

Introducing Translation Studies

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Basil Hatim, American University of Sharjah, UAE

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In this book Munday explores each theory chapter by chapter and tests the different approaches by applying them to texts. The texts discussed are taken from a broad range of languages – Bengali, English, French, German, Spanish, Italian, Punjabi, Portuguese and Spanish – and English translations are provided.

Analysing a wide variety of texts including the Bible, Beowulf, the fiction of García Márquez and Proust, European Union and Unesco documents, films, a travel brochure, a children's cookery book and the translations of *Harry Potter*, Munday provides a balanced introduction to the subject.

Each chapter includes a box presenting the key concepts; an introduction outlining the translation theory or theories; illustrative texts with translations; case studies; a chapter summary and discussion points and exercises.

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Introducing Translation Studies

Theories and applications

Second Edition

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The case study in Chapter 8 is a revised and abridged version of an article of mine: 'The Caribbean conquers the world? An analysis of the reception of García Márquez in translation', published in *Bulletin of Hispanic Studies*, 75.1: 137–44.

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List of abbreviations

- CE Common Era
- DTS descriptive translation studies
- SL source language
- ST source text
- TL target language
- TT target text

Introduction

Translation studies is the academic discipline related to the study of the theory and phenomena of translation. By its nature it is multilingual and also interdisciplinary, encompassing any language combinations, various branches of linguistics, comparative literature, communication studies, philosophy and a range of types of cultural studies including postcolonialism and postmodernism as well as sociology and historiography.

Because of this diversity, one of the biggest problems in teaching and learning about translation studies is that much of it is dispersed across such a wide range of books and journals. Hence there have been a number of 'readers' of key writings on the subject; these include Hans-Joachim Störig's *Das Problem des Übersetzens* (1963), Andrew Chesterman's *Readings in Translation Theory* (1989), André Lefevere's *Translation/History/Culture: A Sourcebook* (1992b), Rainer Schulte and John Biguenet's *Theories of Translation: An Anthology of Essays from Dryden to Derrida* (1992), Douglas Robinson's *Western Translation Theory from Herodotus to Nietzsche* (1997b) and Lawrence Venuti's *The Translation Studies Reader* (2000, 2nd edition 2004). Others, such as *The Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies* (Baker 1998), *An Encyclopedia of Translation* (Chan and Pollard 1995) and *The Dictionary of Translation Studies* (Shuttleworth and Cowie 1997), have attempted to bring together the main concepts and give a description of the field. Surveys in other languages include, in Spanish, Hurtado Albir (2001), in German, Snell-Hornby *et al.* (1999) and Stolze (2001) and the multilingual 'handbook' by Mouton de Gruyter, the first volume of which was published in 2004 (Kittel *et al.* 2004).

The first edition of *Introducing Translation Studies* (2001) presented a practical introduction to an already diverse field. This second edition is fully revised but has the same aim, setting out to give a critical but balanced survey of many of the most important trends and contributions to translation studies in a single volume, written in an accessible style. The different contemporary models are applied to illustrative texts in brief case studies so that the reader can see them in operation. The new research contained in these case studies, together with the 'discussion and research points' sections, is designed to encourage further exploration and understanding of translation issues.

This new edition follows the basic structure of the earlier edition but fully updates references, includes a description of important new material throughout: for instance, more material on historical sources, especially China, in Chapter 2, some consideration of cognitive theories in Chapter 4, an update on 'translation universals' in Chapter 7, and the addition of new work on ethics, ideology, sociology, historiography and the translation of gay texts in Chapters 8 and 9. Some of the material from the original final chapter on interdisciplinarity has been incorporated into Chapter 1 and a new final chapter discusses how the pace of new technologies is presenting new challenges and opening up new fields

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to translation studies. The focus in this last chapter is on audiovisual translation, localization and corpus linguistics.

The book is designed to serve as a coursebook for undergraduate and postgraduate translation, translation studies and translation theory, and also as a solid theoretical introduction to students, researchers, instructors and professional translators. The aim is to enable the readers to develop their understanding of the issues and associated metalanguage, and to begin to apply the models themselves. It is also hoped that a closer examination of specific issues and further reading in those areas that are of greatest interest to the individual student will be encouraged. In this way, the book may provide a stimulating introduction to a range of theoretical approaches to translation that are relevant both for those engaged in the academic study of translation and for the professional linguist.

Each of the chapters surveys a major area of the discipline. Each is designed to be self-standing, so that readers with a specific focus can quickly find the descriptions that are of most interest to them. However, conceptual links between chapters are cross-referenced and the book has been structured so that it can function as a coursebook in translation, translation studies and translation theory. There are eleven chapters, each of which might be covered in one or two weeks, depending on the length of the course, to fit into a semesterized system. The discussion and research points additionally provide substantial initial material for students to begin to develop their own research. The progression of ideas is also from the introductory (presenting the main issues of translation studies in Chapter 1) to the more complex, as the students become more accustomed to the terminology and concepts. In general, the progression is chronological, from pre-twentieth-century theory in Chapter 2 to linguistic-oriented theories (Chapters 3–6 *passim*) and to more recent developments from cultural studies such as postcolonialism (Chapter 8). But it is also conceptual, since some of the earlier theories and concepts, such as equivalence and universals of translation, are constantly being revisited.

Clarity has been a major consideration, so each chapter follows a similar format of:

- an introductory table clearly presenting key terms and ideas;
- the main text, describing in detail the models and issues under discussion;
- an illustrative case study, which applies and evaluates the main model of the chapter;
- suggestions for further reading;
- a brief evaluative summary of the chapter;
- a series of discussion and research points to stimulate further thought and research.

The readers listed above were necessarily selective, and this volume is no different. The theorists and models covered have been chosen because of their strong influence on translation studies and because they are particularly representative of the approaches in each chapter. Exclusion of much other worthy material has been due to space constraints and the focus of the book, which is to give a clear introduction to a number of theoretical approaches. Over recent years, and since the publication of the first edition, the field has continued to grow with a considerable increase in the number of publications (monographs, edited volumes, journals, online publications) and the borrowing of concepts from new fields such as cognitive studies, sociology, literary theory and corpus linguistics). It is not practicable, and indeed would be impossible, to attempt to be fully comprehensive. I am also aware that the organization of the book inevitably gives preference to those theorists who

have advanced major new ideas and gives less than sufficient due to the many scholars who work in the field producing detailed case studies or less high-profile work.

For these reasons, detailed suggestions are given for further reading. These are designed to encourage students to go to the primary texts, to follow up ideas that have been raised in each chapter and to investigate the research that is being carried out in their own countries and languages. In this way, the book should ideally be used in conjunction with the readers mentioned above and be supported by an institution's library resources. An attempt has also been made to refer to many works that are readily available, either in recent editions or reprinted in one of the anthologies. A comprehensive bibliography is provided at the end of the book, together with a brief list of useful websites, where up-to-date information on translation studies conferences, publications and organizations is to be found. In addition, since this is a rapidly changing and expanding field, the intention is for some additional material to be available on the Routledge website (see http://www.routledge.com/textbooks/its.html), including periodic updates of new works that are published. The emphasis is on encouraging reflection, investigation and awareness of the new discipline, and on applying the theory to both practice and research.

A major issue has been the choice of languages for the texts used in the illustrative case studies. There are examples or texts from English, French, German, Italian, Portuguese and Spanish. Some additional examples are given from Bengali, Dutch, Punjabi and Russian. Yet the case studies are written in such a way as to focus on the theoretical issues and should not exclude those unfamiliar with the specific language pairs. A range of text types is offered, including the Bible, *Beowulf*, the fiction of García Márquez and Proust, European Union and Unesco documents, a travel brochure, a children's cookery book, the translations of Harry Potter and subtitled films from Bengali, French and German.

Above all, my hope is that this book will contribute to the continued development of translation studies by helping and encouraging readers old and new to the field to pursue their interest in this dynamic discipline.

CHAPTER 1

Main issues of translation studies

Key concepts

- The practice of translating is long established, but the discipline of translation studies is new.
- In academic circles, translation was previously relegated to just a language-learning activity.
- A split has persisted between translation practice and theory.
- The study of (usually literary) translation began through comparative literature, translation 'workshops' and contrastive analysis.
- James S. Holmes's 'The name and nature of translation studies' is considered to be the 'founding statement' of a new discipline.
- Translation studies has expanded hugely, and is now often considered an interdiscipline.

Key texts

Chesterman, A. (2002) 'On the interdisciplinarity of translation studies', *Logos* 3.1: 1–9.

- Ferreira Duarte, J., A. Assis Rosa and T. Seruya (eds) (2006) *Translation Studies at the Interface of Disciplines*, Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- **Gile, D.** (2004) 'Translation research versus interpreting research: kinship, differences and prospects for partnership', in Christina Schäffner (ed.), pp. 10–34.
- Holmes, J. S. (1988b/2004) 'The name and nature of translation studies', in L. Venuti (ed.) (2004), pp. 180–92.
- Jakobson, R. (1959/2004) 'On linguistic aspects of translation', in L. Venuti (ed.) (2004), pp. 138–43.
- **Snell-Hornby, M.** (2006) *The Turns of Translation Studies*, Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins, Chapter 1.

1.1 THE CONCEPT OF TRANSLATION

The main aim of this book is to introduce the reader to major concepts and models of translation studies. Because of the rapid growth in the area, particularly over the last decade, difficult decisions have had to be taken regarding the selection of material. We have decided, for reasons of space and consistency of approach, to focus on written

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translation rather than oral translation (the latter is commonly known as **interpreting** or **interpretation**), although the overlaps make a clear distinction impossible (cf. Gile 2004).

The term **translation** itself has several meanings: it can refer to the general subject field, the product (the text that has been translated) or the process (the act of producing the translation, otherwise known as **translating**). The **process of translation** between two different written languages involves the translator changing an original written text (the **source text** or **ST**) in the original verbal language (the **source language** or **SL**) into a written text (the **target text** or **TT**) in a different verbal language (the **target language** or **TL**). This type corresponds to 'interlingual translation' and is one of the three categories of translation described by the Russo-American structuralist Roman Jakobson in his seminal paper 'On linguistic aspects of translation' (Jakobson 1959/2004: 139). Jakobson's categories are as follows:

- (1) **intralingual** translation, or 'rewording': 'an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language';
- (2) **interlingual** translation, or 'translation proper': 'an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language';
- (3) **intersemiotic** translation, or 'transmutation': 'an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of non-verbal sign systems'.

Intralingual translation would occur, for example, when we rephrase an expression or when we summarize or otherwise rewrite a text in the same language. Intersemiotic translation would occur if a written text were translated, for example, into music, film or painting. It is interlingual translation, between two different verbal languages, which is the traditional, although by no means exclusive, focus of translation studies. As we shall see as the book progresses, notably in Chapters 8 to 10, the very notion of 'translation proper' and of the stability of source and target has now been challenged and the question of what we mean by 'translation', and how it differs from 'adaptation', 'version', etc., is a real one. Thus, whereas Sandra Halverson (1999) claims that translation can be considered as a prototype classification (i.e. that there are basic core features that we associate with a prototypical translation, and other translational forms which lie on the periphery), Anthony Pym (2004a: 52) sees clear 'discontinuities' in certain new modes, such as translation-localization. Much of the 'theory' is also from a western perspective; in contrast, Maria Tymoczko (2005, 2006) discusses the very different words and metaphors for 'translation' in other cultures, indicative of a conceptual orientation and where the goal of close lexical fidelity to an original may not therefore be shared, certainly in the practice of translation of sacred and literary texts. For instance, in India there is 'rupantar' (= 'change of form') and 'anuvad' (= 'speaking after', 'following'), in the Arab world 'tarjama' (= 'biography') and in China 'fan yi' (= 'turning over') (see also, Ramakrishna 2000, Trivedi 2006).

1.2 WHAT IS TRANSLATION STUDIES?

Throughout history, written and spoken translations have played a crucial role in interhuman communication, not least in providing access to important texts for scholarship and religious purposes. Yet the study of translation as an academic subject has only really begun in the past sixty years. In the English-speaking world, this discipline is now generally known as

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'translation studies', thanks to the Dutch-based US scholar James S. Holmes. In his key defining paper delivered in 1972, but not widely available until 1988, Holmes describes the then nascent discipline as being concerned with 'the complex of problems clustered round the phenomenon of translating and translations' (Holmes 1988b/2004: 181). By 1988, Mary Snell-Hornby, in the first edition of her *Translation Studies: An Integrated Approach*, was writing that 'the demand that translation studies should be viewed as an independent discipline ... has come from several quarters in recent years' (Snell-Hornby 1988, preface). By 1995, the time of the second, revised, edition of her work, Snell-Hornby is able to talk in the preface of 'the breathtaking development of translation studies as an independent discipline' and the 'prolific international discussion' on the subject (Snell-Hornby 1995 preface). Mona Baker, in her introduction to the first edition of *The Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation* (1998), talked effusively of the richness of the 'exciting new discipline, perhaps *the* discipline of the 1990s', bringing together scholars from a wide variety of often more traditional disciplines.

There are two very visible ways in which translation studies has become more prominent. First, there has been a proliferation of **specialized translating and interpreting courses** at both undergraduate and postgraduate level. These courses, which attract thousands of students, are mainly oriented towards training future professional commercial translators and interpreters and serve as highly valued entry-level qualifications for the translating and interpreting professions. Caminade and Pym (1995) listed at least 250 university-level bodies in over sixty countries offering four-year undergraduate degrees and/or postgraduate courses in translation. The number has continued to grow. Take the example of the UK, where the study of modern languages at university has been in decline but where the story particularly of postgraduate courses in interpreting and translating, the first of which were set up in the 1960s, is very different. At the time of the first edition of this book, there were at least twenty postgraduate translation courses in the UK and several designated 'Centres for Translation Studies'. By 2007–8, the keyword search 'translation' revealed over twenty institutions offering a combined total of 135 MA programmes, even if translation was not necessarily central to all.¹

Other courses, in smaller numbers, focus on the practice of literary translation. In the UK, these include major courses at Middlesex University and the University of East Anglia (Norwich), the latter of which also houses the British Centre for Literary Translation. In Europe, there is now a network of centres where literary translation is studied, practised and promoted. Apart from Norwich, these include Amsterdam (the Netherlands), Arles (France), Bratislava (Slovakia), Monaghan (Ireland), Rhodes (Greece), Sineffe (Belgium), Strälen (Germany), Tarazona (Spain) and Visby (Sweden).

The past two decades have also seen a proliferation of **conferences**, **books and journals** on translation in many languages. Longer-standing international translation studies journals such as *Babel* (the Netherlands) and *Meta* (Canada), which recently celebrated its fiftieth anniversary, were joined by *TTR* (Canada) in 1988, *Target* (the Netherlands) in 1989, and *The Translator* (UK) in 1995 as well as by numerous others including *Across Languages and Cultures* (Hungary), *Cadernos de Tradução* (Brazil), *Translation and Literature* (UK), *Perspectives* (Denmark), *Rivista Internazionale di Tecnica della Traduzione* (Italy), *Translation Studies* (UK), *Turjuman* (Morocco) and the Spanish *Hermeneus, Livius* and *Sendebar*. Online accessibility is increasing the profile of certain publications: thus, the entire contents of *Meta* are available online, issues of *Babel* and *Target* from 2000 onwards are viewable by subscription and we now see the appearance of

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fully online journals such as *The Journal of Specialized Translation* and *New Voices* (see Appendix). In addition, there is a whole host of other single-language, modern languages, applied linguistics, comparative literature and other journals whose primary focus may not be translation but where articles on translation are often published. The new- and backlists of European publishers such as Continuum, John Benjamins, Multilingual Matters, Rodopi, Routledge and St Jerome now contain considerable numbers of books in the field of translation studies, as is attested by the searchable online bibliographies Translation Studies bibliography (John Benjamins) and Translation Studies abstracts (St Jerome) (see Appendix). In addition, there are various professional publications dedicated to the practice of translation. In the UK these include *The Linguist* of the Chartered Institute of Linguists, *The ITI Bulletin* of the Institute for Translating and Interpreting and *In Other Words*, the literary-oriented publication of the Translators Association.

International organizations have also prospered. The Fédération Internationale des Traducteurs, established in 1953 by the Société française des traducteurs and its president Pierre-François Caillé, brought together national associations of translators. In more recent years, translation studies scholars have banded together nationally and internationally in bodies such as the Canadian Association for Translation Studies/Association canadienne de traductologie (founded in Ottawa in 1987), the European Society for Translation Studies (Vienna, 1992), the European Association for Studies in Screen Translation (Cardiff, 1995) and the International Association of Translation and Intercultural Studies (Korea, 2004). International conferences on a wide variety of themes are held in an increasing number of countries, and there has been a dramatic increase in activity in China, India, the Arab world, South Africa, Spain, Greece and Italy, amongst others. From being a little-established field a relatively short time ago, translation studies has now become one of the most active and dynamic new areas of research encompassing an exciting mix of approaches.

This chapter sets out to examine what exactly is understood by this fast-growing field and briefly describes the history and aims of the discipline.

1.3 A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE DISCIPLINE

Writings on the subject of translating go far back in recorded history. The practice of translation was discussed by, for example, Cicero and Horace (first century BCE) and St Jerome (fourth century CE); as we shall see in Chapter 2, their writings were to exert an important influence up until the twentieth century. In St Jerome's case, his approach to translating the Greek Septuagint into Latin would affect later translations of the Scriptures. Indeed, in western Europe the translation of the Bible was to be – for well over a thousand years and especially during the Reformation in the sixteenth century – the battleground of conflicting ideologies. In China, it was the translation of the Bible such as that inaugurated a long discussion on translation practice from the first century CE.

However, although the practice of translating is long established, the study of the field developed into an academic discipline only in the second half of the twentieth century. Before that, translation had normally been merely an element of language learning in modern language courses. In fact, from the late eighteenth century to the 1960s, language learning in secondary schools in many countries had come to be dominated by what was known as the grammar-translation method. This method, which was applied to classical Latin and Greek and then to modern foreign languages, centred on the rote study of the

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grammatical rules and structures of the foreign language. These rules were both practised and tested by the translation of a series of usually unconnected and artificially constructed sentences exemplifying the structure(s) being studied, an approach that persists even nowadays in certain countries and contexts. Typical of this is the following rather bizarre and decontextualized collection of sentences to translate into Spanish, for the practice of Spanish tense use. They appear in K. Mason's *Advanced Spanish Course*, still to be found on some secondary school courses in the UK:

- (1) The castle stood out against the cloudless sky.
- (2) The peasants enjoyed their weekly visits to the market.
- (3) She usually dusted the bedrooms after breakfast.
- (4) Mrs Evans taught French at the local grammar school.

(Mason 1969/74:92)

The gearing of translation to language teaching and learning may partly explain why academia considered it to be of secondary status. Translation exercises were regarded as a means of learning a new language or of reading a foreign language text until one had the linguistic ability to read the original. Study of a work in translation was generally frowned upon once the student had acquired the necessary skills to read the original. However, the grammar-translation method fell into increasing disrepute, particularly in many English-language countries, with the rise of the direct method or communicative approach to English language teaching in the 1960s and 1970s. This approach placed stress on students' natural capacity to learn language and attempts to replicate 'authentic' language learning conditions in the classroom. It often privileged spoken over written forms, at least initially, and shunned the use of the students' mother tongue. This focus led to the abandoning of translation in language learning. As far as teaching was concerned, translation then tended to become restricted to higher-level and university language courses and professional translator training, to the extent that present first-year undergraduates in the UK are unlikely to have had any real practice in the skill.

In the USA, translation – specifically literary translation – was promoted in universities in the 1960s by the **translation workshop** concept. Based on I. A. Richards's reading workshops and practical criticism approach that began in the 1920s and in other later creative writing workshops, these translation workshops were first established in the universities of Iowa and Princeton. They were intended as a platform for the introduction of new translations into the target culture and for the discussion of the finer principles of the translation process and of understanding a text (for further discussion of this background, see Gentzler 2001: Chapter 2). Running parallel to this approach was that of **comparative literature**, where literature is studied and compared transnationally and transculturally, necessitating the reading of some literature in translation.

Another area in which translation became the subject of research was **contrastive analysis**. This is the study of two languages in contrast in an attempt to identify general and specific differences between them. It developed into a systematic area of research in the USA from the 1930s onwards and came to the fore in the 1960s and 1970s. Translations and translated examples provided much of the data in these studies (e.g. Di Pietro 1971, James 1980). The contrastive approach heavily influenced other studies, such as Vinay and Darbelnet's (1958) and Catford's (1965), which overtly stated their aim of assisting translation research. Although useful, contrastive analysis does not, however, incorporate sociocultural and pragmatic factors, nor the role of translation as a communicative act. Nevertheless, although sometimes denigrated, the continued application of a linguistic approach in general, and specific linguistic models such as generative grammar or functional grammar (see Chapters 3, 5 and 6), has demonstrated an inherent and gut link with translation.

The more systematic, and mostly linguistic-oriented, approach to the study of translation began to emerge in the 1950s and 1960s. There are a number of now classic examples:

- Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet produced their *Stylistique comparée du français et de l'anglais* (1958), a contrastive approach that categorized what they saw happening in the practice of translation between French and English;
- Alfred Malblanc (1963) did the same for translation between French and German;
- Georges Mounin's Les problèmes théoriques de la traduction (1963) examined linguistic issues of translation;
- Eugene Nida (1964a) incorporated elements of Chomsky's then fashionable generative grammar as a theoretical underpinning of his books, which were initially designed to be practical manuals for Bible translators.

This more 'scientific' approach in many ways began to mark out the territory of the academic investigation of translation. The word 'science' was used by Nida in the title of his 1964 book (*Toward a Science of Translating*, 1964a); the German equivalent, 'Übersetzungswissenschaft', was taken up by Wolfram Wilss in his teaching and research at the Universität des Saarlandes at Saarbrücken, by Koller in Heidelberg and by the Leipzig School, where scholars such as Kade and Neubert became active (see Snell-Hornby 2006). At that time, even the name of the emerging discipline remained to be determined, with candidates such as 'translatology' in English – and its counterparts 'translatologie' in French and 'traductología' in Spanish (e.g. Vázquez Ayora, 1977 and the substantial contribution of Hurtado Albir, 2001) – staking their claim.

1.4 THE HOLMES/TOURY 'MAP'

A seminal paper in the development of the field as a distinct discipline was James S. Holmes's 'The name and nature of translation studies' (Holmes 1988b/2004). In his *Contemporary Translation Theories*, Gentzler (2001: 93) describes Holmes's paper as 'generally accepted as the founding statement for the field', and Snell-Hornby (2006: 3) agrees. Interestingly, in view of our discussion above of how the field evolved from other disciplines, the published version was an expanded form of a paper Holmes originally gave in 1972 in the translation section of the Third International Congress of Applied Linguistics in Copenhagen. Holmes draws attention to the limitations imposed at the time by the fact that translation research was dispersed across older disciplines. He also stresses the need to forge 'other communication channels, cutting across the traditional disciplines to reach all scholars working in the field, from whatever background' (1988b/2004: 181).

Crucially, Holmes puts forward an overall framework, describing what translation studies covers. This framework has subsequently been presented by the leading Israeli translation scholar Gideon Toury as in Figure 1.1. In Holmes's explanations of this

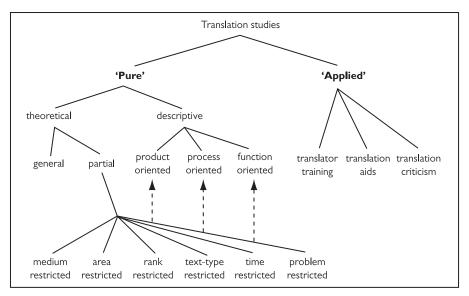


Figure 1.1 Holmes's 'map' of translation studies (from Toury 1995: 10).

framework (Holmes 1988b/2004: 184–90), the objectives of the 'pure' areas of research are:

- (1) the description of the phenomena of translation (descriptive translation theory);
- (2) the establishment of general principles to explain and predict such phenomena (translation theory).

The 'theoretical' branch is divided into general and partial theories. By 'general', Holmes is referring to those writings that seek to describe or account for every type of translation and to make generalizations that will be relevant for translation as a whole. 'Partial' theoretical studies are restricted according to the parameters discussed below.

The other branch of 'pure' research in Holmes's map is descriptive. Descriptive translation studies (DTS) has three possible foci: examination of (1) the product, (2) the function and (3) the process:

- (1) Product-oriented DTS examines existing translations. This can involve the description or analysis of a single ST-TT pair or a comparative analysis of several TTs of the same ST (into one or more TLs). These smaller-scale studies can build up into a larger body of translation analysis looking at a specific period, language or text/discourse type. Larger-scale studies can be either diachronic (following development over time) or synchronic (at a single point or period in time) and, as Holmes (p. 185) foresees, 'one of the eventual goals of product-oriented DTS might possibly be a general history of translations however ambitious such a goal might sound at this time'.
- (2) By **function-oriented DTS**, Holmes means the description of the 'function [of translations] in the recipient sociocultural situation: it is a study of contexts rather

than texts' (p. 185). Issues that may be researched include which books were translated when and where, and what influences they exerted. This area, which Holmes terms 'socio-translation studies' – but which would nowadays probably be called cultural-studies-oriented translation – was less researched at the time of Holmes's paper but is more popular in current work on translation studies (see Chapters 8 and 9).

(3) Process-oriented DTS in Holmes's framework is concerned with the psychology of translation, i.e. it is concerned with trying to find out what happens in the mind of a translator. Despite later work from a cognitive perspective including think-aloud protocols (where recordings are made of translators' verbalization of the translation process as they translate), this is an area of research which is only now being systematically analysed (see Chapter 4.4).

The results of DTS research can be fed into the theoretical branch to evolve either a general theory of translation or, more likely, partial theories of translation 'restricted' according to the subdivisions in Figure 1.1 above.

- Medium-restricted theories subdivide according to translation by machine and humans, with further subdivisions according to whether the machine/computer is working alone or as an aid to the human translator, to whether the human translation is written or spoken and to whether spoken translation (interpreting) is consecutive or simultaneous.
- Area-restricted theories are restricted to specific languages or groups of languages and/or cultures. Holmes notes that language-restricted theories are closely related to work in contrastive linguistics and stylistics.
- Rank-restricted theories are linguistic theories that have been restricted to a specific level of (normally) the word or sentence. At the time Holmes was writing, there was already a trend towards text linguistics, i.e. text-rank analysis, which has since become far more popular (see Chapters 5 and 6 of this book).
- **Text-type restricted theories** look at specific discourse types or genres; e.g. literary, business and technical translation. Text-type approaches came to prominence with the work of Reiss and Vermeer, amongst others, in the 1970s (see Chapter 5).
- The term time-restricted is self-explanatory, referring to theories and translations limited according to specific time frames and periods. The history of translation falls into this category.
- Problem-restricted theories can refer to specific problems such as equivalence a key issue of the 1960s and 1970s – or to a wider question of whether universals of translated language exist.

Despite this categorization, Holmes himself is at pains to point out that several different restrictions can apply at any one time. Thus, the study of the prefaces to the new English translations of novels by Marcel Proust, analysed in Chapter 2, would be area restricted (translation from Parisian French into English), text-type restricted (prefaces to a novel) and time restricted (1981 to 2003).

The 'applied' branch of Holmes's framework concerns:

translator training: teaching methods, testing techniques, curriculum design;

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- translation aids: such as dictionaries, grammars and information technology;
- translation criticism: the evaluation of translations, including the marking of student translations and the reviews of published translations.

Another area Holmes mentions is **translation policy**, where he sees the translation scholar advising on the place of translation in society, including what place, if any, it should occupy in the language teaching and learning curriculum.

If these aspects of the applied branch are developed, the right-hand side of Figure 1.1 would look something like Figure 1.2. The divisions in the 'map' as a whole are in many ways artificial, and Holmes himself is concerned to point out that the theoretical, descriptive and applied areas do influence one another. The main merit of the divisions, however, is – as Toury states (1991: 180, 1995: 9) – that they allow a clarification and a division of labour between the various areas of translation studies which, in the past, have often been confused. The division is nevertheless flexible enough to incorporate developments such as the technological advances of recent years, although these advances still require considerable further investigation.

The crucial role played by Holmes's paper is in the delineation of the potential of translation studies. The map is still often employed as a point of departure, even if subsequent theoretical discussions (e.g. Pym 1998, Hatim and Munday 2004: 8, Snell-Hornby 2006) have attempted to rewrite parts of it. Also, present-day research has transformed the 1972 perspective. The fact that Holmes devoted two-thirds of his attention to the 'pure' aspects of theory and description surely indicates his research interests rather than a lack of possibilities for the applied side. 'Translation policy' would nowadays far more likely be related to the ideology, including language policy and hegemony, that determines translation than was the case in Holmes's description. The different restrictions, which Toury identifies as relating to the descriptive as well as the purely theoretical branch (the discontinuous vertical lines in Figure 1.1), might well include a discourse-type as well as a text-type restriction. Inclusion of interpreting as a sub-category of human translation would also be disputed by many scholars. In view of the very different requirements and activities

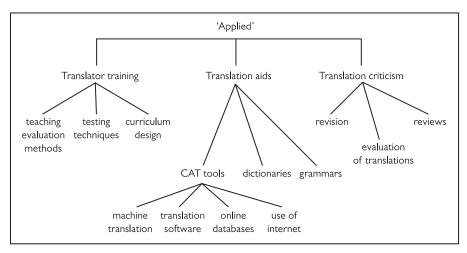


Figure 1.2 The applied branch of translation studies.

associated with interpreting, and notwithstanding inevitable points of overlap, it would probably be best to consider interpreting as a parallel field, under the title of 'interpreting studies' (see Pöchhacker 2004). Additionally, as Pym points out (1998: 4), Holmes's map omits any mention of the individuality of the style, decision-making processes and working practices of human translators involved in the translation process. Yet it was precisely the split between theory and practice that Holmes, himself both a literary translator and a researcher, sought to overcome. As interest in translation studies grew, the manifestations and effects of such a split became more evident and are clearly expressed by Kitty van Leuven-Zwart (1991: 6). She describes translation teachers' fear that theory would take over from practical training, and literary translators' views that translation was an art that could not be theorized, an opinion that is still manifested in much of their writing (see Chapter 9). On the other hand, academic researchers from longer-established disciplines were 'very sceptical' about translation research or felt that translation already had its place in the languages curriculum.

1.5 DEVELOPMENTS SINCE THE 1970S

The surge in translation studies since the 1970s has seen different areas of Holmes's map come to the fore. Contrastive analysis has fallen by the wayside. The linguistics-oriented 'science' of translation has continued strongly in Germany, but the concept of equivalence associated with it has been questioned and reconceived (Pym; see Chapter 11). Germany has seen the rise of theories centred around text types (Reiss; see Chapter 5) and text purpose (the skopos theory of Reiss and Vermeer; see Chapter 5), while the Hallidayan influence of discourse analysis and systemic functional grammar, which views language as a communicative act in a sociocultural context, came to prominence in the early 1990s, especially in Australia and the UK, and was applied to translation in a series of works by scholars such as Bell (1991), Baker (1992) and Hatim and Mason (1990, 1997). The late 1970s and the 1980s also saw the rise of a descriptive approach that had its origins in comparative literature and Russian Formalism. A pioneering centre has been Tel Aviv, where Itamar Even-Zohar and Gideon Toury have pursued the idea of the literary polysystem in which, amongst other things, different literatures and genres, including translated and nontranslated works, compete for dominance. The polysystemists worked with a Belgiumbased group including José Lambert and the late André Lefevere (who subsequently moved to the University of Austin, Texas), and with the UK-based scholars Susan Bassnett and Theo Hermans. A key volume was the collection of essays edited by Hermans, The Manipulation of Literature: Studies in Literary Translation (Hermans 1985a), which gave rise to the name of the 'Manipulation School'. This dynamic, culturally oriented approach held sway for much of the following decade, and linguistics looked very staid.

The 1990s saw the incorporation of new schools and concepts, with Canadian-based translation and gender research led by Sherry Simon, the Brazilian cannibalist school promoted by Else Vieira, postcolonial translation theory, with the prominent figures of the Bengali scholars Tejaswini Niranjana and Gayatri Spivak and, in the USA, the cultural-studies-oriented analysis of Lawrence Venuti, calling for greater visibility and recognition of the translator. This has continued apace in the first decade of the new millennium, with special interest devoted to translation, globalization and resistance (Cronin 2003, Baker 2006), the sociology and historiography of translation (e.g. Inghilleri 2005a, Wolf and Fukari