The Map

A Beginner's Guide to Doing Research in Translation Studies

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1. Areas in Translation Research

This chapter gives an overview of 12 research areas in Translation Studies. The list itself is by no means exhaustive nor is the coverage of each topic comprehensive. It is merely intended to provide a point of orientation – a **Map** – for researchers setting out to explore Translation Studies.

1.1 Text Analysis and Translation

Source Text Analysis

Source text analysis focuses on the analysis of the source text itself, examining the various aspects of it that might give rise to translation problems. This has an obvious relevance in translator training. A good primary background reference is Nord (1991). The point of such an analysis is to prepare for a translation: after a careful analysis of the syntactic, semantic and stylistic features of the source text, it will presumably be easier to come up with adequate translation solutions. This kind of focus is usually linked to an analysis of the communicative situation of the translation itself: who it will be for, what its function is intended to be, and so on.

Comparison of Translations and their Source Texts

The *analysis of translated texts* involves the textual comparison of a translation with its original. A *translation comparison* deals with several translations, into the same language or into different languages, of the same original. Such topics cannot deal with every possible aspect of the texts, of course, so you have to choose the aspect(s) you want to focus on. You might take a particular aspect of the source text, such as a particular stylistic or syntactic feature, and examine the corresponding sections in the translations. Or you could start with a kind of translation problem (the translation of passive sentences, or dialect, or allusions, for instance), and see how your translator(s) have solved the problem, what *translation strategies* they have used. Or you could start with a kind of translation strategy, some kind of change or shift between source and target texts (e.g. the strategy of explicitation), and examine its conditions

of use. (For references to research on explicitation, see e.g. the entry for it in Shuttleworth and Cowie 1997.) In all these cases, your aim would be to discover patterns of correspondence between the texts. In other words, you would be interested in possible regularities of the translator's behaviour, and maybe also in the general principles that seem to determine how certain things get translated under certain conditions. (See Leuven-Zwart 1989 and 1990 for a methodology for translation analysis.)

Comparison of Translations and Non-translated Texts

This kind of analysis compares translations into a given language with similar texts originally written in that language. Traditionally in Translation Studies scholars have referred to these as *parallel texts*; with the advent of corpus-based Translation Studies these original-language texts are now sometimes called *comparable texts*. The idea here is to examine the way in which translations tend to differ from other texts in the target language, the way they often turn out to be not quite natural. (This might, or might not, be a good thing – depending on the aim and type of the translation in question.) This kind of research is quantitative, and usually deals with relative differences of distribution of particular textual features. For some examples, see several of the papers in Olohan (2000) and the special issue of *Meta* 43(4) (1998).

All the above research areas involve forms of contrastive text analysis and contrastive stylistics. They thus depend implicitly on some kind of contrastive theory. (See Chesterman 1998 for the relation between the theories and methodologies of contrastive analysis and Translation Studies.)

Translation with Commentary

A *translation with commentary* (or *annotated translation*) is a form of introspective and retrospective research where you yourself translate a text and, at the same time, write a commentary on your own translation process. This commentary will include some discussion of the translation assignment, an analysis of aspects of the source text, and a reasoned justification of the kinds of solutions you arrived at for particular kinds of translation problems. One value of such research lies in the contribution that increased self-awareness

can make to translation quality. You might also want to show whether you have found any helpful guidelines for your translation decisions in what you have read in Translation Studies. A classical example of such a commentary is Bly (1984), where the translator describes in detail the various stages he went through during the translation of a poem.

1.2 Translation Quality Assessment

Translation quality assessment, unlike most of the areas mentioned here, is overtly evaluative. Translations are assessed in real life in several circumstances: during training, in examinations for official certification, by critics and reviewers, and ultimately of course by the ordinary reader. Some assessment methods have been developed by scholars, others by teachers, and still others by the translation industry. Some international standards have been set up in order to control or assure quality (ISO 9002, DIN 2345).

We can distinguish three general approaches to quality assessment. One is *source-oriented*, based on the relation between the translation and its source text. Assessment methods of this kind set up definitions of required equivalence and then classify various kinds of deviance from this equivalence. (See e.g. House 1997 and Schäffner 1998; the special issues of *TTR* 2(2) 1989, *The Translator* 6(2) 2000 and *Meta* 46(2) 2001.)

The second approach is *target-language oriented*. Here, the relation at stake is not with the source text but with the target language. Equivalence is not a central concept here. This approach uses text analysis (see above) in order to assess the differences between the translation in question and other comparable texts in the target language. The idea is to measure the translation's degree of naturalness – on the assumption that this is often a feature to be desired. (See Toury 1995 and Leuven-Zwart 1989 and 1990.)

The third approach has to do with the assessment of *translation effects* – on clients, teachers, critics and readers. In the case of a literary translation, you might examine published reviews in the press. (See e.g. Maier 1998 and Fawcett 2000.) Or you might interview publishers or readers about their expectations concerning translation quality. Or you might carry out comprehension tests on

the translation, to see how well people understood it. Or you might send out a questionnaire to translation teachers, to see what kinds of marking methods and criteria they used. This approach finds functional and/or communicative theories of translation useful, such as skopos theory, since the skopos is the 'purpose for which a translator designs a translation ("translatum") in agreement with his commissioner' (Vermeer 1996: 7).

All three general approaches are illustrated in chapter 5 of Chesterman (1997).

1.3 Genre Translation

By 'genre' we mean both traditional literary genres such as drama, poetry and prose fiction as well as other well established and clearly defined types of text for translation such as multimedia texts, religious texts, children's literature, tourism texts, technical texts and legal documents. See Swales (1991) and Trosborg (1997) for an overview of definitions and methodological concepts.

For a good introduction to the major issues in literary translation, see Bassnett (1991), Gaddis Rose (1997), Bassnett and Lefevere (1998) and Boase-Beier and Holman (1999).

Drama
The status of drama texts is a major issue here, and among the first questions to be addressed are: is this play being translated to be performed or to be read? If it is to be performed, what sort of translation is required – a rough one which will be a starting point for the production or a fully performable one or something in between? The process of translation 'from page to stage' throws up many research questions – for example, the role(s) of the various participants: translator, director, actors. There is plenty of scope for undertaking a case study of an individual production, researching the biography of an established drama translator, comparing different translations of the same play.

Other topics which suggest themselves include the question of (trans)location: (where) is the foreign play located in the target culture? Brecht has been located in the north-east of England and Chekov in the west of Ireland: what are the reasons for / implications

of such (trans)locations? See Upton (2000) for a discussion of cultural relocation. Performability – which ranges from body language to choice of props – is another worthwhile topic.

See Johnston (1996) for a range of views from translators for the stage, Aaltonen (1996), Anderman (1998) and Bassnett (2000) for further reading.

Poetry

Poetic texts can provide interesting material for translation research, especially if time is limited, since the texts concerned can be quite short. Here the major topics include

- The aim of the translation – a prose version or a poem?
- The translation of metre, cadence, rhythm, rhyme
- The profile of the translator – can only poets translate poetry?
- How do translators translate poetry?

See Holmes (1994) for an overview of the issues in poetry translation and both De Beaugrande (1978) and Bly (1984) for a 'step by step' guide to translating a poem.

Prose Fiction

This is the field where most full-time literary translators earn their living. As it is impossible to research the totality of a novel, or even a short story, it is important to select one aspect. This could be the narrative perspective of the author/translator, the translation of dialogue, the handling of culture-specific items or the translation of humour. Sometimes it can make sense to concentrate on the first chapter or opening scene, since this often sets the tone for the remainder of the work.

One under-researched area here is contemporary translators themselves: their biographies, how they obtain translation contracts, their relations with editors and publishers. It could be interesting to interview a translator and discover how they go about their work, whether they write prefaces / afterwords, whether they use footnotes or provide glossaries (see Pelegrin 1987).

A further area worth investigating is the reception of translated works: how do critics review translated works? What do they have

to say about translation (if anything)? See Fawcett (2000) for a study of the reception of translation in the quality press.

Bassnett (1998) provides a useful categorization of the types of research which can be undertaken at doctoral level in literary translation.

Religious Texts

In order to engage in translation criticism, you will need in-depth knowledge of one (or more) of the source languages. Major research questions concerning religious texts have to do with

- The enormous temporal and cultural gap between the societies for which these texts were written and the societies for which they have been translated
- The tension between treating religious texts such as the Bible as a sacred text in which every word is holy (which requires a word-for-word translation) and using it as a missionizing text (which requires a target-culture-centred approach). See Nida (1964) and Nida and Taber (1969).

Gaddis Rose (2000) and Jasper (1993) provide useful starting points to what is, potentially, a vast field.

A different approach would be to compare different translations of a particular sacred text (e.g. the Koran) into one language, either diachronically or synchronically (see Lewis 1981). Here, again, it would be important to focus on a particular aspect. For an overview of currently available English translations of the Bible, see Gregory (2001).

In European societies the Reformation was a crucial and dangerous time for Bible translators, and the writings of Wycliffe, Tyndale, Luther, Calvin and others provide material for research questions such as: how did these translators go about their work? Why did they engage in such a dangerous activity? (See Lefevere 1992.)

One side-aspect of Bible translation which has been frequently commented on but little researched is the influence of the 1611 King James Bible (the *Authorized Version*) on the development of the English language: is it true that anyone translating out of English

needs to be familiar with this text? And if so: in what circumstances? And with what aspect(s)? (See Biblia 1997.)

Children's Literature

Definition is important and difficult here. Are you dealing with literature (designed to be) read *by* children or *to* children? What age group(s) do you mean? Does 'literature' include only books or could it also include TV programmes, films and software? Children's literature spans many genres – from poems and fairytales to fiction and scientific writing. It is also expected to fulfil a number of different functions, e.g. entertainment, socialization, language development as well as general education.

Although Klingberg's (1986) rather prescriptive approach has been replaced in recent years by a more descriptive one (Oittinen 1993; Puurtinen 1995), his list of five potential research areas (1986:9) still constitutes a good starting point for the researcher.

Tourism Texts

The travel, tourism and heritage sectors, which involve a high degree of cross-cultural and linguistic contact, have grown exponentially over the last forty years and have taken on enormous economic importance in many countries throughout the world. It is therefore striking how little attention has been paid to the texts that make this possible. There is enormous scope here for different kinds of research: what is the current provision of translated material in a particular locality? How does this match the needs of the sector? What kinds of strategies are appropriate in the translation of materials for tourists?

Snell-Hornby (1989) discusses some practical examples of translating tourism texts and Kelly (2000) situates tourism texts in the context of translator training. Cronin (2000) offers a more philosophical view.

Technical Texts

Technical translation covers the translation of many kinds of specialized texts in science and technology, and also in other disciplines such as economics and medicine. In the business sector, this work is often referred to as multilingual documentation. The translation

of these texts needs a high level of subject knowledge, and a mastery of the relevant terminology. Some research topics concern problems of style and clarity, text-type conventions, culture-specific reader expectations and the special problems of particular document types such as patents. Applied research in this field also works on improving the training of technical translators. Other research looks more widely at the historical role of translators in the dissemination of knowledge. For an introductory survey, see Wright and Wright (1993). Pearson (1999) and Bowker (2000b) give illustrations of corpus-based approaches to research in this area.

Legal Texts

Legal translation has evolved into a sub-field in its own right, specializing in the translation problems and norms of this text type. An illustrative issue is the question of how creative the legal translator can be, and under what circumstances. Another is the role of the translator as co-drafter of the original. See Morris (1995), Gémar (1995) and Šarčević (1997).

1.4 Multimedia Translation

Audiovisual texts are primarily spoken texts – radio/TV programmes, films, DVDs, videos, opera, theatre – which are translated either by revoicing or sur-/subtitling (Luyken 1991). Revoicing replaces the original spoken text with a translation in the target language; sur-/subtitling leaves the original spoken or sung text intact and adds a written translation on screen. The choice of translation procedure depends on a variety of factors – and is itself a topic for research: see O'Connell (1998) for an overview.

Revoicing

Revoicing includes voice-over, narration, free commentary and lip-sync dubbing. Major research questions include:

- Which type of revoicing is appropriate in which circumstances?
- Which type of synchrony should have precedence in particular circumstances? (see Fodor 1976; Whitman-Linsen 1992)
- Case studies of revoiced material (e.g. Herbst 1994)
- What role does the translator play in the revoicing process?

Sur-/subtitling

Ivarsson (1992) provides a good overview of a field where research deals with:

* The technical constraints of sur-/subtitling
* The training of sur-/subtitlers (see also Gambier 1998)
* Analyses of sur-/subtitled material
* Subtitling as a language learning / teaching tool (see Vanderplank 1999)
* Subtitling for the deaf and hard-of-hearing (e.g. De Linde and Kay 1999).

Common to both areas of audiovisual translation is an interest in audiovisual translation in a minority language context: see O'Connell (1994).

Gambier and Gottlieb (2001) provide an introduction to the whole emerging field of Multimedia Translation.

1.5 Translation and Technology

While technology has become an integral part of the translation profession, there has been little, if any, research into many aspects of the technology itself. There is a range of topics to be investigated here:

Evaluating Software

Language Engineering is producing more and more software for Machine Translation and Computer-Aided Translation, such as terminology management programs and translation memory systems which enable translators to access previous translations and similar documents. The evaluation of this software can take the form of a small-scale or large-scale research project. Evaluation can be quite complicated, and you need to establish clearly formulated criteria – see Arnold *et al.* (1994) for some suggestions. You could, for example, use an existing MT package, such as *Telegraph*, to translate a number of texts of a particular text type and draw conclusions about the strengths and weaknesses of the software or make recommendations for improvements. Alternatively, you could compare

two or more products which are designed to do the same thing, such as MT systems or translation memory systems. Another type of software which has not yet been researched is the translation facility on Personal Digital Assistants and other mobile computing devices.

Software Localization

Software localization is the process which adapts a software product for a target language and culture. This includes adapting the interface, online help files as well as the accompanying documentation. A workplace study, tracking, for example, a localization project from commissioning to delivery, could investigate the role of the participants in the process – from project manager through in-house/ freelance translator to software engineer. Mechanisms of quality control are another worthwhile research topic. Or you might evaluate the finished product. Esselink (2000) and Hall and Hudson (1997) provide a good introduction to the field.

Effects of Technology

Although Translation Memory systems are now widely used, there is relatively little research on the impact they have either on the way translators work or on translation output. Kenny (1999) and Bowker (2002) contain discussions of the effects of technology on the translation process. Using a questionnaire you could establish the attitudes of translators to this type of software; or you could obtain permission from a translation company to analyze aspects of texts translated in this way (see Merkel 1998 for an example of a study on consistency).

Website Translation

Here you could:

* establish the current practice in website translation
* investigate the effect of website constraints and user demands on translators' decisions at both the micro and macro levels
* evaluate the product
* explore the feasibility of using controlled languages in website design to facilitate translation.

Cheng (2000) provides a case study of website translation.

The Place of Technology in Translator Training

As early as 1996 Schäler made a plea for the introduction of Translation Technology into every translator training programme (Schäler 1998). Kiraly (2000: 123-139) outlines how this could be done, both practically and methodologically. You could establish to what extent this has happened in your country. By use of questionnaires and interviews you could also investigate how this could be done better: what sort of technological skills would be most appropriate in which contexts? Who should design and teach such courses? See Austermühl (2001) for a clear explanation of the software products, information resources and online services now available to trainee and professional translators. (See also the section on Corpus-based Translation Studies in 4.5 below.)

1.6 Translation History

Translations can have long-term effects on whole languages and cultures, of course, and these too can be assessed in a historical or cultural study. If this is your field of interest, you would need a rather different theoretical apparatus, such as you will find in culture studies, norm theory or polysystem theory (see the relevant entries in Shuttleworth and Cowie 1997 for an introduction).

Chesterman (1989), Lefevere (1992) and Robinson (1997a) provide good introductions to Translation History, and Pym's *Method in Translation History* (1998) is an indispensable guide to undertaking research in this field. The Literary Translation Project at the University of Göttingen, which was funded over a number of years by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, has also published an impressive body of research under the 'Göttinger Beiträge zur Internationalen Übersetzungsforschung' rubric, which has made a major contribution to our knowledge and understanding of translation history.

The major research questions in Translation History are to do with: Who? What? Why? and How?

Who?

In recent years Translation Studies has been focusing increasingly on translators themselves: their backgrounds, their relations with

publishers and editors, their motivation and their translation practice (see Delisle and Woodsworth 1995 and Delisle 1999). There is considerable scope for 'excavation' here in discovering forgotten translators and placing their translations in the context of their lives and work as well as the context of the intercultural space they inhabit between two languages and cultures.

What?

A fascinating area of research investigates which texts are translated (or not translated) in particular cultures at particular times. How, for example, did the social and political upheavals in eastern Europe in the early 1990s affect the volume and nature of translations into Polish, Slovak, Czech, Russian and so on? Translation can also shed light on relations between majority and minority language communities, between imperial centres and colonial fringes as well as between victors and vanquished. Research into reviews of translated works can give insights into their reception and the reasons for their success or lack of it.

Why?

One of the major questions in Translation History concerns the reason(s) why particular texts are translated at particular times. Reasons can range from the use of translation to establish a national literature, a particular set of relations between the two cultures concerned or the individual interests of a particular publisher. A good illustration of this type of research is Kohlmeyer's (1994) work on the popularity of Oscar Wilde's plays on the German stage during the Nazi period.

How?

Translators' strategies through the ages have varied enormously, depending on the demands of commissioners, publishers, readers as well as their own personal preferences. Studies which undertake detailed analyses of individual translations in their social and historical context have an important role to play in filling in the gaps in translation history. Research questions here attempt to link the micro (i.e. textual) and macro (i.e. social/historical/intercultural) aspects of Translation History.

Cronin (1996) provides a good illustration of a study which investigates the role of translation in the political, linguistic and literary history of one country. See Part II of the *Routledge Encyclopedia* (Baker 1998) for useful surveys of Translation History.

1.7 Translation Ethics

Much of the older work in translation theory was prescriptive: it made claims about what a translator should do, and thus sought to establish guidelines for 'good' translations. Opinions naturally varied... Contemporary work has problematized the concept of 'good' translating in many ways, and brought new dimensions to our understanding of translation ethics, although many problems remain, both conceptual and practical.

Different kinds of ethics
How could we best reconcile the ethical conclusions represented by different approaches, different kinds of ethics? Some arguments are based on the value of a true or faithful representation of the original, of the Other. Others start from the idea that translating is a form of service for a client, and thus value loyalty. Others again take understanding or cooperation as the primary values to be served. Still others propose an ethics based on norms and the value of trust. Research focusing on these questions involves conceptual analysis, and is often influenced by debates in moral philosophy.

Cultural and ideological factors
Another set of questions has been raised by the cultural turn in Translation Studies: this has led scholars to look at how translations have been influenced by cultural and ideological factors, and how translations in turn have effects on target readers and cultures. These effects can have huge ethical dimensions. Keywords here are

- power, emancipation (see Robinson 1997b)
- gender (see Von Flotow 1997)
- post-colonialism, nationalism, hegemony (see Bassnett and Trivedi 1999)
- minority, cultural identity (see Venuti 1998)
- the translator's visibility (see Venuti 1995a).

Translations have been, and still are, powerful instruments in ideological programmes. An analysis of these topics brings to the surface major sociopolitical issues, which are themselves ultimately based on aims that can be subjected to an ethical analysis. Research is usually historical in nature, often focusing on a case study. (For a survey of this kind of work, see Robinson 1997b.)

Codes of Practice
At a more practical level, many national professional associations of translators have an official code of good practice which states the ethical principles that professional translators are expected to abide by. These codes are attempts to translate abstract ideas and values into concrete form, and also to meet the needs of translation as a business activity, involving e.g. the requirement of professional secrecy. It is interesting to compare the codes used in different countries. Some countries even have professional oaths that must be sworn as part of the accreditation process. (See 1.12 below.)

There are also internationally agreed documents concerning ethical translatorial behaviour. One is the Translator's Charter, and another is the Nairobi Declaration. For both, see the homepage of FIT (Fédération Internationale des Traducteurs) at <http://fit-ift.org>. These are worth analyzing and comparing. They set out principles governing not only how translators should behave (translators' obligations), but also how society should behave towards translators (translators' rights). One important issue touched on is that of translator's copyright: translations are forms of intellectual property, and their creators should thus have rights over this property. (See e.g. Venuti 1995b.) However, the legal position of translators varies rather widely from country to country in this respect. What might be done to improve translators' rights? See Phelan (2001) for Codes of Ethics from Interpreters' Organizations.

Personal vs. Professional Ethics
Other recurrent topics in translation ethics have to do with the borderline between professional and personal ethics; what to do when loyalties to author and reader clash; the translator's right or duty to improve originals; the boundaries of a translator's responsibility; how postmodernism has brought new ideas into the debate

about translation ethics; and when it might be more ethical not to translate at all.

Most of this research is either conceptual or historical in nature, looking at translation ethics descriptively (what are the ethical values given highest priority by different parties? how do they vary?). However, some scholars of translation ethics wish not just to describe and understand the world of translation, but also to change it. Their approach is thus prescriptive in intent.

Further reading: Pym (1997), Koskinen (2000), and the special issue of *The Translator* 7(2) 2001.

1.8 Terminology and Glossaries

Research in terminology serves both theoretical and practical goals. The methodology is basically one of detailed conceptual analysis, but it also involves bibliographical fieldwork and corpus processing. You first need to know the basics of terminology theory and its origins in the growing need for international standardization during the past century. This means e.g. understanding the difference between general language and domain-restricted language (e.g. Melby 1995), and knowing how to define a 'term'. You also need to master the methodological and technical skills required: learning how to formulate a valid definition; learning how to represent various kinds of conceptual systems based on different kinds of relationships between concepts (e.g. hierarchical concept diagrams of various kinds); and learning how to use the computer programs such as Trados MultiTerm that have been developed specifically for terminological work.

In the area of theory, cognitive and philosophical questions come to mind: what is a concept? What do terms represent? How do non-linguistic signs relate to linguistic signs? How can synonymy be accommodated in current models? How can current models be more dynamic? How do terms evolve? How do terms cross language boundaries? What is the relationship between terminology and knowledge engineering? What types of relation can be established between concepts beyond abstract (genus-species) and part-whole relations and how are these realized cross-linguistically? What can prototype theory tell us about the classification of terms and concepts?

What can an experiential epistemological approach tell us about terms and their meanings? How can equivalence be defined at a text rather than a system level? See the journals *Terminology* and *Terminology, Science and Research* for an overview of the major theoretical issues, as well as the publications in the Information Infrastructure Task Force (IITF) series published by TermNet.

In practical research you choose a domain and a language or two, and begin with documentary searches and corpus work: this is term indentification and extraction. Some computer programs exist which can help in the automatic extraction of terms, and more are being developed. Then, via parallel conceptual analysis and definition comparison, you can gradually compile the terminology database for the domain and languages you have chosen. The work might eventually involve term harmonization and language planning. At advanced BA/MA level, the domain will be very restricted (glassblowing, basketball,...). See Wright and Budin (1997 and 2001), Cabré (1999) and Sager (1990). See Pearson (1998) for an introduction to corpus-based approaches.

Additional specialist journals in this area include *Terminologie et Traduction, La Banque des Mots, Terminolies Nouvelles*. Also worth consulting are the relevant international standards: ISO/DIS 1087-1.2 *Terminology work – Vocabulary – Part 1. Theory and application, 1999*.

1.9 Interpreting

Interpreting research has developed rapidly from earlier anecdotal reports to systematic work exploring linguistic, communicative, cognitive and socio-cultural aspects of interpreting. The general field of interpreting can be analyzed in different ways. One distinction concerns the mode of interpreting: simultaneous or consecutive. Another classification concerns the social situation where interpreting is needed, such as:

- Conference interpreting (usually simultaneous, in one direction)
- Liason interpreting, also known as dialogue or community interpreting (usually bi-directional)
- Court interpreting (usually bi-directional).

Research on interpreting usually focuses on one of these types. Useful surveys are to be found in the special issues of *Target* 7(1) 1995, *The Translator* 5(2) 1999, as well as in Carr *et al.* (1996), Gambier *et al.* (1997), Wadensjö (1998), Englund and Hyltenstam (2000), Mason (2000 and 2001) and Gile et al. (2001). See also the journals *Interpreting* and *Meta*, and the *Interpreting Studies Reader* edited by Shlesinger and Pöchhacker (2001).

Sample research topics can be grouped under the following headings:

Cognitive Studies

- Neurophysiological studies of the interpreter's brain in action (not for beginners!)
- The functioning of memory in simultaneous interpreting
- The effect of time-lag on the final quality of the interpretation (in simultaneous)

Behavioural Studies

- The note-taking techniques used in consecutive interpreting
- Studies of the strategies interpreters use to prepare for a task
- Studies of how interpreters cope with particular problems such as a speaker's unusual form of delivery, unusual time constraints, unusual stress conditions
- Time-sharing in dialogue interpreting (between the various speakers)
- Eye-contact between the interpreter and the other participants

Linguistic Studies

- Language-pair-specific studies of how interpreters tend to render various kinds of structures under certain conditions
- Studies of what and when interpreters tend to omit or condense
- Style shifts during interpreting: do interpreters tend to gravitate towards a neutral style, even when their speakers are using a more formal or informal register?

Sociological Studies, Ethics, History

- The negotiation of power and politeness relations among the participants in a dialogue interpreting situation;

- The ethical responsibility of the interpreter, whose side is he/she on?
- The history of interpreting.

Interpreter Training

- Comparative studies of professional and trainee interpreters working under similar conditions; or of 'naïve', untrained interpreters
- Comparative studies of how interpreters are trained in different institutions.

Quality Assessment

- Studies of the reactions of hearers to various aspects of interpreting quality: intonation, voice quality, speed, pauses, grammatical errors, etc.
- Experiments with various methods of assessing the quality of interpreting.

Special Kinds of Interpreting

- The special requirements of court interpreting
- Interpreting for the deaf: sign-language interpreting
- Interpreting for the blind: e.g. the simultaneous oral narration of films (setting, action and script...)
- The use of whispered interpreting (*chuchotage*).

The gathering of empirical data in interpreting research can take a good deal of time and effort. You may need video-recordings as well as tapes. Transcribing a tape-recording is extremely time-consuming. Corpora of recorded and/or transcribed material are therefore extremely valuable as research tools also for other scholars.

1.10 The Translation Process

Workplace Studies

Under this heading we group a few forms of research that have to do with the working lives and conditions of professional translators. They represent ways of studying the sociology of translation.

One such approach is to observe a given translator or translators during a defined period in their everyday work, perhaps combining this research method with interviews. You might be interested in the translators' working procedures: how they distribute their time

between different tasks, how they use reference material or parallel texts, whom they contact when they get stuck, how much coffee they consume... When and how do they revise their text? How do they keep up to date with the latest ideas and developments? What use do they make of computer aids, translation memory programs, the Internet? Do literary translators work differently from translators of other kinds of texts? (See Mossop 2000 for further suggestions.)

An important value of this research is that it allows us to formulate and test hypotheses about how translators behave, but it also has obvious relevance for translator training. Do professional translators actually follow the advice that teachers traditionally give them – e.g. about reading the source text through first? How could we best incorporate information about real translators' working lives into a training programme? What do professional translators think about their own earlier training (questionnaire...)?

Research of this kind at the institutional level broadens the focus to include the translation procedures and policies of companies, agencies, cities, etc. How do official bodies of various kinds organize their own translation practices? What policies do they have for meeting their multilingual communication needs? How have they analyzed these needs in the first place? What use do they make of in-house or freelance staff? What kinds of quality control systems do they use? Do they actually talk about translation at all, or prefer to speak of multilingual documentation? Research here would probably involve a combination of observation, interviews and questionnaires. (See e.g. Lambert 1996.)

One extension of this approach is research on best practice. This involves studying the working processes of translators (or multilingual documentation specialists...) and attempting to correlate these processes with translation quality. Which kinds of working methods seem to lead to the best quality results? To carry out such research, you would obviously need to establish both a way of analyzing working procedures and a way of measuring quality. Very little systematic research has been done on this topic so far. (See, however, Sprung 2000.)

Another line of research focuses on the analysis of what translators themselves say or write about their work. The material here includes translators' prefaces and afterwords, their footnotes, personal

essays and memoirs of translators, interviews with translators, TV programmes about translators or interpreters, and so on. What do translators think about their work, and about themselves as translators? What kind of role model do they seem to have in their minds? How do their attitudes correlate with their particular working conditions, or with the quality of their work? Whom do they especially admire? This kind of research obviously contributes to the status of translators as people worth studying, and hence enhances their social visibility. This in turn might influence what other people in society think about translators, and hence the discourse on translation in general – i.e. what people say and think about translation.

Protocol Studies

This research seeks to investigate the translator's internal decision-making process, by using think-aloud methods or retrospective interviews. Think-aloud protocols can also be linked to computer records of key-stroke usage, so that you can study the translator's use of time in detail. Where do the pauses and hesitations come, the corrections and alterations? (See Kussmaul and Tirkkonen-Condit 1995; Tirkkonen-Condit and Jääskeläinen 2000; Hansen 1999 and also 4.3 below.)

1.11 Translator Training

The research questions in Translator Training revolve around four main areas:

Curriculum Design

This relates to the content of translator-training programmes: which elements are essential/desirable in (which) translator-training programmes and why? What is the relative importance (in which context?) of training mother-tongue competence, subject-field knowledge, familiarity with translation software and so on? Another hotly debated topic is whether translator training should take place at undergraduate or postgraduate level. A comparative-descriptive study of practice in a number of different countries could shed light on universal as opposed to local, culture-specific aspects of Translator Training.

Implementation

Here we are dealing with the content, delivery and evaluation of particular components in a translator-training programme. For example, most programmes include at least one course in 'Specialized Translation'. Yet little agreement seems to exist on the degree of specialization appropriate at any particular level, the qualifications required in the teacher of such a course, appropriate classroom management techniques and/or the best way(s) to provide feedback to students on their work.

Research needs to be carried out on the role of Translation Technology in translator-training programmes as well as on the content of Translation Technology modules. For example, a Translation Technology module could include terminology management, translation memory system(s), website translation, software localization: which elements are most appropriate in which situations? How can such a course be delivered? In a lecture hall? In a computer lab? Online? (See also 1.5 above.)

Typical Problem Areas

Are there 'universal problems' which (almost) all trainees encounter? Possible candidates might be: improper use of (bilingual) dictionaries, inadequate textual competence in specific fields. (See Kussmaul 1995.) How could such problems be tackled? Residence in the country/ies of the Source and/or Target Language (how long? how structured?) is another research topic in this area.

Professional Dimension

How can trainees best be introduced to the profession in the course of their studies? Issues in this context range from participation in national Translators Associations through tendering for contracts and billing to questions of ethics. The (un)desirability of company placements is another issue here. As the translation profession is changing so rapidly, there is plenty of scope for up-to-date workplace studies on current practice – and the research questions allied to practice – in multilingual documentation companies.

Besides Kussmaul (1995), Kiraly (1995, 2000) and Schäffner and Adab (2000), most publications in translator training can be found in the Proceedings of major international conferences such

as those organized by FIT (Fédération Internationale des Traducteurs), EST (European Society for Translation Studies) as well as by Translator Training Schools (e.g. Dollerup and Appel 1996; Delisle and Lee-Jahnke 1998) and, occasionally, in special issues of journals.

Empirical data is abundant and largely unexplored in this topic area: curricula, syllabi, trainers, trainees, examination scripts and other forms of trainee assessment are accessible in many translator-training institutions throughout the world.

1.12 The Translation Profession

This is quite a new area of research devoted to the professional context in which translators work. Here research can either be historical or contemporary. Historical research might look at how a professional association has developed in a country, region or continent. Contemporary research could deal with issues relating to the current situation of the professional association(s) in your country. If there is more than one (or none), your research might investigate why this is so. Research questions in this area revolve around:

- Qualifications for membership/ membership categories
- The nature of the certification process (if one exists)
- The employment status of the members (freelance, salaried translators in the private/public sector, part-time/full-time?) and their specialism (technical, literary etc.)
- The Association's code of ethics
- The benefits of membership
- The Association's role in translation policy development at local, regional or national level
- The Association's programme of professional development for members.

See the list of Translation Associations in Part IV of Hatim (2001), and also the journal *Babel*, for an introduction to this area.