TRANSLATION STUDIES: AN OVERVIEW

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Abstract: The article briefly outlines the main schools and approaches that make up the current landscape of Translation Studies. The purpose of this paper is to offer an introduction to translation theory for those who are beginning their studies in this field or whose knowledge of Translation Studies is tangential. The article starts with a few preliminary matters, such as the question of what Translation Studies is and how the discipline has been mapped out. Then it moves on to examine the theoretical considerations that have been developed since the second half of the 20th century, with special attention being paid to the most recent decades. In this section, which is devoted to theoretical considerations, I will review some of the fundamental issues from a) theories of equivalence and comparisons between languages; b) functionalist theories; c) discursive approaches; d) polysystem theory, descriptive studies and norms; e) cultural studies; f) philosophical theories; g) latest contributions to the field of Translation Studies; and h) interdisciplinary and integrating approaches.
Keywords: translation studies, contemporary theories, linguistic approaches, descriptive studies, cultural studies.

1. Preliminary matters

1.1. Translation Studies and Translation

Translation Studies is an academic discipline that studies the theory and practice of translation. It is, by nature, a multilingual but also interdisciplinary field of study since establishes relation-

ships with linguistics, cultural studies, philosophy, the information sciences, and so forth.

Firstly, however, a clear distinction should be made between the notions of *translation* and *Translation Studies*. *Translation Studies* is the discipline that deals with the study of translation, and *translation* is "a skill, a *savoir-faire*, that consists in going through the translating process, and being capable of solving the translation problems that arise in each case" (Hurtado, 2001: 25; see also Shuttleworth and Cowie, 1997: 181).

Translation has been defined in a countless number of ways. According to Mayoral (2001: 45), there are as many definitions as there are authors who have written on the subject. Such diversity is due to the fact that translation is a multifaceted term. It can refer to: a) the general subject field, b) the product (the text that has been translated) or, c) the process (the act of actually carrying out a translation, otherwise known as translating) (Munday, 2001: 4-5).

As a discipline, Translation Studies is also polymorphic. There are many different possible fields of study and this polymorphism means that a variety of approaches can be applied. Yet this means that the student and the researcher are faced with the problem of where to find accurate information, or what approaches or authors to start with when setting out on the research path. As pointed out by Munday (2001: 1), the information appears to be scattered throughout an endless number of books and journals and, sometimes, in texts from different disciplines. Fortunately, in order to help overcome these drawbacks a series of collections, or *readers*, have been published (especially over the last two decades) to offer the researcher guidance as regards the key texts. Some of the most noteworthy examples of such publications include those by Chesterman (1989): *Readings in Translation Theory*; Lefevere (1992a): *Translation/History/Culture: A Sourcebook*; Schulte and Biguenet (1992): *Theories of Translation*: An Anthology of Essays from Dryden to Derrida; Robinson (1997a): *Western Translation Theory from Herodotus to Nietzsche*; Venuti (2000): *The Transla-*

tion Studies Reader; or Andermann and Rogers (2003): *Translation today, trends and perspectives*. Others, such as *The Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies,* by Baker (1998), and the *Dictionary of Translation Studies,* by Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997), and the new edition of the *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics*, published by Elseviere (2006) offer a description of the main concepts and topics of the field. Finally, a series of essential works have also appeared recently that offer a thorough, meticulous and critical view of the discipline. These include those by Gentzler (1993 and 2001): *Contemporary Translation Theories*; Munday (2001): *Introducing Translation Studies;* Hatim and Munday (2004): *Translation: An Advanced Resource Book*; and in Spanish, Hurtado (2001): *Traducción y Traductología*; *Introducción a la Traductología*; or Mayoral (2001): *Aspectos epistemológicos de la traducción*. Many of the data contained in the following sections are taken from these last publications.

1.2. Holmes's map of the discipline

In his famous work written in 1972 (and published in 1988), Holmes carried out the first metatheoretical reflection on the discipline. The author draw attention to the limitations imposed at the time by the fact that translation research was dispersed across older disciplines. And crucially, Holmes put forward an overall framework, describing what translation studies covers (Munday, 2001: 10). (see figure 1):
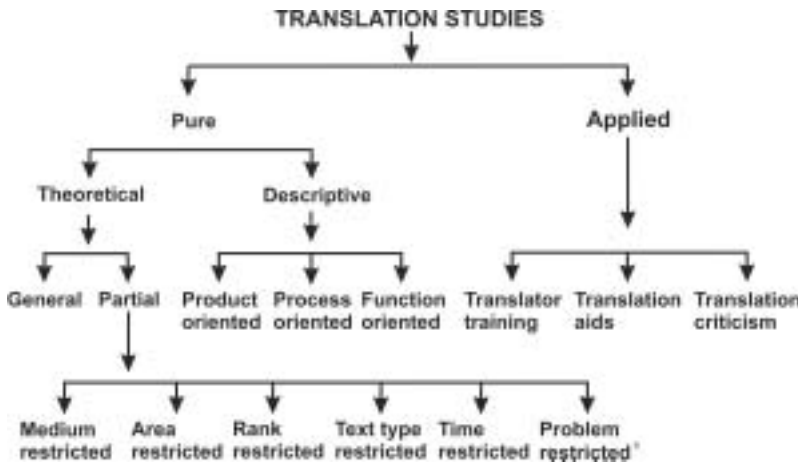
Figure 1. Holmes' map of the discipline

This proposal has since been revised by different authors, in-cluding Toury (1991 and 1995), Snell-Hornby (1991), Lvóvskaya (1993), Pym, (1998), or Hurtado (2001). Yet, in essence, none of the later revisions question the split into three fundamental branches, namely, theoretical, descriptive and applied studies, and the modifications introduced basically have to do with the descriptors used for the subdivisions within the theoretical studies, or with the relationships the three branches establish with one another. Consequently, we are convinced that the proposal can be useful to students still today; it turns out to be an excellent road map of the discipline.

2. Translation Studies from the second half of the 20th century to the present day

Since its birth as an autonomous discipline -in the second half of the 20th century-, the most significant approaches on the research landscape are the following:

- The theories of equivalence and comparisons between languages
- The functionalist theories
- The discursive approaches
- The polysystem theory. Descriptive studies. Norms
- Cultural studies
- The philosophical and hermeneutic approaches
- Corpus studies and the cognitive approaches
- The integrating and interdisciplinary approaches

2.1. The theories of equivalence. Comparisons between languages

During the first period of the so-called modern theories - the 50s and 60s, the studies that were conducted were essentially concerned with linguistics and with the problem of equivalence. These were approaches based on the application of the prevailing linguistic models at that time, that is, Structuralism and Generative Grammar, Functional Grammar, and so forth. This was what happened with authors like Jakobson (*On linguistic aspects of translation*, 1959) or Nida (*Toward a Science of Translation*, 1964).) Jakobson focused his interest on the problem of equivalence of meaning. Owing to his structuralist orientation, he states that the problems of meaning can be explained by the structural differences between languages.

Nida (1964) borrowed theoretical concepts and terminology both from semantics and pragmatics and from Chomsky's Generative-Transformational Grammar. He distinguished between *formal equivalence* (author-oriented) and *dynamic equivalence* (equivalence of effect: reader-oriented), and abandoned the idea that a particular form has a fixed meaning. This author holds that meaning is produced within the context. These propositions suggested by Nida, although undoubtedly of capital importance, have nevertheless received criticism aimed essentially at dynamic equivalence. The objections are made on the grounds that how to measure the equiva-

lence of effect. Indeed, the whole question of equivalence inevitably entails subjective judgement from the translator or analyst.

Indebted to Structuralism and Generativism, we find the approaches with a comparativist orientation - which mostly focus on comparisons between languages. We must highlight, on the one hand, authors such as García Yebra (*Teoría y práctica de la traducción*, 1982), whose work broke new ground in the application of the proposals of traditional comparative linguistics - in his study, languages are compared on different levels, namely, lexical, morphological and syntactic. On the other hand, authors such as Vinay and Darbelnet (*Stylistique comparée du français et de l'anglais. Méthode de traduction*, 1958), Malblanc (*Pour une stylistique comparée du français et de l'allemand,* 1963), or Vázquez Ayora (*Introducción a la Traductología,* 1977). They base their studies on comparative stylistics*.* Each of these three works offers a proposal for comparing different pairs of languages - French and English in the first case, German and French in the second, and English and Spanish in the last one.

One of the most significant contributions made by Vinay and Darblennet is their classification of the so-called translation procedures - borrowing, calque, literal translation, transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation. Yet, in spite of the criticism it has aroused - in the sense that these concepts are not actually translation procedures, but rather results -, one of the merits of this work has been the fact that they try to find a specific meta-language for the discipline.

Within the comparativist orientation group we should also mention the work carried out by Catford (*A Linguistic Theory of Translation*, 1965). This author, influenced by the linguistic theories of Firth and Halliday, introduces textual considerations. Function, relevance, situation and culture are terms that now appear in his theoretical frame, and more specifically in his proposal for *textual equivalence.* Although the consideration of textual equivalence was an important step forward from formal equivalence (and quite a different concept) and despite the attention given to the communi-

cative factors, this author was again the target for criticism, on the one hand, because his work was judged as a static comparison of linguistic systems (Delisle, 1980: 91-92) and, on the other hand, because the examples were decontextualized (Munday, 2001: 62). And yet, because importance to communicative factors was never really given by Catford.

In general terms, it can be said that the proposals in this section played a decisive role in the early days of the discipline, while it is true that they drew too heavily on the linguistic models in use and that they are, generally speaking, static prescriptive models. Nowadays, these have since been superseded by approaches and schools that no longer centre their attention exclusively on linguistic systems and put greater emphasis on aspects such as the function of the text, contextual factors, the repercussion of the translated text on the target system, the interrelation between translation and culture, as we will see in the next section.

2.2. The functionalist theories

The functionalist theories, which appeared in Germany during the seventies and eighties, were a set of new approaches based on a functional, communicative view of translation. Some of the most noteworthy contributions include the works of Reiss (*Translation Criticism: Potential and Limitations*, 1971, and *Text types, translation types and translation assessment*, 1977); that by Reiss and Vermeer (*Grundlegung einer allgemeinen Translationstheorie*, 1984) - these three being considered to be the foundations of Skopos theory -, and those by Holz-Mänttäri (*Translatorisches Handeln: Theorie und Methode,* 1984), and Nord (*Text Analysis in Translation*, 1991, or *Translation as a Purposeful Activity*, *Functionalist Approaches Explained*, 1997).

Functionality is what determines the translation criteria, that is, its form, the genre, and so forth. The aim is to make the translation functionally communicative. And to do so the translation is placed within its sociocultural context. They use a key concept: Skopos.

Skopos is a technical term used to speak about the purpose of the translation and the translational action. Skopos theory was introduced by Vermeer in the 70s.

Functionalist approaches certainly had some sort of common thread but were, in fact, quite different in terms of the emphasis which was laid on different aspects or features of the translation process.[2] By summarising, Reiss (1971) starts out from the notions of "text type" and "text purpose". When dealing with text types, she bases herself on Bühler's functions of language and talks of informative texts, expressive texts and operative texts; 'audiomedial' texts are also included. In the work by Reiss and Vermeer (1984), the authors also set out from text types and go a step further by proposing specific methods of translation according to the type of text.

The work by Holz-Mänttäri (1984) is somewhat less centred on text types. This author advocates the theory of *translational action*. Here, translation is described as a communicative process in which different actors play different roles: the initiator, the commissioner, the ST producer, the TT producer, the TT user, and the TT receiver.

Later, in the works of Nord (1991 and 1997), it can be observed that capital importance is not only granted to function but also to the relation between the ST and the TT; the nature of this relationship is determined by the Skopos. There are two basic notions underlying Nord's theory: functionalism and loyalty - loyalty to the addressee and to the Skopos.

2.3. The discursive approaches

Between the seventies and the nineties, we witnessed the appearance of new, linguistic-based approaches that incorporate the new linguistic tendencies, now more concerned with the context (mainly register analysis, discourse analysis or pragmatics). Among these, some of the most notable include the studies by House (*A Model for Translation Quality Assessment*, 1977; Baker (*In Other Words. A Coursebook on Translation*, 1992); or Hatim and Mason

(Discourse and the Translator, 1990, and *The Translator as Communicator*, 1997).

The work of House (1977, later revised in 1997) broke new ground in the application of the systemic approaches put forward by Crystal and Davy (1969). The author proposes a model for evaluating translations based on delimiting the pragmatic function and obtaining the contextual meaning. In her proposal, she separates the dimensions of use and user. From her work we get the first inkling of an innovative classification of text types based on the type of translation and not on the type of source text. The author speaks of "overt" translation and "covert" translation. These terms have now become more popularly known as "foreignisation" (foreignising translation) and "domestication" (domesticating translation), as we shall see below.

Baker (1992) also sets out from the premises of systemic functional linguistics, (essentially from the theories of Halliday and Hasan, 1976). This author uses the following classification to establish the most common problems of non-equivalence: 1) the word level, 2) beyond the word, 3) the grammatical level, 4) text level, and 5) pragmatic level. On the first two steps, she deals with the meaning of words and the problems stemming from lexical units (either alone or in combination), that is to say, problems that make it difficult to achieve equivalence. On the grammatical level, she considers aspects that can cause problems such as the number, the gender, the person, the tense and the verbal aspect, or the voice. At the text level, her work is especially meticulous regarding aspects such as the thematic progression and cohesion; and at the pragmatic level she deals with coherence and the mechanisms that can be employed to achieve it - implicatures, the co-operative principles or the conversational maxims.

The works of Hatim and Mason (1990 and 1997) are now more strongly influenced by the ideas of Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964) and by language being considered as an act of communication. For Hatim and Mason, language is the true essence of the translator's work and translation is therefore also part of the proc-

ess of communication between the author of the ST and the reader of the TT. The translator, in his or her role as a mediator between the producer of the ST and the reader of the TT, stands at the centre of this dynamic process of communication, in which the social conditions under which the translation activity is carried out cannot be overlooked.

The authors take this idea as the starting point to propose a method for conducting a systematic study of the context and the situation in which the whole act of communication was produced before actually beginning to translate it. The authors highlight three dimensions in the context in which textual manifestations take place: 1. The communicative dimension, where they include traits related to dialect and to the usage of language that appear in the text (i.e. registers). 2. The pragmatic dimension, which accounts for the assumptions, implicatures, meanings of speech acts, intentionality and all the other pragmatic features present in the text. 3. The semiotic dimension, which includes phenomena such as *intertextuality* and what the authors call *macrosigns*, or sociotextual practices - like text genre, the underlying discourse or ideology, and the textual composition or text itself -, and *microsigns*, or sociocultural practices that belong to a given community. Thus, the authors go a step further with respect to earlier authors by bringing together the categories of register analysis and pragmatics, while incorporating the ideological component (in what is defined as the semiotic dimension). At this ideological level, they emphasise the elements that convey the social and power relationships in a translation. One of the essential points they later focus on is the concept of cultural studies, which we will examine below.

All these studies – both the pioneering work of House and those by Baker and Hatim and Mason – offer us a series of excellent guidelines for analysing the ST. All of them possess the virtue of presenting the categories for analysis in a systematic way and this has allowed them to become texts that have had a tremendous impact on the present-day research landscape. At the same time they have also served as a guide for many of today's translator and

interpreter trainers. The extent to which these approaches can be applied is made quite clear by the authors themselves; this was borne out by Baker in her work cited above from 1992, while Hatim did the same in a later study, *Teaching and Researching Translation* (2001), which includes the categories of analysis put forward in earlier models but now within the framework of the action-research methodological approach.

2.4. Polysystem theory. Descriptive studies. Norms

Another key moment in the field of research into translation was the appearance of the *polysystem theory* in the seventies. Its postulates derive from literary theory and their main interest lies in translated literature. Translated literature is no longer seen as being a second-rate system but rather a system that operates within the literary, social and historical system of the target culture. Two of the main exponents of the polysystem theory are Even-Zohar (1978 and 1990) and Hermans (1999).[3] This authors examine the position of translated literature as a whole within the literary and historical system of the target language.

One new line of thought is the so-called *descriptive translation studies*, which is directly descended from polysystem theory and has Toury as its main representative (*In Search of a Theory of Translation*, 1980, and *Descriptive Translation Studies and Beyond*, 1995). This author takes the hypotheses developed by Even-Zohar (1978) as his starting point and then searches for a methodology for analysing translations. The framework for his analysis is oriented towards the TT and combines linguistic comparison of the ST and TT with the study of the cultural framework of the TT. His aim is to identify the patterns of behaviour behind translation and to reconstruct the norms at work during the translation process. The ultimate aim is to discover laws or regularities governing translation that can be of use to future translators and researchers.[4] This is undoubtedly an essential proposal in the current research arena, again with far-reaching repercussions.

The *Manipulation School* is another of the lines of thought (see Hermans, 1985, *The Manipulation of Literature: Studies in Literary Translation*). As stated by Sales (2004: 215), "for the Manipulation School there are a number of concepts that are essential: polysystem, manipulation, power and rewriting. Translation is understood to be part of a sociocultural context – a polysystem – in which ideology (another key concept from the point of view of manipulation) is undoubtedly present and in which the production of texts and the possible manipulations are largely determined by power relationships."

Mention must be made of authors like Lambert and Van Gorp (*On describing translations*, 1985), members of the *Manipulation School*, who take the descriptive approaches as their basis to look for a way to compare the ST and the TT literary systems. In an attempt to achieve this, they propose a systematic scheme that avoids superficial and intuitive commentaries.

Further developments should be referred to because each scholar and each school have their signs of identity, and they don't share necessarily the same ideas. Hermans himself has been critical of Toury's notion of norm (which he defines as too subjective, therefore inadequate to support descriptive studies) as well as of the laws of translation.

With regard to the similarities between these three approaches, some scholars pointed out that they are convergent (Vidal, 1995: 60, Sales, 2004: 213). The three approaches were developed essentially in distinct geographical locations - the Netherlands and Israel - but, as stated by Vidal (1995: 60) they have ended up by becoming joined together as an inseparable whole. Hermans (1999) sees them as being one single approach that goes under different names (*Descriptive Translation Studies*, *the Polysystem approach*, *the Manipulation School*, *the Tel-Aviv-Leuven axis*, *the Low Countries group* and, generically, *Translation Studies*), which has led this author to call it the descriptive and systemic approach in Translation Studies. All the authors belonging to this approach work with the intention of describing the role of translated literature within

the literary polysystem - that is, its position within the cultural system of the target language, how it interacts with the literature written in the target language and with the other cultural systems and artistic manifestations of the target polysystem, and so forth -, so as to allow them to study the way a literature is organised, as well as its norms and models. All the members of this group coincide in: a) highlighting the view of literature as a dynamic system, b) the need for continuous communication between theoretical models and practical case studies, c) a descriptive, functional interest in the facts of translation which is oriented towards the target system, d) the reconstruction of norms and conditions that govern the production and reception of translations, and e) the determination of the place that translations hold within the literature of a nation and in the interaction among different literatures (Sales, 2004: 213).

2.5. Cultural studies

There are three important areas where *cultural studies* has influenced translation studies in the course of the nineties: translation and rewriting, translation and gender, and translation and postcolonialism (Munday, 2001: 127). [5]

Some of the most relevant authors include Bassnett and Lefevere (*Translation, History and Culture*, 1990), who were pioneers in the study of the interrelations between translation and culture, on the way in which culture impacts and constraints translation; and Lefevere (*Translation/History/Culture, A Sourcebook*, 1992a, and *Translation, Rewriting and the Manipulation of Literary Fame*, 1992b), who oriented his study essentially towards power relationships and the dominant ideology in certain works of literature.

The scholars influenced by the *postcolonialist* theories are interested in the translation decisions and solutions that are found in the dominating cultures. The postcolonialists study the manifestations of positions of power in the translations of colonised peoples and the role translations play in shaping literature in colonised countries. As an example of this kind of studies, we could cite those

conducted by Niranjana (*Siting Translation: History, Post-Structuralism, and the Colonial Context*, 1992); Spivak ("The politics of translation", 1993); Álvarez and Vidal (*Translation, Power, Subversion*, 1996); Carbonell (*Traducir al otro. Traducción, exotismo, poscolonialismo*, 1997); Bassnett and Trivedi (*Post-colonial Translation: Theory and Practice*, 1999); Tymoczko (*Translation in a Post-Colonial Context: Early Irish literature in English translation*, 1999); or Sales (*Puentes sobre el mundo. Cultura, traducción y forma literaria en las narrativas de transculturación de José María Arguedas y Vikram Chandra*, 2004). See Robinson (*Translation and Empire: Postcolonial Theories explained*, 1997b) for a detailed overview.

Among the postcolonial approaches mention must be made of the *Brazilian cannibalistic movement* (Arrojo "The Death of the Author and the Limits of the Translator's Visibility", 1995; Vieira, "Liberating Calibans: Readings of Antropofagia and Haroldo de Campos' poetics of transcreation", 1999). This evocative, subversive name reflects the metaphor of anthropophagy, which derives from the modernist movement of the twenties and results from the proposition that outside influences must not be refused or rejected; instead they should be absorbed, taken within and transformed together with the local knowledge. Some of its postulates stem from the philosophical approach of Ezra Pound, which we shall be looking at in the next section.

Another variety of cultural studies that have focused on translation is the *gender-studies approach*. Authors to be highlighted include Simon (*Gender in Translation. Cultural Identity and the Politics of Transmission*, 1996); Von Flotow (*Feminist translation: Contexts, practices, theories*, 1991; *Translation and Gender: Translating in the 'Era of Feminism'*, 1997); or Godayol (*Espais de frontera. Gènere i Traducció*, 2000). Their aim is to make the feminine component in translation visible. They analyse the strategies that can be used to achieve such an aim.

Finally, another line of research that deals with cultural difference and the interface between the source culture and the foreign

culture has been carried about by Venuti in his seminal work *The Translator's Invisibility: A History of Translation* (1995). This approach is based on the study of how translation strategies are determined by the cultural differences between the ST and TT, the dominant ideology and the dominant discourse. The author seeks to analyse, among other issues, the attitudes towards translation, the role played by translation or the role of a certain editorial policy. The key concepts in the theories of Venuti are those of the visibility/invisibility of the translator and, linked to these, the notions of foreignisation/ domestication. These terms are used by the author to describe the translator's situation and activity in present-day Anglo-American culture. Although they are generally unaware of the fact, invisibility is something that translators do indeed abide by in their attempt to create the illusion of transparency. A translated text is deemed to be acceptable when it reads fluently, as if it were an original text. With regard to foreignisation/domestication, Venuti follows a line that is similar to that taken by Steiner (1975) and by Berman (1984) and declares himself in favour of foreignisation, the penetration of new ideas and forms, and of challenging the established canons.

What interests Venuti is the ideology underlying translation decisions. In his view, a crucial role is played by the editorial policy, and the political and governmental institutions of the moment, which can decide to censor or to promote certain works, and so forth.

To conclude our review of culturally-oriented translation studies we could sum up by saying that they consist of authors and schools with a common denominator – they all carry out research focused on the product and especially on the ideology that dominates in a particular culture and texts, while also investigating into how ideology shapes translation. These authors and schools, again, are having a significant impact on today's research landscape.

2.6. The philosophical and hermeneutic approaches

Here we are dealing with authors whose theories about translation are based on philosophical considerations. The most significant

proponents are Pound (1929), Steiner (1975) and the *deconstructionists*.

Steiner's hermeneutic approach (*After Babel, Aspects of Language and Translation*, 1975) describes the philosophical and intellectual workings of the translator's mind. For this author, translation is not a science, since its categories are not systematic. He defines it as a "hermeneutic motion" consisting of four movements: *Initiative trust*, *aggression*, *incorporation*, and *compensation*.

His influence is present today in authors like Venuti or Berman, and especially so with regard to his emphasis on the idea of foreignisation. For Steiner, a good translation is not a fluent, familiarised translation which sounds as though it were the original.

Ezra Pound's conception of translation is very experimental, very creative, looking at the expressive qualities of language. The author proposes the idea of capturing the "energy of the language", in the form, rhythm, sound, clarity, and so forth. According to Munday (2001: 166), he translated from Chinese without having much idea of the language. For Steiner (1975: 379-380), this was an advantage because the distance from the source language and culture allow the translator to translate without any preconceived ideas and without the complications produced by linguistic contact.

Finally, based on the post-structuralist movements, the *deconstruction* school appeared on the scene. The most representative author in this field is Derrida (*Des tours de Babel*, 1985). The deconstructionists question some of the fundamental premises of structural linguistics, particularly the Saussure's distinction makes between signifier and signified. By deconstructing the relationship between signifier and signified, attention can be paid to other axioms such as discourse structures, syntactic process, chains of meaning, and so forth. Derrida, for example, uses these premises to propose a translation strategy based on linguistic experimentation.

What stands out in the deconstructionist approach is the innovation of putting forward new ways of thinking about translation, as well as questioning many preconceived ideas, especially as regards the stability of the meaning and of the sign. For this line of thought,

the original and the translation are in debt to each other: the ST owes its survival to the translation.[6]

2.7. Latest contributions

Some of the most recent contributions to research into Translation Studies include the appearance of *corpus studies* or the *cognitive approaches* over the last few decades.

2.7.1. Corpus studies

Some of the most notable works on *corpus studies* have been those published by authors such as Baker (1993, 1995, 1996), Laviosa (1998) or Olohan (2004).[7] These authors base their approach on the application of corpus linguistics to translation. The aim of corpus linguistics is essentially that of analysing large amounts of digitised texts.

Baker (1995) describes several types of corpora that can be of particular interest for research into translation: a) *parallel corpora* consist of original texts written in language A, together with their translations in language B; b) *multilingual corpora* contain two or more monolingual corpora written in different languages and produced under the same criteria by the same or different institutions; c) *comparable corpora* are made up of original texts in one language, for example English, and translations into that same language but not necessarily of those same texts (translations from one or several languages). This last type is the one that will be of most use to translation researchers because such corpora can reveal important characteristics about translated texts.

According to Kenny (1998: 57), Baker (1993) took the research conducted by Schlesinger (1991), Toury (1991) and Vanderauwera (1985) as the basis for the following hypotheses, which in Baker's opinion could be checked by using a comparable corpus:

a) translated texts are more explicit
b) they are less ambiguous

c)   they respect the grammatical rules of the TL more than non-translated texts.

This has been verified manually by Puurtinen (1995), among others, with very limited manual corpora and hence future research needs to include tests on a much wider scale. This is what could be achieved with the study of corpora.

We are thus before the possibility of conducting enormously interesting studies, which are expected to be essential for descriptive studies, among other reasons, because computers can analyse whole texts in ways that a human analyst could never hope to do. In fact, some of the findings can already be seen.[8] But, as with every new step taken by the discipline, the first voices can already be heard warning us of the problems that this kind of studies can give rise to. Malmkjaer (1998), for example, states that, when using a parallel corpus, if the translations were done by the same author then only partial results will be obtained. Moreover, the problems/solutions that are statistically more frequent or commonly detected will mean that the less usual ones are considered as marginal and this could lead to "problem cases" being neglected.

2.7.2. The cognitive approaches

The *cognitive approaches* focus their attention on the mental process that goes on inside the translator's head, that is, they are interested in translation as a cognitive activity (see Muñoz, 1995). Such approaches include:

a)   On the one hand, studies that focus on the analysis of the translation process:

- the interpretative theory of the *ESIT* (École Supérieure d'Interprètes et des Traducteurs), (for example, Seleskovitch, 1968; Seleskovitch and Lederer, 1984 and 1989; or Lederer, 1994).
- the psycholinguistic model put forward by *Bell* (1991)

- the sociological and psycholinguistic model developed by *Kiraly* (1995)
- translation as decision-making cognitive behaviour, developed by *Wills* (1988, 1996)

b) On the other hand, there are the studies that centre on translation competence, such as the holistic model by *PACTE* or *Kelly* (2002, 2005).

The *ESIT's interpretive theory*, also known as the *school of sense,* bases its work on the observation of the translation process. Translating is conceived as an interpretive process consisting of three phases: comprehension, deverbalisation and re-expression. The comprehension phase involves an interpretive process of capturing the sense, while form and sense are dissociated during the deverbalisation phase. Hence, it is assumed that sense is non-verbal in nature. And finally, in the re-expression phase, linguistic reformulation is carried out using the means available in the target language. Sense, which is the core notion of the theory, is defined as the non-verbal synthesis resulting from the process of understanding carried out by the individual, and lies within the phase of deverbalisation. The clearest example of the application of these contributions within the sphere of education can be seen in the work of Delisle (1980, 1993).

In *Translation and Translating* (1991), Bell also deals with the translation process. This author's description rests more heavily upon psycholinguistic postulates than on observation, as is the case of the ESIT. For Bell, the translating process is an interactive process that is performed in two phases – analysis and synthesis – involving three main aspects, namely, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic. For Hurtado (2001: 332-337), however, the problem with this approach lies in its choice of the unit of translation, that is, the sentence. In her opinion, a more global view of the text is needed.

In *Pathways to Translation* (1995), *Kiraly* approaches the analysis of translation from two different perspectives: as a communicative, social (i.e. external) activity and as a cognitive (i.e. internal) activity. And the same author puts forward a model consisting

of two parts – a social model, based on Firth's theories, and a cognitive model based on psycholinguistics. The research methods employed here are TAP (*Think Aloud Protocols*) and the use of follow-up questionnaires.

Another interesting proposal has been put forward by Wills, which sees translation as decision-making cognitive behaviour (*Kognition und Übersetzen: Zu Theorie und Praxis der menschlichen und der maschinellen Übersetzung*, 1988; and *Knowledge and Skills in Translation Behaviour*, 1996).

If we turn to look at the second group of studies, those that focus on studying translation competence, some of the most notable works include those of Schäffner and Adabs (*Developing Translation Competence*, 2000); those carried out within the framework of the PACTE group at the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (for example, "Acquiring Translation Competence: Hypotheses and Methodological Problems in a Research Project", 2000; or "La competencia traductora y su adquisición", 2001); or the work by Kelly (*A Handbook for Translator Trainers,* 2005). These works all set out from the assumption that translation competence provides the translator with the capacity to perform the cognitive operations needed to carry out the translation process. Translation competence is made up of different components (the transfer competence, the linguistic competence, the extra-linguistic competence, the instrumental competence, the problem-solving competence and the psychophysiological competence) that constantly interact with each other.

All the cognitive approaches open up interesting new paths for research in the current translation studies landscape. They have to overcome the difficulties involved in studying mental activities – since they are not directly observable – and the complexity implicit in the translation process itself, especially when it comes to conducting empirical studies. Nevertheless, in view of the results obtained and the proposals currently being put forward, they undoubtedly constitute one of the lines of study that is attracting most attention and arousing most expectation at the present time.

2.8. The integrating and interdisciplinary approaches

In the last few years most translation scholars have adopted an integrating approach to research in Translation Studies. This integrating approach is generally characterised by the inclusion of both linguistic and literary concepts in the different analytical models. Many of these integrating approaches are also interdisciplinary in nature. Bassnett (1980) and Snell-Hornby (1988) pioneered this trend.

The interdisciplinary approaches advocate the breaking down of barriers among disciplines; they reflect the swift exchange of knowledge that characterises our society and also the need to prove that a particular entity exists in the interstices of already-existing fields, with which it is related. As we have seen in earlier sections above, Translation studies establish relations with 1) linguistics, especially with semantics, pragmatics, applied linguistics, contrastive linguistics, corpus linguistics or cognitive linguistics, 2) modern languages, 3) comparative literature, 4) cultural studies, 5) philosophy (language and meaning), etc. And if we look at the applied side, the didactics of specialised translation, for example, leads us to establish links with law, politics, medicine, finance, and so forth.

With reference to the urge to acknowledge the interdisciplinary nature of translation studies, mention should be made of Bassnett (1980, revised 1991) well before anyone else.

Snell-Hornby was one of the forerunners of the integrating approach in her work *Translation Studies. An Integrated Approach* (1988). She proposes the integration of concepts taken mainly from linguistics and from literary studies. She takes the concept of 'prototypes' from cognitive linguistics in order to classify text types and types of translation. And then, depending on the type of text, she borrows concepts from cultural history studies, literary studies, sociocultural studies, law, economics, and so forth. By so doing she closes the gap between the translation of commercial texts and artistic texts, for example. This author also goes beyond the traditional linguistic approach with her study of the relationships between the text and the context, the situation and the culture. In *Trans-*

lation Studies: An Interdiscipline (1994) – co-edited by herself in collaboration with Pöchhacker and Kaindl –, they use the term *interdiscipline*.

Hurtado (*Traducción y Traductología,* 2001) proposes an integrating study of translation as well. She conceives translation in a three dimension way: translation as an act of communication, as a textual operation and as a cognitive activity.

1. Translation as an act of communication. For this author, translation is a complex act of communication that is performed between two different communicative spaces, the source and the target, and in which a number of variables play a part. The notions of context and function are essential to this first categorisation.

2. Translation as a textual operation. Translation is an operation involving texts, which explains the need to further our knowledge about how texts work in the two languages. The interest will thus be concentrated on textual analysis.

3. Translation as a cognitive activity. Translation, as well as being an act of communication and a textual operation, is an activity carried out by an individual (i.e. the translator, the interpreter); it is therefore necessary to consider the mental process that takes place while translating, in addition to the capabilities required to do so correctly. We therefore find two basic pillars upholding this third dimension: translation competence and translation process.

These integrating proposals seem to be a logical consequence of the development of the discipline and of its process of maturing. With grouping rather than separating there can be no opposite poles but rather a series of complementary approaches.

3. Concluding remarks

Although in this brief outline we have without a doubt left out countless aspects and authors, it can be concluded that the research landscape has made a tremendous amount of progress in recent

decades, and more especially so since the seventies. From that moment on we have been witness to, on the one hand, the reorientation of the lines of thought in linguistics: contrastive studies have begun to lose influence, studies based on the notion of *text type* and *translation purpose* (Skopos theory) have appeared in Germany, and the influence of systemic functional grammar, discourse and pragmatic analysis, have started to make themselves felt. On the other hand, we have also seen the forceful expansion of the descriptive studies and the study of norms, the Manipulation School, the polysystem theory, and so forth.

Since the nineties, new schools and concepts grouped essentially around the problem of ideology have become part of this fruitful landscape. Examples of such recent incorporations include the Canadian research into gender, the post-colonial studies or the cultural-studies-oriented analysis. Corpus studies and the cognitive approaches are also growing quickly. And, as a logical consequence of the evolution of the discipline, there are also the integrating and interdisciplinary proposals. All in all, it could be said that we are now at a time when Translation Studies are blossoming and the range of perspectives open to the young researcher is enormous.

Notes

1. The term 'medium restricted partial theories' refers to those concerning machine translation and human translation, oral translation and written translation. 'Area restricted' means the linguistic or cultural area. 'Rank' is understood to mean the word, sentence or text. 'Text type' refers to literary, theological, scientific, and so forth. 'Time' refers to the translation of contemporary texts or the translation of ancient texts. And, finally, the term 'partial theories that are restricted to specific problems' is understood as referring to problems such as metaphors, cultural references, and so forth.

2. An essential reading for anyone wishing to gain a better understanding of the scope of the theory is the work by Reiss and Vermeer (1984); for a concise view of the subject, see also Schäffner (1997: 235-238).

3. Even-Zohar: "The position of translated literature within the literary polysystem" (1978) and *Polysystem Studies* (1990). Hermans: *Translation in Systems* (1999).

4. In *Memes of Translation* (1997), Chesterman also centres his attention on the norms of translation.

[5]. See Storey (1996) for an overview of the different groups and the different methods that coexist under the label of cultural studies.

6. See Vidal: "Traducción y desconstrucción", 1989, *Traducción, manipulación, desconstrucción*, 1995, *El futuro de la traducción. Últimas teorías, nuevas aplicaciones*, 1998.

[7]. Baker: "Corpus Linguistics and Translation Studies: Implications and Applications", 1993; "Corpora in Translation Studies: an Overview and Suggestions for Future Research", 1995; "Corpus-based Translation Studies: The challenges that lie ahead, 1996". Laviosa: *The Corpus-Based Approach*, 1998. Olohan: *Introducing corpora in Translation Studies*, 2004.

[8]. As Olohan (2004) points out, there are already several corpora projects under way, for example, the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus (ENPC), the English-Italian Translational Corpus (CEXI), the German-English Parallel Corpus of Literary Texts (GEPCOLT), the Corpus of children's fantasy literature, The Translational English Corpus (TEC), and the Corpus of Translated Finnish (CTF). In Spanish, work is being carried out by Corpas at the University of Malaga in the project entitled 'A multilingual corpus of tourism contracts (German, Spanish, English, Italian) for automatic text generation and legal translation' (TURICOR), or in the project being carried out by the GENTT group at the Universitat Jaume I in Castelló, led by García Izquierdo and entitled the 'Enciclopedia electrónica de géneros' (see García Izquierdo, 2005).

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