicomponent models, which he considers insufficiently adaptable to different training contexts and to a fragmented market structure. Second, as technological developments are redefined and continue to redefine what is expected of translators, he places increasing emphasis on transferable skills that enable translators to adapt to new tools, workflows and roles, as well as on ethical decisions that require them to build trust with others and to manage and take risks.

Technology without technological determinism

As seen in the above works on competence and skills, technology has been a consistent theme in Anthony Pym's work. Rather than seeing technology as a disruption, they emphasize the processes of change, conditional effects and pedagogical responses. In his works, technology is regarded not as an autonomous force, but as a socially embedded factor whose impact depends on how it is integrated into professional practice and education.

Pym's collection of works indicates that his interest in technology began in the early 1990s, with discussions on the role of technological skills in defining competence. In line with technological developments in translation, two major clusters of works stand out in terms of both period and topic. In the first decade of the millennium, when translation technologies began to be integrated into TT, he authored and edited several works directly related to their teaching (Pym 2005, 2006, 2008a, 2008b, 2011). The second cluster, comprising works published from the second decade of the 2000s to the present, focuses primarily on MT and GenAI, particularly their implications for TT and the translation profession.

What Pym (2005) wrote over two decades ago remains highly relevant today, as the ethical aspects of MT and AI in translation are at the very heart of debates in both academia and the profession: "Train people to work not just with technology, but against it as well." We will come back to this later.

Pym (2006) drew attention to the additional asymmetry created by the inclusion of technologies in the translation classroom and the transfer of authority from teachers to technology, especially computer-assisted translation (CAT) tools, relating this to the already asymmetric relationship between teachers and students. In this paper, Pym proposes practical spatial solutions, arguing that "empowerment begins in architecture" (2006: 120), as well as time-related strategies to foster three-way interaction among teachers, students and technologies. However, within this sphere of interaction, he

emphasizes that it is equally important to recognize when technologies should be set aside. In particular, he emphasizes the need to “select only one viable” target text from the expanding range of alternatives generated with technological tools, returning to his discussion of competence (Pym 2003).

Pym (2008a, 2008b) provides a wide range of practical solutions for preparing students for the profession, listed under cultivating risk awareness, teaching the effective use of technology and diversifying professional roles. First, educators must develop students’ awareness of communicative risk distribution so they understand that not all parts of a text are equally important; this can be achieved through practical exercises such as text summarization, spoken face-to-face translation and peer product-testing. Second, rather than dedicating excessive class time to specific, rapidly changing software, institutions should teach students how to independently learn and evaluate new tools, using web-based resources and real-world work placements to build technological adaptability. Finally, because pure translation is no longer the sole focus of the industry, programs should train students for a variety of roles by teaching controlled writing, revision strategies, corpus and project management and collaborative teamwork utilizing shared translation memories. To successfully implement these comprehensive changes, institutions are encouraged to invite active translation professionals into the classroom to share their practical, up-to-date expertise.

Yes, technologies are essential to modern translation training, but they fundamentally change the translator’s cognitive processes and must be taught with a critical approach (Pym 2011b). Because tools like translation memories segment texts and distance translators from the overall communicative context, they risk reducing translation to a mechanical phrase-replacement process rather than an act of active communication. To counter this, Pym argues that educators should train students to work both with and against technology. Adaptation again comes to the fore here. Instead of dedicating extensive classroom hours to specific, rapidly outdated software, institutions should teach students how to learn independently and adapt to new tools. Furthermore, he emphasizes that although technology gets better at generating alternative translations, the core competence of selecting the single best solution still depends on human judgment and risk assessment.

The second cluster of works that bring technologies together with TT appeared in the second decade of the 2000s, starting with the article on changing translation skill sets (Pym 2013) discussed in the previous section. Addressing the localization and the training of localization professionals, also in line with his previous approaches to competence and technology, Pym (2014: 49) suggests that rather than merely supplying cheap labor to fulfill immediate market demands, academic training should intervene in the future of localization by equipping students with foundational technological skills together with a critical, overarching perspective on cross-cultural

communication. A later study by Pym and Torres-Simón (2016) has implications for various aspects of TT, including technologies and the profession. What particularly drew my attention in this study was the data collection method: Pym asked students in four different courses between 2012 and 2015 to formulate three questions they wanted to be answered about translation. One of the suggestions in this study, for instance, is that, instead of allowing students to perceive new technologies strictly as a threat to their future careers, educators can help students see these tools from a different perspective by integrating them into classroom teaching through hands-on experimentation, such as comparing the efficiency of translating from scratch versus post-editing machine translation (Pym and Torres-Simón 2016: 198).

In later years, Pym co-authored papers and monographs focusing on the teaching of translation technologies (Hao and Pym 2023a), trust in MT among translation students (Ayvazyan, Torres-Simón and Pym 2024) and the management and pedagogical use of GenAI in the translation classroom (Ayvazyan, Hao and Pym 2024; Pym and Hao 2025; Raigal-Aran et al. 2026).

Ayvazyan, Torres-Simón and Pym (2024) conducted a study with undergraduate translation students who completed two online tasks designed to assess their attitudes toward and performance with MT. Their aim is to open up “space where students can explore the technologies for themselves, reaching their own conclusions” (Ayvazyan, Torres-Simón and Pym 2024: 11). The findings indicate that while there is no unanimous stance on MT, students generally show strong resistance to it. Even though the participants clearly benefited from the technology, particularly in terms of translation speed, they maintained an unfavorable view that paradoxically led them to spend excessive time post-editing the machine output (Ayvazyan, Torres-Simón and Pym 2024: 25).

Raigal-Aran et al. (2026) further reported on a classroom experiment in which Spanish students evaluated and compared their own revisions of an AI-generated earthquake advisory text against a version refined by ChatGPT-4o. Although many students criticized the AI for taking “unjustifiable liberties,” roughly a third of the participants recognized that the generative AI provided valuable alternatives they had not originally considered (Raigan-Aral et al. 2026: 4). The activity demonstrated that GenAI can serve as a beneficial learning and supplementary tool, fostering a generally favorable attitude among students toward safely integrating these technologies to augment the human translation and revision process. The latter two studies are also significant in terms of methodology, as they allow students to experiment with MT to reach their own conclusions through hands-on engagement and reflection on their experiences.

Always interested in translation technologies, starting with the first discussions on CAT tools, Pym got interested in the main discussions of Translation Studies and TT in the last decade: MT and more generally GenAI in the translation classroom. In this group of works, a monograph stands out,

providing hands-on guidelines for teaching languages and translation in the age of GenAI and seeking an answer to the question: “How can we best engage with new learning technologies?” (Pym and Hao 2025: xviii). Rather than offering abstract warnings about technological disruption, the book moves directly into the classroom, presenting a wide range of activities through which students can find out what technologies can and cannot do. The reassuring message for trainers is that translators are not obsolete. Yet...

Market, employability and the sociology of the profession

Another thematic cluster places translation and TT within broader socio-economic contexts. With his background in sociology, Pym addresses the relationship between TT and the market, including the issues of disorder, employability, precarity and the inevitability of market change. His explicit sociological approach to training, particularly with reference to a sociology of TT, supports the view that educational models both reflect and affect professional realities.

Although many of his works address the evolution of the translation profession and education, particularly in relation to technology, we can find works specifically targeted at employability and the translation market, with references to training, starting from 1993. Over three decades ago, before MT became a central concern and before discussions of AI replacing the profession emerged, Pym (1993b, 1993c) argued against strictly tailoring TT to immediate, fluctuating market demands, advocating instead teaching translation as a broad, adaptable set of communication skills. Rather than producing mere “technicians” doing translation, Pym believes programs should use specialized fields as case studies to train critical “thinkers” or “cultural intermediaries” (*Sprachmittler*). These professionals are equipped to offer services that go beyond translation, such as editing, terminology work and company representation, enabling them to move beyond strict market logic and improve intercultural relations. His arguments remain relevant to training practices today, as the works discussed so far clearly anticipate today’s MT and GenAI discussions.

This perspective is taken up in Anthony Pym’s more recent work on the impact of NMT on the profession (Pym 2019b; Pym and Torres-Simón 2021). The year 2026 marks the tenth anniversary of Google’s announcement of NMT. This milestone calls for reflection on how the role of translators has changed, which Pym (2019b) summarizes through three main aspects: establishing their trustworthiness as authorities who post-edit MT output; highlighting the multiplicity of possible translation solutions and therefore defining translation as a problem-solving activity; and engaging in new professional domains, as “there is no real shortage of work to be done.”

In the same vein, Pym and Torres-Simón (2021: 53) emphasize that automation is reshaping the profession, arguing that “the more translators are

aware of automation and are prepared to work with it, the more they seek to have their multilingual interactive skills valued,” particularly in ensuring the trustworthiness of MT outputs. These works reach the same conclusion: TT should equip future professionals to move beyond mere translation by offering extended services, positioning themselves as trustworthy experts and acting as cultural mediators across sectors, especially since not all graduates are necessarily employed as translators.

That being said, Pym has co-authored several studies specifically addressing employability (Hao and Pym 2023b; Macreadie and Pym 2025; Pym and Macreadie 2026), whose findings align with his consistent arguments regarding TT and institutions. After a review of survey studies on the employability of translation graduates and their survey of graduates from the Chinese-English Master of Translation at the University of Melbourne, Hao and Pym (2023b) conclude that training institutions should acknowledge the fact that only about one third of graduates are employed in full-time jobs as translators or interpreters, and should therefore tailor their curricula to support a wider range of language-based occupations. Furthermore, programs should place greater emphasis on developing transferable skills, such as software evaluation, project management and interpersonal communication, rather than rigidly focusing on text-bound translation or specific software applications. Reflecting Pym’s long-standing argument (as discussed earlier) for teaching flexibility over narrow specialization, the authors argue that translation programs must abandon “disciplinary isolationism,” meaning they should stop distancing themselves from general language education, and instead train students to act as comprehensive language consultants who can offer a broad range of services well beyond translation.

Another employability study focuses on adverse selection, defined as an economic scenario in which consumers’ inability to independently judge product quality leads to lower prices, driving good professionals out of the market, risking a total market collapse (Pym and Macreadie 2026). Drawing on quantitative data from previous large-scale surveys of the Australian market and interviews with 35 stakeholders, Pym and Macreadie (2026) identify key signs of adverse selection in the Australian market. Although NAATI’s recertification system limits oversupply, certification alone cannot ensure stability. Low pay continues to drive quality down, which requires stronger labor protections. The authors also note that growing skepticism about quality demands more varied and visible quality signals. Rebuilding trust, Pym and Macreadie (2026) argue, means valuing both community-based “thick trust” and institutional “thin trust.” In the end, preventing market decline requires combined efforts at the policy, industry and practitioner levels.

Among the works grouped under this heading, one is particularly noteworthy for its attempt to define the sociology of translator training. (Pym 2020). In this paper, the argument is that how translators should be trained

depends on social factors, which Pym defines as the distribution of languages and the intensity of information flows. Understanding where a program is situated, who its students are and the types of professional activities it prepares them for enables trainers to draw selectively on diverse models and pedagogical approaches from different contexts. At the same time, it is important not to focus exclusively on the upper segments of the market, as if all graduates were destined for stable careers there. Such a view overlooks the broader social functions of translation and the range of contexts in which it functions. From a wider sense of social responsibility, TT should also engage more actively with additional-language education, where translation is often first encountered in simplified or reductive ways. Thus, TT should be understood as a context-dependent and evolving practice shaped by specific social needs, aspirations and technological developments, rather than as a fixed set of universal principles: “In each particular training situation, for each particular language pair, for each technological generation, we need to think anew” (Pym 2020: 15).

From a broader perspective, these issues are closely interconnected: the impact of changing technologies on the profession and, consequently, on TT; the need for flexibility in training in response to evolving technologies and market demands; and the growing importance of flexible employability.

And more...

The typology of translation solutions (Pym and Torres-Simón 2015; Pym 2016; Pym 2018b) differs from other typologies commonly found in Translation Studies in its explicit pedagogical orientation. Offering this typology as a “teaching aid” for solving translation problems in the classroom, Pym (2016) mentions that it is not a definitive list, but rather one that remains open to adaptation depending on students’ levels, language pairs and the specific focus of each lesson, i.e., students’ needs and expectations. This flexibility reflects the arguments above that TT should be responsive to context, learner needs and the changing nature of translation practice.

My own experience as a trainer has shown that knowing how to translate does not necessarily mean knowing how to teach translation. This is why Pym’s interest in translator trainers and especially their training (Pym 2001; Pym 2004b; Torres-Simón and Pym 2016; Hao and Pym 2022) is so important, as this issue is still underdiscussed in TT research. Pym (2001) approached the training of translation trainers as an experimental and practical necessity driven by rapid technological and economic changes in the professional translation market. Extending his arguments on student diversity, Pym identifies three groups requiring trainer training: language teachers entering translation, experienced teachers needing retraining on technology and professional translators needing pedagogical skills. Given their complementary strengths, he suggests that these groups can learn from each

other through active exchange, an approach reflected in the training programs he organized.

In the same vein, Hao and Pym (2022) conducted a study with two groups of learners, i.e., students trained in applied linguistics and those trained as translators. This study also highlights the merits of bringing together learners from different disciplinary backgrounds. While the initial design envisioned a reciprocal learning dynamic, where applied linguistics students would contribute expertise in language teaching and translation students would offer insights into translation practice, the actual composition and goals of the groups proved to be more heterogeneous than expected. Despite this mismatch, the findings suggest that well-articulated learning outcomes can effectively bridge the gap between using translation as a pedagogical tool in additional-language education and training translators and interpreters as professionals. More importantly, the study shows that such interdisciplinary settings can be justified through the complementary needs of the learner groups.

As reflected in some of his above works and specifically dedicated publications since the early 1990s, Pym repeatedly returns to the relationship between translation teaching and foreign language education (see, for example, Pym 1992; Pym 2005; Pym, Malkmjaer and Gutiérrez-Colón Plana 2013; Pym 2018a; Pym and Aylvazyan 2018). In these papers, Pym criticizes the academic and institutional divide between TT and foreign language teaching, noting that the translation field has historically sought to claim its independence and “essential superiority” (Pym 2018a) by establishing dedicated faculties and deliberately distancing itself from language education. This approach is clearly linked to his criticism of the implicit alignment between TT programs and the translation profession. He questions the assumption that translation programs should primarily produce professional translators, arguing that not all graduates enter the translation market and that translation itself is a communicative practice.

From this perspective, Pym calls for a more active dialogue between Translation Studies and language education. Emphasizing its communicative function enables translation to be integrated more meaningfully into language-learning contexts, moving beyond reductive or mechanical uses. At the same time, this perspective draws attention to the human, interpretive and decision-making aspects of translation, namely the aspects that have become more significant in an age dominated by AI and automation.

It is not possible to provide an overview of all his work here. What I find particularly noteworthy is Pym’s interest in relatively less discussed areas, such as work placement (Pym et al. 2014) and student exchange programs (Pym 1994), together with different aspects of classroom practices in translation teaching (see, for example, Pym 2009; Pym and Torres-Simón 2016; Pym 2023; Hao and Pym 2023a; Aylvazyan, Hao and Pym 2024), beyond the issues already discussed here.

Conclusion

This study outlines Anthony Pym's TT research over the past thirty-five years, offering a perspective on how TT has evolved. In his work, we observe a consistent effort to respond to technological and socio-economic changes not with rigid, "one-size-fits-all" curriculum structures, but with adaptable, context-dependent pedagogical strategies. At the core of Pym's philosophy is a redefined, minimalist model of translation competence: a two-fold process of generating viable target texts and selecting the most appropriate one. This specific problem-solving is particularly important today as we are discussing the inevitable effects of GenAI and NMT on the profession and translators are increasingly expected to select and adapt AI-generated outputs rather than produce texts from scratch.

Pym's pragmatic approach to technology, which argues that educators train students to work both "with" and "against" it, offers guidance for sustaining critical human judgment, risk assessment and the wider communicative context in which translation functions. Furthermore, Pym's sociological approach to TT challenges how educational institutions approach employability. Arguing against producing mere translators for a constantly changing market, he advocates for training "cultural intermediaries" equipped with transferable skills. This flexibility is vital today, as graduates face changing market conditions and assume various roles beyond pure translation.

Declaration of AI use

In preparing this manuscript, the author used ChatGPT (GPT-5.5) and Grammarly for drafting and language editing. All AI-assisted content was reviewed, edited and verified by the author, who takes full responsibility for the accuracy and integrity of the final text.

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