

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

Investigating the process of translation

humour translation norms, strategies and approaches in children's literature

Elena Xeni

2014

Aston University

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INVESTIGATING THE PROCESS OF TRANSLATION:

Humour Translation Norms, Strategies and Approaches
in Children's Literature

ELENA XENI

Master of Philosophy

ASTON UNIVERSITY

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To my mother and father

To my supervisor

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Summary

Research in the present thesis is focused on the norms, strategies, and approaches which translators employ when translating humour in Children's Literature from English into Greek. It is based on process-oriented descriptive translation studies, since the focus is on investigating the process of translation.

Viewing translation as a cognitive process and a problem solving activity, this thesis utilises Think-aloud protocols (TAPs) in order to investigate translators' minds. As it is not possible to directly observe the human mind at work, an attempt is made to ask the translators themselves to reveal their mental processes in real time by verbalising their thoughts while carrying out a translation task involving humour.

In this study, thirty participants at three different levels of expertise in translation competence, i.e. ten beginner, ten competent, and ten expert translators, were requested to translate two humorous extracts from the fictional diary novel *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾* by Sue Townsend (1982) from English into Greek. As they translated, they were asked to verbalise their thoughts and reason them, whenever possible, so that their strategies and approaches could be detected, and that subsequently, the norms that govern these strategies and approaches could be revealed.

The thesis consists of four parts: the introduction, the literature review, the study, and the conclusion, and is developed in eleven chapters. The introduction contextualises the study within translation studies (TS) and presents its rationale, research questions, aims, and significance. Chapters 1 to 7 present an extensive and inclusive literature review identifying the principle axioms that guide and inform the study. In these seven chapters the following areas are critically introduced: Children's Literature (Chapter 1), Children's Literature Translation (Chapter 2), Norms in Children's Literature (Chapter 3), Strategies in Children's Literature (Chapter 4), Humour in Children's Literature Translation (Chapter 5), Development of Translation Competence (Chapter 6), and Translation Process Research (Chapter 7). In Chapters 8-11 the fieldwork is described in detail. The pilot and the main study are described with a reference to the environments and settings, the participants, the researcher-observer, the data and its analysis, and limitations of the study. The findings of the study are presented and analysed in Chapter 9. Three models are then suggested for systematising translators' norms, strategies, and approaches, thus, filling the existing gap in the field. Pedagogical norms (e.g. appropriateness/correctness, familiarity, simplicity, comprehensibility, and toning down), literary norms (e.g. sound of language and fluency), and source-text norms (e.g. equivalence) were revealed to be the most prominent general and specific norms governing the translators' strategies and approaches in the process of translating humour in ChL. The data also revealed that monitoring and communication strategies (e.g. additions, omissions, and exoticism) were the prevalent strategies employed by translators.

In Chapter 10 the main findings and outcomes of a potential secondary benefit (beneficial outcomes) are discussed on the basis of the research questions and aims of the study, and implications of the study are tackled in Chapter 11. In the conclusion, suggestions for future directions are given and final remarks are noted.

Keywords: children's literature translation, translation process research, humour translation

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List of Abbreviations

AdL	Adults' Literature
AdLT	Adults' Literature Translation
CBT	Culture-bound Terms
CD	Cypriot Dialect
ChL	Children's Literature
ChLT	Children's Literature Translation
CSC	Culture-Specific Concepts
EU	European Union
FG	Focus Group
GTVH	General Theory of Verbal Humour
HS	Humour Studies
HT	Humour Translation
ID	Internal Dialogue
LLL	Lifelong Learning
LTL	Language Teaching and Learning
LTM	Long Term Memory
MTE	Mother Tongue Education
PDM	Personal Decision Making
SC	Source Culture
SMG	Standard Modern Greek
SLE	Second Language Education
SSTH	Semantic Script Theory of Humour
ST	Source Text
STM	Short Term Memory
TAPs	Think Aloud Protocols
TS	Translation Studies
TC	Target Culture
TL	Target Language
TT	Target Text
WM	Working Memory
YA	Young Adults

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PART ONE: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

“Ever since the first social structures emerged and human beings started to communicate socially or emotionally with members of their own species from other societies who had devised different codes of communication [...], they realised that there was a strong need for a mediator to facilitate this process, without which every such attempt would be like ‘talking to a brick wall’.”

(Azizinezhad, 2006, p. 1)

“...If it is true that in the beginning was the word, then almost from the beginning there was a problem of translation...”

(Hermans, 1996, p. 1)

I. Introductory Note

This introduction will establish the significance of this study, which investigates translators’ strategies, approaches, and governing norms in the process of translating humour in literature for children and young adults (YA) from English into Greek, and highlight what motivated the researcher to undertake this task. The study’s rationale, context, research questions, and aims are detailed, and the underlying assumptions are identified. The structure of the thesis is also presented, and the arrangement and content of the chapters are made explicit.

This research adds to the efforts of an international community of scholars, translators, authors, teachers, librarians, publishers, and other parties with an interest in children’s literature translation (ChLT), by raising the profile of this field within translation studies (TS) and interdisciplinary studies.

Moreover, this study positions the translator – often considered invisible – as the main focus of attention, with his¹ norms, strategies, and approaches placed at the centre of the investigation. This stresses the critical position that the translator holds in the translation process, society, and history.

¹Throughout the study, ‘he’, ‘his’, and ‘him’ when referring to the translator, the student, or the participant are used, as opposed to using the following: ‘s/he’, ‘she or he’, ‘he or she’, ‘his/her’, and ‘him/her’. This was chosen as a course of action for the purposes of clarity and consistency throughout the thesis, unless a specific reference was made to individuals identified.

II. Motivation of the Study

As children's literature (ChL) is a well acknowledged means for children and young adults (YA) to understand themselves and the world they live in, the idea of having it translated, and thus enabling it to cross borders, was one of the main motivations of this study. Indeed, it felt important to have a voice in the development of children at the European and international levels, and to fill an existing gap in translation studies (TS) and children's literature translation (ChLT) in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts. An additional motivation was the opportunity to investigate humour translation (HT) in ChLT which is an under-represented field in the literature and therefore less studied, especially in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts. This opportunity enables the advancement of TS theory, research, pedagogy, and practice, not only in the contexts in question, but at the European and international level.

In the last decade or so, the focus of TS has shifted from the product to the process of translation, and the whys and wherefores of translation as a course of action have been reported, documented, and analysed in more specific ways than was ever possible before. This is an exciting time for TS, and developments in recent years have advanced the scientific field of TS research, pedagogy, and practice, thus sparking a desire to investigate aspects of the translation process, and the process of ChLT more specifically. The need to explore the translator's 'black box', the thinking process when translating humour for children, and the reasons underlying decision-making, are seen as essential in the context of developing our understanding of translators' norms, strategies, and approaches during translation.

Until now, translation process-based studies have tended to focus on methodologies of one or two focus groups (FGs) with a limited number of participants. In this slightly more ambitious study of a larger number of participants representing translators from three FGs, comparisons are made at three levels of translation competence: beginner, competent, and expert translators². This was a great motivation for the researcher. Notably, a study of this scale impacts on expertise research in TS as well as on translation pedagogy, as it can be seen as a practical way to understand aspects of translation expertise, detect good practice in translator training, and highlight effective translation behavioural patterns that can enhance translator training programmes.

² For the purposes of this study, the three different focus groups (FG), i.e. beginner, competent and expert translators, correspond to the three levels of translation expertise and are in accordance with PETRA categorisation and definitions (cf. Muñoz-Martin, 2009: 24-27).

Finally, studies such as this one, where the translator is placed in the centre of the research focus, make a significant step in acknowledging the translator as a key actor in the translation process and in society, leaving behind the years when he was neglected or, as Lathey (2006) puts it: “belong[ed] to the great disappeared of history” (p. 209). Therefore, a key motivation for this study is to stress the significant role of the translator while exploring his norms, strategies, and approaches.

III. Rationale for the Study

The study of translation is constantly expanding in a world that is presently experiencing a massive increase in translation of texts (Riccardi, 2002). Statistics indicate that demand is continuously increasing by 10%-25% per year and doubling every three to seven years (Thelen, 2005). Both translation and interpreting studies are at a crossroads, as globalisation pushes the need for these services to historic heights.

At a time when the market demands the best translators in terms of speed, costs, and quality, the academic world attempts to define what translation competence is by discussing which translation competence models could be more adequate in this era of globalisation, trying to assess at the same time what the future trends and emerging needs will be. Achieving a high-quality task performance is one of the main aims of translation pedagogy, and one of the reasons for undertaking studies such as this one.

Translator trainers want to convey the whole range of skills required by the labour market, even though it is argued that institutions will always be one or two steps behind market demands (Thelen, 2005). As this problem is closely related to translation research, pedagogy, and practice, it is of current interest, and is likely to remain an important issue in the future.

One way to understand high-quality task performance is to study the way expert translators function while they translate. What issues come into their minds as they translate? How do they solve them? What guides them in the translation process? How can all these elements be reported, documented and analysed? The present study aims to answer these questions, and thereby provide further evidence of how translators at different levels of expertise operate. This knowledge will provide important insights as to what constitutes translation competence and how it can be trained. This issue is of key interest to the field in its current state and impacts upon translation research, theory, pedagogy, and practice. As exploring the expert translator’s norms,

strategies, and approaches can be an efficient way to report, document, and analyse translation expertise, this study may impact on translation expertise research more widely and serve as a practical way to detect good practice in translator training contexts. Whilst bound to specific areas of literature, the main reasons for undertaking the present study are to contribute to and build upon current knowledge and research in TS, particularly in terms of the translation process and translator training.

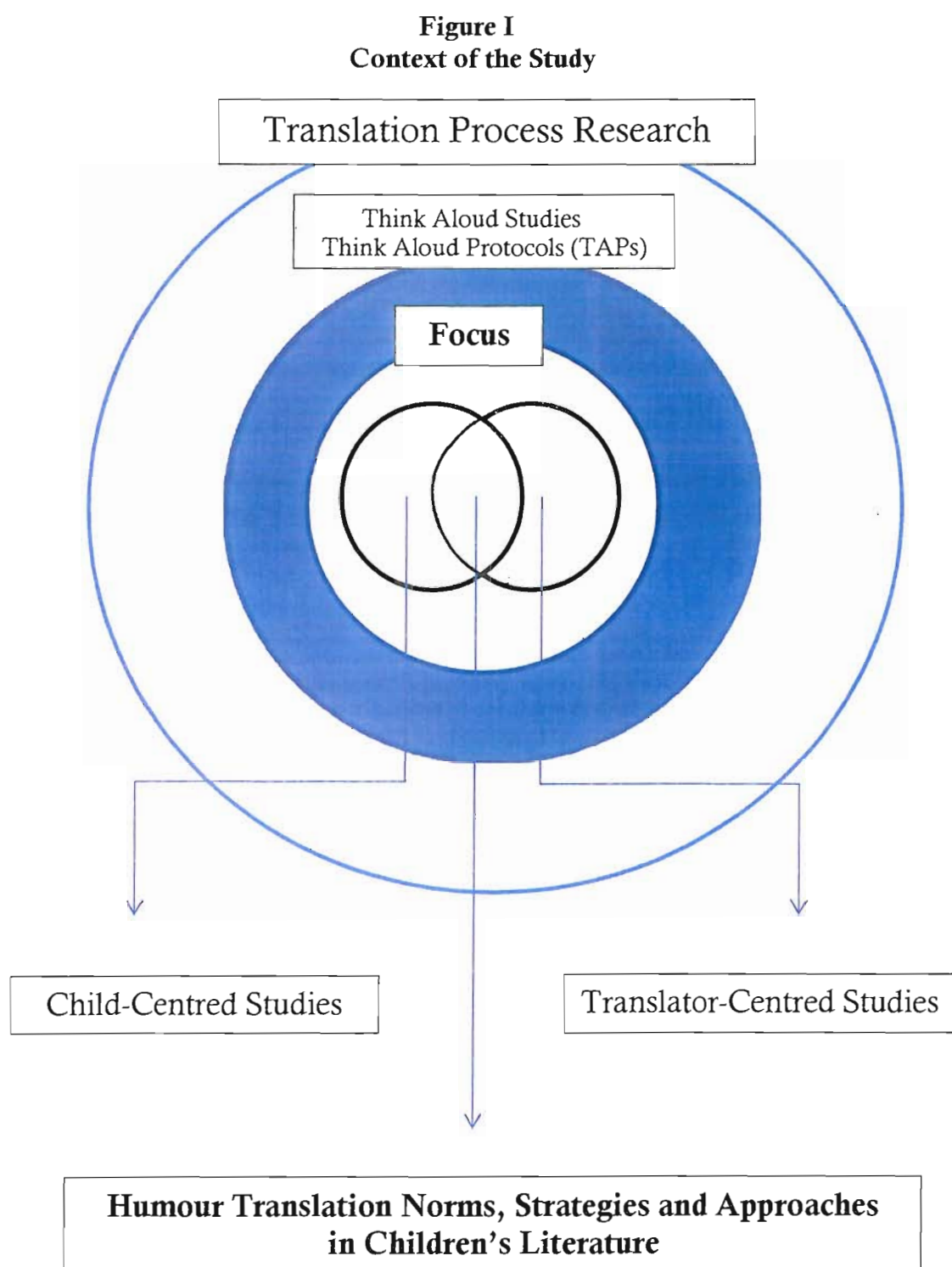
IV. Context of Study

In order to enable a better understanding of the context of this study, which touches upon various fields of TS, it should be noted that its main focus is to detect and explore the translators' governing norms which rule their choice of translation strategies and approaches while translating humour for children and YA. Being norm-based in principle, this study is conducted within the framework of process-oriented TS as developed by Holmes (1972), and employing a methodology known as *think-aloud protocols* (TAPs) (Ericsson & Simon, 1984, 1993; Tirkkonen-Condit, 1997; Bernardini, 1999, 2001; Jääskeläinen, 2000; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007; etc.).

It is a translator-centred study, as the translators' norms, thinking, perspectives, strategies and approaches, verbalisations, etc., become the reference points and reveal crucial aspects of the translation process. Focusing on the process of translation this study views translation as a cognitive process and thus a problem-solving activity (Levy, 1967; Scott-Tennent, González Davies, & Rodríguez Torras, 2000; González Davies, 2005; etc.). In his work, the translator constantly makes choices and decisions based on regulatory norms. Within the realm of process research, the TAPs method is a widely accepted and methodologically validated tool (Ericsson & Simon, 1984, 1993; Bernardini, 1999, 2001; Jääskeläinen, 2000; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007; etc.), and is therefore employed in this study. In achieving triangulation data from TAPs is contrasted to data from the pre- and post-experiment questionnaires given to the participants as well as the researcher's diary. Being strictly process-based, this study avoids data from translations as this would have involved a focus on the product.

The study also takes place in the context of child-centred studies, where the child, in line with the translator, becomes a focus point in the fields of ChLT and translation process research. Participants in the think-aloud protocol (TAP) experiments are given two humorous texts written for children and YA as a translation task and are observed while translating with a focus on the strategies they employ, the approaches they adopt, and the norms that govern their

decision-making. How beginner, competent, and expert translators translate humour in literature for children and YA, and why, will be the issues of interest in the course of this study, in order to shed light on areas where limited study has been conducted: ChLT and HT strategies, approaches, and norms in translation process research. The context of this study can be viewed in the figure below:



V. Assumptions Underlying the Study

Current and ongoing trends in the TS scholarly world are related to investigations of interdisciplinary perspectives (cognitive science, sociology, psychology, etc.) and what they bring to bear on the process of translation. The following assumptions in TS underlie the present study.

To begin with, it is believed that translators' norms govern translators' decision-making and behaviour in the translation process. Their influence can determine the translator's strategies and approaches while translating any task and humour in ChL from English into Greek in particular. Secondly, it is accepted that although it has been impossible until now to directly access the translator's mind and explain his thinking, principles, norms, etc., via a rigorous research methodology, the translator's black box may be successfully approached indirectly. Originating in the field of cognitive psychology, the TAPs methodology has been proven to be an effective methodology for this purpose, and is thus used in this study and triangulated with other supporting methods (pre- and post-experiment questionnaires and researcher's diary). It is believed that having translators verbalise every thought while translating provides a 'window' into the hidden processes of the black box, and their translation strategies, approaches, and governing norms. Whether translators (and humans in general) can reason their choices while verbalising their thoughts – revealing in such way their principles and norms – is an issue much debated in the area of TS, with well documented critiques of its use (e.g., House, 1988; Ericsson & Simon, 1993). In the course of this study, however, TAPs yielded insights which are difficult or even impossible to obtain by other methods, not just on processes, but on other important and often neglected characteristics such as motivation, affect, context, and strategy.

Based on those assumptions emerging from current trends in TS theory, the present study will use TAPs to explore translators' strategies, approaches, and governing norms, in the process of translating humour in ChL from English into Greek. HT, although a difficult task, is seen in this study as a challenging translation task that can be achievable. Thus, an attempt to model HT strategies, approaches, and governing norms will be made while analysing the data collected in the course of this study.

VI. Research Questions and Aims of the Study

The hypothesis that the translation approach of a beginner, competent, and expert translator is different in many ways, i.e. the 'gap phenomenon' in the context of translation competence (cf. Smith, 2004, 2007), seems sound, and even obvious. Characterising the cognitive processes at

different stages of the development of translation competence may enable better understanding of said development, give insights into the expert translator approach, and thus contribute to enhancing translation pedagogy and practice. On the basis of these theoretical interests, the research questions addressed in this study are the following:

1. Are there different norms that govern beginner, competent, and expert translators' choice of strategies and approaches as they translate humour in ChL from English into Greek?
2. Do these perceived norms lead to the use of different translation strategies by each translator group?
3. Do the presence and interaction of these norms and strategies denote specific behaviours and reveal characteristics of the overall approaches of participants in each group, as they translate humour in ChL from English into Greek? What are the implications of similarities and differences in approaches taken by participants at different levels of expertise?

In addressing the research questions, the specific aims of the study are the following:

1. To identify the norms which govern the strategies and approaches of beginner, competent and expert translators as they translate humour in ChL from English into Greek;
2. To detect the beginner, competent, and expert translators' strategies employed in the process of translating humour in ChL;
3. To find and compare the differences in the translation approaches at the three levels of the translator's development: beginner, competent, and expert.

VI. Significance of Study

As noted earlier, both the international translation industries (academic and non-academic) are always looking to create and maintain the most competent translator, one who is an effective problem-solver in terms of speed, costs, and quality (Thelen, 2005). This issue is of key interest and impacts on translation research, translation pedagogy, and translation practice. What exactly constitutes translation competence is one of the central tenets of this study the implications of which are mainly pedagogical, but ultimately have an impact on TS research and the translation profession.

Similarly to the present study, comparative experimental studies in TS aim to compare groups of translators at various levels of development. The reasons for distinguishing between beginner, competent, and expert translators are mainly to discover the experts' retrieval structures and procedural knowledge and to make it achievable to extract the specific features of expert (efficient) translation performance and effective problem-solving. Experimental studies focusing on how experts translate are a very efficient way to understand the complex issues of decision-making and problem-solving in translation. Indeed, with their experiments, various scholars (e.g., Kussmaul, 1995; Shreve, 1997; Jääskeläinen, 2000; Jarvella et al. in Riccardi, 2002; Smith, 2004, 2007) have managed to discover important clues to the translation behaviours of professionals (see Chapter 6 of this thesis). What is essential in such cases is that expertise research produces vital information contributing important insights into realities of translation performance and problem-solving.

This type of study opens up new directions for research and advances in TS and its branches. The study of the mental processes, which take place when translating, is an important challenge for specialists of translation pedagogy. Based on indications, gaining a deeper understanding of all these processes could likely be the basis for designing new teaching methods that aim to develop translators' skills and to improve their quantitative and qualitative performance. In this sense, studies such as this one also contribute to best practices in translation training contexts, as the discovery of specific aspects of translation performance that can be improved by deliberate practice has the indisputable advantage of being immediately applicable to translation pedagogy. Furthermore, this type of study creates avenues for further research.

The significance of this study also lies in the fact that it is a process-based study. Over the last twenty years, process-based research has attracted increasing attention in the field, and gained ground on product-based research (Chesterman, 2000). In the concluding thoughts in his article, "What I really meant by 'Translatology'", Brian Harris (1988) makes reference to Roger Bell's (1987) personal perspectives on the future of empirical research in TS, highlighting that what is needed is a translation approach that increases the uniqueness of the process, explores translation as an incident occurring in the mind of the translator, and, on the basis of process models, provides an account of what it means to translate. The present work aims to explore precisely these issues.

Accepting that process-based studies are gaining much in TS research, the present study aims to reveal aspects of the translation process through an empirical study which, as previously

suggested, investigates the translation norms, strategies, and approaches of beginners, competent, and expert translators while translating a given translation task. The study, therefore, focuses more specifically on the translation process that, until recently, suffered from a lack of equipment and research focus, thus resulting in limited research activity (Jakobsen, 2006; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007, 2009, 2010).

This thesis employs TAPs as a method to achieve the tasks set in the research questions and aims, thus filling an existing lacuna in the field of TS. The TAPs methodology is triangulated with the pre- and post-experiment questionnaires, and the researcher's diary. In addition, the study attempts to provide useful insights into activities and procedures occurring during the translation process and in the translator's mind. As suggested above, using TAPs as a methodological tool, this study aims to investigate norms underlying the HT strategies and approaches of three different groups commensurate with the three different levels of expertise: beginner translators (BA student translators), competent translators (MA student translators), and experts (professionals).

This introductory discussion has clarified how this study is conceptualised, provided justification for its aims and methodology, and shown the ways in which it will draw from, and contribute to, the field of TS. In sum, and in light of the above, the contribution of the present study lies in the following:

- Advancing norm-based and strategies-based studies as the research will attempt to explain norms and strategies in translating humour for children and YA as translation phenomena.
- Addressing the issue of validity in TS research, as it is one of the first studies to investigate the development of translation strategies, approaches, and regulatory norms of volunteers from three different FGs in terms of translation competence levels.
- Researching two under-represented areas of TS: ChLT and HT. The fact that HT is often acknowledged to be a difficult translation area to study and work with (Popa 2005; Vandaele 2002), and that ChLT is considered to be a marginalised and a less investigated area at a national level, i.e. in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts (Gavrielidou, 2010; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010) and at the European and international level (Shavit, 1986; Thomson-Wohlgemuth, 1998; Lathey, 2006; Pinsent, 2006; etc.), makes their study a challenge and a source of new research avenues.

- Filling an existing gap in TS research involving the language combination English-Greek where very few studies on norms, translation competence and think-aloud studies have been conducted (Vretta-Panidou, 2007).
- Increasing knowledge about the process of translation, and therefore gaining a deeper understanding of different aspects of the translation process.
- Informing translation expertise as this type of research will increase understanding of how translation quality can be improved.
- Testing the validity and effectiveness of the methodological tool used (TAPs), thus shedding some light on the nature of the translation process and performance.

VIII. Structure of Thesis

The thesis consists of four parts: the introduction, the literature review, the study and the conclusion, totalling eleven chapters. Following an introduction, where the study is contextualised and its significance and contribution is highlighted, Chapter 1 marks the beginning of an extensive literature review that consists of seven chapters (Chapters 1-7) addressing the principle axioms that guide and inform the study. In these seven chapters, the following areas are critically introduced: Children's Literature (Chapter 1), Children's Literature Translation (Chapter 2), Norms in Children's Literature (Chapter 3), Strategies in Children's Literature (Chapter 4), Humour in Children's Literature Translation (Chapter 5), Development of Translation Competence (Chapter 6), and Translation Process Research (Chapter 7).

More specifically, Chapter 1 explores ChL as a scientific field at the European and international level which has been gaining ground, and in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts which seem to lag behind in developments. The history and theory of ChL are reviewed, and issues of ongoing discussion are critically addressed.

In Chapter 2, the status of ChLT in Europe and the rest of the world is reviewed and the situation in Greece and Cyprus is problematised. Key debates are presented and topics such as the missionary role of ChLT, its theoretical framework, the translator's invisibility, low status and profile, ideology, etc., are discussed.

In Chapter 3, translation norms, i.e. the main theoretical framework of this study, are introduced and an overview of aspects of norm-based studies is provided with a focus on ChLT norms. To be more specific, in the first instance, norms governing translators' strategies and approaches are defined, their contribution to both the theory and practice of translation translator – and particularly process-oriented TS – is discussed, and their complexity is addressed. As norms are viewed as principles, rules, and conventions, closely related to values and ideologies, and always regulating translators' strategies and approaches, they are conceived as a key concept in TS research and a compass for translation practice. Thus, this chapter addresses the idea that behind every decision-making act and any strategy that translators employ during the translation process there always exists a particular norm, or set of norms. Norm typology will therefore be another topic of discussion and ways to identify norms will be analysed. The study of norms in ChLT will then be tackled. Attempts to model norms governing process-oriented translation strategies, and approaches in the context of ChLT in the academic and non-academic contexts will be critically reviewed in order to create an all-compassing model of ChLT norms. This addresses the first research question and aim of the study. In conclusion, limitations of norm-based studies will be discussed and some suggestions for further research will be made.

Chapter 4 makes reference to strategies-based studies, and reports on issues such as: attempts to define and discuss their role in the framework of TS, ways to detect them, and the types of strategies that have played a major role in the field of TS. Both product-oriented strategies and process-oriented strategies are presented to illustrate this point. Process-oriented translation strategies that translators employ in the context of ChLT, from the perspectives of the academic and the non-academic worlds, are critically reviewed in an attempt to reach an effective model of ChLT process-oriented strategies. This addresses the second research question and aim of the study. In conclusion, some final remarks on the future of the study of translation strategies are made.

Subsequently, in Chapter 5, HT in the realm of ChLT is thoroughly explored as a culture-specific concept (CSC). Starting with an introduction to humourology, i.e. the academic study of humour, the significance of studying humour is highlighted and several attempts to model HT are critically reviewed. Details of the novel *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾* written by the well known British writer, Sue Townsend (1982), selected for the purposes of this study, are given, and aspects of the texts extracted for the purposes of the TAPs experiment are specified (i.e. information on the book, the hero and the author, criteria for choosing the texts, and a brief text analysis).

In keeping with the all-encompassing literature review of this thesis, Chapter 6 explores the development of translation competence. The literature on effective translation competence models is critically reviewed and the gap phenomenon is explained in the course of discussing the systematising of expert versus non-expert translators' approaches. This addresses the third research question and aim of the study. The significance of such studies is highlighted, as they provide an insight into how to guide students' development through different stages of learning, from beginners (novice) to competent, eventually resulting in expert translators.

The last chapter of the literature review (Chapter 7) situates the study within translation process research as a branch of descriptive TS, i.e. describing phenomena as they are in the real world (Holmes, 1972). Within this framework, translation is seen as a cognitive process and problem-solving activity, where decisions are made and problems are solved. In the context of this study, it will be pointed out that translation problems are faced by translators' strategies employed and attitudes adopted, that are governed by norms. Additionally, the origins of think-aloud studies and their contribution to TS as a research methodology are discussed, and a description of how the TAPs method is used in the field serves to highlight its strengths and limitations. Issues of objectivity, validity, and trustworthiness are also addressed. Recommendations and ethical issues are explored, and future perspectives are discussed.

In Chapter 8 the research design and methodology of the study are described. The pilot study is explained and changes applied to the main study as a result of feedback received during the pilot study are detailed. The main study is then described with reference to the environments and settings, the participants, the researcher-observer, the data and its analysis, ethical issues, and limitations of the study.

The findings of the study are presented and analysed in Chapter 9. What derived from the participants' TAPs is revealed and triangulated with results from the questionnaires that were given prior to, and after, the TAPs sessions, and with the researcher's diary. This section returns to the aims and research questions of the study and examines the extent to which these have been addressed and answered during the research process. The section focuses on the most substantial findings, which are discussed in light of the literature reviewed in Chapters 1-7. This bringing together of substantial findings from the preceding sections, enables some further connections to be made regarding the research questions and aims of the study.

In Chapter 10 a discussion of the main findings and outcomes of a potential secondary benefit (beneficial outcomes) is generated. Implications of the study are discussed in Chapter 11. The thesis ends with a Conclusion where the study is summarised and suggestions for future directions are provided.

IX. Concluding Remarks

This Introduction has contextualised the study and outlined its research questions and aims. As highlighted above, the study on the whole is an attempt to add to the efforts of the international community of scholars, translators, authors, child-readers, adult-readers, teachers, librarians, publishers, and other parties with an interest in ChLT, to raise the profile of the field in TS with an interdisciplinary lens. Additionally, in contrast to much other research, the translator – who had for long been relatively invisible and undervalued – is placed in the centre of the investigation, with attention being paid to his thinking, normative behaviour, and decision-making. For it is about time the translator gained a rightful place in history, society, and the research agenda.

The next chapter (Chapter 1) marks the beginning of the literature review of this study.

PART TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter 1

Chapter 1

Children's Literature

“Literature is a powerful vehicle for helping children understand their homes, communities and the world. Even before young children can read themselves, family members, childcare providers and teachers are reading them stories about other children in far-away places, sometimes from the distant past, or about children whose lives are not unlike their own. The impressions and messages contained in these stories can last a lifetime.”³

1.0. Introductory Note

The study of children's literature (ChL) is being increasingly recognised as an integral part of literary studies (Hunt & Bannister Ray, 2004; Nodelman, 2008; Gubar, 2009). It is widely accepted that literature, and its translation, are major carriers of content, and powerful 'media' for understanding the world (Batchelder, 1966; Wells, 1986; Metcalf, 2003; Panaou, 2009a). It follows, therefore, that appropriate content is significant for anyone involved in the writing, selection, teaching, translating, publishing, or promoting this type of material (Lundin, 2004; Luckens, Smith & Coffer, 2012). For children and young adults (YA), it is easier to assimilate new information when this is presented within the structure of a story, whereas recent research attempts reveal that literature for children and YA and its translation can meet essential needs of the audience/readership in question and give answers to life's key questions (Xeni, 2000, 2006d, 2011; Lehnman, 2004). In this chapter, the rapid expansion of ChL, especially in the European and international contexts, and aspects of its history and theory will be critically reviewed.

1.1. Children's Literature at the European and International Levels

1.1.1. Attempts to Define Children's Literature

ChL is nowadays considered to be an academic discipline with its own peculiarities (Van Coillie & Verschueren, 2006), despite its integral connection with literary studies (Hunt & Bannister Ray, 2004; Lathey, 2006; Nodleman, 2008). An issue of much concern to the field is defining what

³ Available at: <http://www.partnersagainsthate.org/educators/books.html> – last accessed 30/07/2011

precisely ChL is. Up until now, no concrete definition has been widely accepted, and the complexity of the characteristics of ChL lead to a variety of definitions, thus muddling the issue and hindering the creation of a tangible and acknowledged definition (Knowles & Malmkjaer, 1996; O'Connell in Anderman & Rogers, 1999; Jones, 2006; Nodelman, 2008). Attempts to define ChL throughout the years have generated ongoing discussions in the European and international academic world, some of which are addressed below.

In 1966, Darton asserted that children's books were printed and produced primarily to offer children spontaneous happiness, and not mainly to teach them, nor just to make them 'good' or keep them quiet. Although he excluded all school books from this category, he noted that some works in each category can be referred to because "they purposely gave much latitude to amusement, or because they contained elements which have passed into a less austere legacy" (Darton, 1966, p. 1). Though valuable, Darton's definition of what constitutes a child's book is confusing. In theory, all school books are aimed at children, so including some and not others is not inclusive enough as a definition for this research. In 1971, Townsend, giving a more practical definition, pointed out that a child's book is a book which appears on the children's list of a publisher, whereas twenty years later, Hunt (1991) suggested that ChL can be defined as "books read by, especially suitable for, or especially satisfying for members of the group defined as children" (p. 61). Clearly, there seems to be a continuous need to redefine what ChL actually is.

In her attempts to define ChL, O'Connell (in Anderman & Rogers, 1999) underlined that there has been little consensus on its definition, possibly because of "the enormously inclusive scope and potentially vague nature of the semantic fields covered by the concepts referred to using the nouns 'children' and 'literature'" (p. 209). Literature for children and YA is considered to be a highly fruitful and popular area of writing, and for some it is debated as a "genre of its own right" (Knowles & Malmkjaer, 1996, p. 290). As Gubar (2009) puts it, "[i]nsisting that children's literature is a genre characterised by recurrent traits is damaging to the field, obscuring rather than advancing our knowledge of this richly heterogeneous group of texts" (p. 210). What is more, to some ChL is enjoyed by children and adults alike (Knowles & Malmkjaer, 1996) and is thus of a 'dual readership' (Metcalf, 2003; Rurdivin & Orlati, 2006). This seems to be another reason for the absence of a working definition. As Jones (2006) puts it, ChL "resists definition because it appears to mixed audiences of children and adults" (p. 213). This comprises a major problem "undermining the validity of the category itself" (Jones, 2006, p. 288).

Despite the controversy about what ChL is, the Education Encyclopedia (2008)⁴ stresses that ChL is: “[a]ny literature that is enjoyed by children. More specifically, children’s literature comprises those books written and published for young people who are not yet interested in adult literature or who may not possess the reading skills or developmental understandings necessary for its perusal”. Thomson-Wolgemouth (1998), suggests that anything which can be interesting to a child can be called ChL, including “newspapers, magazines, even video films, literature read by children up to the age of 16, literature intended and produced specifically for children, [to] literature for any child or adolescent under the adult age including textbooks for school” (p. 5). In this line of rather wide-ranging and inclusive definitions, Nodleman (2008) sees ChL as whatever literature children and YA “happen to read”, whereas O’Connell adopts Klingberg’s (in Anderman & Rogers, 1999) definition below as the most functional one:

Literature for children and young people (referred to simply as children’s literature from now on) is defined not as those books which they read (children and young people read and always have to read a wide range of literature), but as literature which has been published for – or mainly for – children and young people. (p. 215)

O’Connell’s definition above, is what will be seen as functional in the course of this study, as it meets the requirements of child-centred studies, a scientific field this study addresses (see Figure I., p. 5). Throughout this thesis, ChL will be viewed as literature for children and YA that has been written, translated, published, etc., specifically for children and YA, placing children and YA in the centre of the writing, translating, publishing, etc., interest. In addition, similarly to Nodleman (2008, p. 3) and Jones (2006, p. 288), when referring to ChL both intended audiences, children and YA, will be included. Although they are different, this is considered as a “legitimate conjoining [as] each has an audience defined as younger than its writers” (Nodleman, 2008, p. 6). In both cases children and YA are defined by “their presumed inability to produce such books or make such decisions about purchases of books for themselves [as] they are younger than their writers” (Nodleman, 2008, p. 6) and “therefore less experienced or capable than those who do these things [e.g., writing, purchasing, publishing] for them” (ibid., p. 5).

1.1.2. The Age Group Division of Children’s Literature and Childhood Needs Met

In English-speaking areas, ChL is formally divided into three age groups according to the needs of the intended readers (Wells, 1986; Mustri, 1995; Thomson-Wohlge-muth, 1998; Xeni, 2000; Beckett, 2008; 2009, 2012). The first group includes very young children up to the age of six; the

⁴ Available at: <http://www.google.com/search?hl=ar&q=48.EducationEncyclopedia> – last accessed 30/07/2011

second, school children up to the age of twelve; and the third, children from thirteen years up until the age they reach puberty (Mustri, 1995; Thomson-Wohlgemuth, 1998). This group can also include adults, since it is well known that they often select books for young readers, as quite often young readers are not that interested in where the books come from (Thomson-Wohlgemuth, 1998, Nodleman, 2008). However, as Thomson-Wohlgemuth points out (1998), “as borders between these groups are indistinct and interests can differ, it is possible to find members of each group reading books intended for another age” (p. 1).

In several publications that followed my Master in Arts thesis (Xeni, 2000), where it was stressed that children and YAs’ vital needs are met in literature and its translation (Xeni, 2006d, 2007, 2010), a list of these needs was drafted, so as to highlight the significance of ChL and its translation for children and YA’s learning, behaviour, and growth. Adopting the age groups given by Morton (1967), the three age groups are referred to as ‘the youngest group’, ‘the middle group’, and ‘the oldest group’. Table 1.1.⁵ below, presents the list of these needs:

Table 1.1.
Children and Young Adults’ Needs for (Translated) Literature

A. The first group-the youngest group (0-6 years)	
A.1. Need for personal identity	
A.2. Need to overcome worries, anxieties and fears	
A.3. Need for security	
A.4. Need for imminent justice	
A.5. Need for happy endings	
A.6. Need for future preparation and socialisation	
A.7. Need for entertainment	
A7.a. Need for fantasy	
A7.b. Need for magic	
A7.c. Need for language speakability and readability	
B. The second age-group division-the middle group (7-12 years)	
B.1. All the needs presented above	
B.2. Need to overcome anxieties, worries and fears	
B.3. Need for entertainment	
B.3.a. Need for the exodic	
B.3.b. Need for humour	
B.3.c. Need for action	
B.4. Need for education-learning	
B.4.a. Need for language education	
B.4.b. Need for culture education	
B.4.c. Need for moral education	
B.4.d. Need for religion education	
B.5. Need for preparation for adulthood	
C. The third age group division-the older group (13+ years)	
C.1. All previous needs	
C.2. Need for naturalistic patterns-authenticity	
C.2.a. fantasy vs. authenticity	
C.2.b. taboo subjects (violence, sex, etc)	
C.3. Need for patterns in life	
C.4. Need for overcoming anxieties worries and fears	
C.5. Need for establishing their own identity	
C.6. Need for education	
C.6.a. Need for language education	
C.6.b. Need for multicultural education	

⁵ This list was systematised after a thorough literature review for the purposes of my Master in Arts thesis submitted in the University of Surrey, UK in 2000.

This study focuses on the need for humour – a need that is met in all age groups according to the division provided above – and attention will be paid to the translation of humour in literature for children and YA. Translators at three levels of competence (beginners, competent, and professionals) will be observed as they translate humorous excerpts of ChL, with a focus on strategies, approaches, and norms employed. Aspects of humour translation (HT) will be further analysed at a later stage of the study (see Chapter 5), with the overall findings and implications of the study discussed in Chapters 10 and 11 respectively.

What is important to note – and will be pointed out later in this section – is that nowadays ChL is acknowledged to have a pedagogical (instructional) character – instead of a didactic (moral/ethical) one which was prevalent in the past – but also an entertaining one, supporting children's needs, growth, and well-being. This feature of ChL emerges from the overview discussion of the history of ChL below and the theoretical aspects pertaining to the study discussed immediately after.

1.1.3. Exploring Children's Literature through the Years: An Overview of its History

The history of ChL⁶ consists of seven main epochs: The Ancient World (ancient Rome; 50 BCE to 500 CE), the Middle Ages (500 to 1500 CE), the European Renaissance (1500-1650 CE, the 17th century, the 18th and early 19th centuries, the Victorian years (The Golden Age), and the 21st century (Bingham & Scholt, 1980; Hunt, 1994, 1995, 2001; Townsend, 1996). The seven periods of the history of ChL are thoroughly presented below.

The Ancient World (ancient Rome; 50 BCE to 500 CE) represented the preliminary years of the history of ChL, where oral tales were traditional and habitual. These tales were told to be heard and not to be read and included poems of Homer, i.e. the Iliad, the Trojan War, the Odyssey, and Aesop's Fables, which consisted of animal tales with pointed morals (Bingham & Scholt, 1980; Hunt, 1994, 1995, 2001; Townsend, 1996).

The Middle Ages (500 to 1500 CE) consisted of readings, such as Medieval Epics, i.e. *Beowulf*, *Song of Roland*, *El Cid*, etc.; Medieval Romances, i.e. *King Arthur* and *Robin Hood*; as well as Fables and other tales, i.e. The Deeds of the Romans with a collection of moral tales and fables, sources of plots for centuries, biblical stories, lives of saints, local legends, animal stories, that children

⁶ For the purposes of this section, notes of the module LSC 300 L, Literature for Children (available at: <http://www.southernct.edu/~brownm/300hlit.html> – last accessed 30/07/2011), at the Department of Library Science and Instructional Technology at Southern Connecticut State University, as well as the article "To Instruct and Delight: A History of Children's Literature" (available at: <http://www.randomhistory.com/1-50/024children.html> – last accessed 30/07/2011), proved to be very helpful.

were always fond of, storytelling with freely mingled magic, enchantment, miracles, mysteries, the ludicrous, and the serious. Those were ages when fewer children could read, and childhood was ignored and kept as short as possible (Bingham & Scholt, 1980; Townsend, 1996).

The European Renaissance (1500-1650 CE), marked by the Printing Press (mid-15th century), made it possible to print books in quantities, thus reducing time, labour, and cost, subsequently making ChL more accessible. This resulted in mass-literacy, an increase in formal education, and dissemination of advanced knowledge. Books for instruction consisted of the *Aesop's Fables*, the *Book of Martyrs* (1563) (an anti-Catholic work of horrific scenes of violent death), and *Orbis Sensualium Pictus* (1658), which was a Latin vocabulary book (Hunt, 1994, 1995).

The 17th century marked a significant change to childhood and childhood reading, which at the time, was regarded as much more important by adults (Hunt, 1994, 1995, 2001). The rise of Puritanism stressed the individual's need to tend to his own salvation and the work of John Locke influenced society from a religious and intellectual point of view (Hunt, 2001). Prevalent in those years, was the knowledge of the Bible as necessary for every human being, and thus for a child to be able to read and understand its message. In addition, the Harvard-college establishment and emphasised the commitment of adults to the primacy of education (Hunt, 1994, 1995). 'The New Primer' (1770), a Puritan publication introducing young children to the alphabet through rhymes, was another important text of that period marking this turning point in how 'childhood' is conceptualised and what this meant for ChL at the time. Such a turn was also marked by John Locke's famous essay 'Thoughts Concerning Education' (1693), in which he formulated his notion that the minds of young children were similar to blank slates (*tabula rasa*) just waiting to be 'written upon' and thus primed for instruction. Stressing that it was the responsibility of adults to see to the proper education of children, John Locke paved the way for childhood reading to be seen as an important aspect of childhood education, growth, and well-being. Lastly, with John Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress* (1678), Daniel Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe* (1719), and Jonathan Swift's *Gulliver's Travels* (1726), it can be argued that children continued to adopt certain adult works of literature (Hunt, 1994, 1995, 2001).

The 18th and early 19th centuries were marked by John Newbery's *Little Pretty Pocket Book* (1744), the first significant publication for children that encompassed both children's education and enjoyment, and by Rousseau and the *Moral Tale* (1762), where he expressed his ideas about education in *Emile* (1762), and emphasised the importance of moral development through simple living (Hunt, 1995). In this period, children's writing had a distinctive didactic (i.e. moral) aim, as

it taught children how to be 'good', moral, and proper human beings. It was mostly undertaken by women writers, and thus regarded as inferior to adult books and adults' literature (AdL). Further marking this distinction, this period saw the rise of Folktales e.g., *Tales of Mother Goose* by Charles Parrrault (1729), retellings including *Cinderella* (1697), *Little Red Riding Hood* (1697), *Sleeping Beauty* (1667), and the works of the Grimm brothers (early 19th century), which were not always regarded by adults as suitable for children, as they included adult themes, alarming frankness and violence, whereas moral messages were absent. Children, nevertheless, continued to read and appreciate the old tales (Hunt, 1995; Townsend, 1996).

The Victorian years were a period characterised as the Golden Age of ChL (Hunt, 1995). In the years of the reign of Queen Victoria (1837-1901), ChL had its first boom with well-known authors and illustrators showing an interest in how childhood had been influenced by the Romantic Movement, which idealised childhood and led to a greater interest in children and their books (Hunt, 1995). Fantasy stories started spreading: Lewis Carroll's *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* (1865) marked the beginning of an era in ChL, where didacticism was replaced by enjoyment, and not long after that, other important pieces of work appeared: Kingsley's *The Water Babies* (1863), MacDonald's *The Princess and the Goblin* (1872), Baum's *The Wizard of Oz* (1900), Graham's *The Wind in the Willows* (1908), etc. Besides fantasy stories, adventure stories – especially for boys – followed: Stevenson's *Treasure Island* (1883), Twain's *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* (1976), and *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* (1884). In addition, school stories – for boys again – made their appearance, i.e. Tom Brown's *School Days* (1857) was a well-known antic for boys at boarding schools, and *The Chocolate War* (20th Century) is another example of a school story. For girls, domestic stories were written, presenting the home and tales of family life, focusing on the activities of a virtuous heroine, usually coming from dire straits and achieving good fortune and ultimate happiness in the person of a handsome young man. Such examples were Alcott's *Little Women* (1868) and Montgomery's *Anne of Green Gables* (1908).

Children's books illustrations shared the fate of ChL and ChLT with regards to their profile (Hunt, 1994, 1995). Books from the 18th century and earlier either lacked illustrations altogether or contained crude woodblock illustrations (Townsend, 1996). The interesting thing about illustration, as regards its low profile and status, is that serious artists did not draw for children's books (Hunt, 1994, 1995). At the end of the 19th century, changes in publishing and printing attracted great illustrators, and illustrated children's books were then available at reasonable prices.

The 20th century was the century where ChL was given the highest profile (Lathey, 2006). Greater diversity was observed in genres and greater appreciation was shown of its quality with established awards. By the first quarter of the 20th century, libraries were dedicating entire shelves, and sometimes rooms to ChL, marking a significant change in the history and development of ChL, and enabling it to gain the place it deserved in literary studies (Hunt, 2001; Lathey 2006).

As revealed above, it is clear that the more focus was placed on the notion of childhood, the greater the appreciation granted to ChL and childhood readings (Hunt, 2001). ChL was for years considered inferior to AdL, for various reasons: content, language, and the fact that it was written by women, who had an inferior role in society (Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998). What is more, the brief overview above raises issues of acceptability, appropriateness, usefulness, and didacticism of childhood reading and ChL. These issues have generated ongoing discussions in ChL and its research, and are integral to this research's exploration of translators' norms. They are, as such, addressed in Chapter 3 of this thesis.

In what follows, the main theoretical aspects of the study of ChL as a scientific field in its own right will be discussed, so as to contextualise the present study.

1.1.4. Theoretical Issues in the Study of Children's Literature

In keeping with AdL, ChL has incorporated the applications and influences of nearly every theoretical school of thought: structuralism (Neumeyer, 1977), reader-response (Chambers, 1980), post-structuralism (Rose, 1984; Lesnik-Oberstein, 1994), feminist theory (Paul, 1987), orientalism (Nodelman, 1992), postmodernism (Stevenson, 1994), new criticism (Wojcik-Andrews, 2002), and others. Each one of these philosophical traditions have reflected a different approach and focus in ChL criticism; from the point of view of the text, the writer, the child, cultural issues, etc. These are the issues to be addressed in this section.

Since the early 1920s, what was prevalent in literary studies was an emphasis on the pure literary qualities of a text. In that period, scholars placed the text at the centre of the analysis, and thus investigated topics deriving from a text-based analysis, that are still topics of ongoing discussions in literary studies: aspects of illustrations and picture books (Nodelman, 1990), intertextuality (Stephens & McCallum, 1998), genre-based analysis (Rose, 1984), etc.

In the same period, however, the view of the prevalent role of the text was in contrast to the established view of the role of the writer in literary studies. Theoretical schools such as formalism,

structuralism, and the neocritics undervalued the writer's role, giving priority to intertextual aesthetics (Tziovas, 1987). Formalists focused on intertextuality, contrary to the paratextual approach of the 19th century, and paid attention to the literary text, aiming to reveal its literary secrets (Fokkema & Ibsch, 1988), usually found in the writer's linguistic strategies and techniques applied to make it function aesthetically (Schaeffer & Kelly-Holmes, 1995).

Thus, the aim of the formalist approach was not the study of the content, which was the aim of the philological-interpretative approach in a previous period, but the linguistic form chosen by the writer in order to communicate the meaning. In this way, the reader could have an active role in interpreting the text, and the writer was seen as an artist whose work was considered to be a process of existing techniques. In some ways, the focus of the formalist approach on transforming meaning for the reader was not dissimilar to functionalist theories in TS (Tziovas, 1987).

Turning the focus from the text and the writer to the reader, we can consider the readers' response criticism (Champers, 1980). Although conceiving the text as an important element, and acknowledging the role of the writer, this perspective strongly highlights the role of the reader and his experience of the literary work. In this context, a literary text is a means of transferring the writer's experience to the readers, and an integrated reader is the one who manages to recreate what the writer expressed in his work (Economidou, 2006). Existing views considered the reader as a relatively passive recipient. The writer's role was to conceive the idea and create the literary work justifying its meaning, whereas the role of the reader was to search for and discover the meaning. The new emphasis, though, withdraws the passivism from the reader and establishes him as a meaning-maker of the literary text, giving him an opportunity to take an active part in the literary game and read the text as a literary one (Champers, 1980; Economidou, 2006).

All in all, the transfer from the text to the writer and the writer to the reader is marked as one of the most significant transfers that occurred in the 20th century in the realm of literary theory (Champers, 1980). The writer ceased to be the reference point of ongoing discussions, and the focus became the reader (and for the case of ChL, the child-reader) who is made to feel like a creative subject who receives, processes, draws meaning from and criticises a text (Tziovas, 1987). This point of view, although set in the limits of the period when it was first stated, was reviewed at a later point in neocriticism. What is more, this readers' response criticism perspective sets the foundations for child-centred studies (a key element of this study), where the child is seen as a reference point (Champers, 1980). This will be further elaborated at a later stage when discussing the theoretical developments of ChLT in Chapter 2.

Likewise, a child-focused approach emphasises the pedagogical (i.e. instructional) versus the didactic aspect of children's reading, and is thus generally preoccupied with what is good for children in terms of knowledge provision, and why (Champers, 1980). This approach paved the way for other ideas, such as the idea that children are not a single group, but individuals that differ in gender, religious background, ethnicity, skills, etc. In line with this, feminist studies focused on how girls read differently from boys (Paul, 1987), whereas others investigated the 'colonisation' of ChL by adults, who always select ChL on behalf of children (Hunt, 1991; Nodleman, 1992; McGillis, 1996). This approach also raised issues of childhood identity (Rose, 1984; Lesnik-Oberstein, 1994, 2004), highlighting that identities are created and not inherent, thus childhood identity can be said to be created by the adults in light of their individual perception of themselves. This approach has its origins in post-structuralism and is widely supported in gender studies and in sociological and anthropological studies of childhood (Butler, 1999; Jenks, 1996; Jenks, James & Prout, 1997). Cultural studies view ChL as an aspect of culture. In this realm, ChL is sometimes viewed as a product consumed, just like television, computers, games, etc. (Jenkins, 1998), or as a cultural artifact (Mackey, 1998). It is interesting to note that a focus on this particular group of readers raised awareness of their individuality and different identities, this questioning the notion of a coherent group consuming the type of product in one specific way.

Rapid socioeconomic and ideological changes have revealed the need for updating the content, form, and function of ChL, which has become a constantly developing area in contemporary literary studies (Nikolajeva, 1998). Literary work with freshness in terms of themes, characters, language, pictures, narrative techniques and voice, intertextuality, links, and metafiction (Nodleman, 2008) aims to engage readers. With child-centred approaches still being encountered in literary studies discussions, issues in ChL are approached with further modes of analysis, touching upon either new areas, older, or current ones, so as to further analyse issues of concern. The characteristics of ChL, which are elaborated below, belong to the list of topics in literary studies which provide a foundation for further analysis in the context of child-centred studies.

1.1.5. Characteristics of Children's Literature

From discussions concerning the definition, content, history, and theory of ChL, various characteristic features of ChL can be derived. When listing some of the main characteristics that can be easily traced from statements and arguments through the years, it becomes clear that the aspects of language and content are what matter the most. Therefore, and drawing from Nodleman (1996, 2008), Oittinen (2000), Xeni (2007) and Panaou and Tsilimeni (2011), the following list of characteristics can be drafted: 'simplistic', 'comprehensive', 'cautious with

readability and speakability', 'repetitive', 'didactic', and at the same time, 'optimistic', 'straightforward', 'child appropriate', 'expressing a child's point of view', or 'about childhood', and 'with illustrations', 'fantasy', and 'happy endings'.

An attempt to provide an overview of the characteristics of ChL over the centuries reveals that the concepts established in any given period of time were not self-governing. They were dependent to a high degree on social, ideological, and spiritual factors influencing the writer. Prevalent views with regards to childhood, the child's role in the family and societal contexts also played their part in establishing ChL characteristics (Lathey, 2006). In the past, ChL was expected to involve didacticism and to thus consist of ethical/religious elements (Shavit, 1986). Books for children and YA were more seen as being an addition to school books, and knowledge acquired in school, but not generally as a way to acquire happiness and satisfaction (Nodleman, 1996, 2008). It is interesting to note the entirely secondary function of entertainment until very recently.

As soon as didactic narratives lost their appeal somewhat, the value of ChL as a means for happiness, satisfaction, enjoyment, and enhancement was promoted (Nodleman, 2008). According to the well-known Greek translator of ChL, Petrovits-Androutsopoulou (1990), excellent ChL can perhaps eventually provide some teaching in its own way, offering some knowledge, but this is not what a writer aims for. What is important is that ChL cultivates children's inner world, widens their horizons, transfers life experiences, provides children with an opportunity to experience life and art, and gives them pleasure. In a modernised world, writers for children began paying attention to the aesthetic value of their texts and the pleasure they bring to readers in addition to knowledge (Kontoleon, 1988; Lathey, 2006; Nodleman, 2008). To them, literature was primarily an aesthetic synthesis of life expressed by feelings with cognitive and intellectual aspects as secondary. With the coming of modernity, writers tended to avoid naïve narratives with didactic elements and attempted to adopt a more sincere and authentic attitude towards readers, trying to mirror reality in their work (Kontoleon, 1988; Katsiki-Givalou, 1995; Sakellariou, 1996; Oittinen, 2000; Lathey, 2006; Nodleman, 2008). Using cultivated language, humour, pictures and realism, they worked towards offering enjoyment to the child-readers, helping them handle or overcome their problems, and mature and advance their spirit, inner-world, and personality, preparing them to integrate smoothly in society, and become creative and active citizens (Oittinen, 2000; Lathey, 2006; Nodleman, 2008). The greater the aesthetic pleasure, the greater the benefit for the child-reader, and, at the same time, the greater the impact on the status of ChL in literary studies (Pinsent, 2006; Nodleman, 2008). It is noteworthy here that a child's development was felt to be achieved via enjoyment and aesthetic means.

Beyond the years of didacticism and aesthetic enjoyment, new ways of seeing things emerged. Influenced by postmodernism, ChL presented new tendencies in terms of its characteristics and the role of the child-reader. The latter, having an active role to play and being now responsible for the meaning-making of the literary text as a critical literate individual, experiences an era where a piece of literary work is open to various readings, interpretations, critical engagement, approaches, and dimensions (Nikolajeva, 1998; Economidou, 2000; Stein, 2000; Mallouri, 2006; Sinfield & Hawkins, 2006).

In ongoing discussions about the characteristics of ChL, the attempts to provide a widely accepted set of features lead to a list of characteristics that constantly evolves and increases. An example of this trend is Mohl and Schack's statement (in Oittinen, 2000) which highlights just a few of the characteristics of ChL. To them, ChL should be "entertaining, didactic, informative, therapeutic, and it should help the child grow and develop. A children's book should also, strengthen the child's feelings of empathy and identification" (p. 65). The definitions and new characteristics added in the last decade, therefore, point to an increasing focus on affective factors alongside cognitive, cultural, and didactic ones, which were prevalent beforehand.

In traditional ChL the main characteristics of writing for child-readers are different to those of AdL. Some characteristics derive from attempts to define ChL, where scholars, instead of listing characteristics, tend to report features that – from their point of view – signify that the particular literary work is addressed to children. In this framework, Petrovits-Androutsopoulou (1990) suggests that simplicity of language, the avoidance of taboo language, like insults and curse words, as well as sarcasm, and short sentences, describing characters, settings, and the plot, are some of the main characteristics that authors and translators should incorporate in their books. Similarly, McDowel (1991) asserts that ChL texts are shorter in length, written in simple language, and have an 'easy to follow' structure, mainly consisting of dialogue, and with less description. Crouch (1962) stresses that ChL should be comprehensible, and Sakellariou (1987) and Nodelman (1992) both underline that ChL should consist of uncomplicated language characterised by innocence, optimism, didacticism, and happy endings. This links to Tucker's (1976) earlier idea that a forced limitation of literature in certain areas of experience and vocabulary was necessary. The use of 'simple language' is a recurring characteristic where ChL is concerned (Oittinen, 2000; Lathey, 2006; Cámara Aguilera, 2008) and will be addressed later on in this thesis.

All in all, this list of characteristics shows a clear focus on language and content. Both need to be 'proper' (i.e. appropriate for the child reader in terms of theme, language, and plot) and both need to be kept as simple as possible. Quoting Cámara Aguilera (2008):

Every author wants his/her work be received and understood by the audience for whom it was designed. Authors who dedicate their professional lives to writing for children keep in mind that this kind of reader implies a change of register and a qualitative selection of conceptual and formal elements. The theme, style, syntax, sentence length, lexical complexity, typography, illustration, speakability, etc. are some of the factors with a specific weight in the reception of their work and this, no doubt, the Children's Literature author keeps in mind throughout his/her project (...) a work for children with a setting in a different society, with characters' names in another language, different institutions, streets and traditions constitutes a challenge from the point of view of another language and culture. (p. 1)

The characteristics discussed in this section have a key impact on the profile of the area of ChL and its stakeholders. Their relation to the low status and profile of ChL will now be discussed below.

1.1.6. The Low Status and Profile of Children's Literature

When evaluating the characteristics deriving from the study of traditional ChL, one can see why ChL was for a long time "the outsider" (Hunt, 1990, p. 1), or the "Cinderella" of literary studies (Shavit, 1994, p. 5), suffering from a low status and being undervalued by all parties involved, i.e. scholars, editors, publishers, etc. According to O'Connell (in Lathey, 2006), ChL "has tended to remain uncanonical and culturally marginalised" (p. 18). Quoting Clark (1993), "writers of children's books often complain that in the literary work they are looked down as the poor relations of authors working in the adult field. Or rather not poor relations, but simply beginners" (p. 1). Since AdL writers were viewed as superior, ChL authors were often regarded as writers writing anything else but "real books" (Shavit, 1994, p. 5), and initiating an ideal career – a writer for children was seen as an easy job – "[where] in the case of failure, not much harm would be done because 'it's only for children'" (Thomson-Wolgemouth, 1998, p. 3). For a long time, there had been a conception of ChL being a less demanding writing activity, and thus it was little appreciated (Shavit, 1994; Thomson-Wolgemouth, 1998; Lesnik-Oberstein, 2004; etc.). Along with its vague definition, the characteristics mentioned above led ChL to endure a literary embargo and to be relegated to one specific area of literary scholarship, criticism and production. ChL was seen as sweet and cute and less serious. Quoting Shavit (1994):

A scholar of children's literature is always asked to prove that he (or she) can wear the hat of 'a real scholar' if he (or she) wishes to be accepted by scholars of 'general literary criticism'. Only if one is esteemed in a field other than children's literature, does one stand a fair chance of becoming a member of the academic-literary community. (p. 5)

Unfortunately, being under-valued might have led these scholars to consider their jobs as worthless, thus further impacting on the quality of their work. In addition, Shavit (1994) asserts that "much of the research has underlined the deflated image of the field and strengthened the opposition between 'serious' research on 'serious' works of literature, and the less important type of research, i.e. that which dominates children's literature" (p. 7). This dichotomy seems to have further deepened the differences between ChL and AdL in a kind of self-fulfilling prophecy.

Adding to these negative attitudes towards ChL, the royalties for ChL writers have always been lower in comparison to AdL writers (Vougioukas 1994; Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998; Xen, 2011). This state of affairs made several authors "adopt pen names" (Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998, p. 3) and remain invisible for years.

When investigating reasons for the low status of ChL it can be argued that a first possible reason for this situation is that ChL is addressed to children who are conceived to be a minority or at least unable as readers to defend their views (Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998). A second reason could be that ChL works were mainly written by women. Throughout the history of literature, women have suffered low and poor status and it is well known that through the years they have struggled to be respected and acknowledged (Hunt, 1992). Even in the twentieth century, ChL researchers such as Hearne and Sutton (1991) and Hunt (1992) comment that the status of ChL is perhaps a reflection of the traditional hierarchical family system. Adult male literature predominates whilst women's literature is secondary and less recognised. According to Hearne and Sutton (1991) "children's literature is not only at the bottom of the heap but (worse) it is very much the province of women" (p. 27). A third reason for the low status and profile of ChL is that, most of the time, ChL does not keep up with conventional literary norms, and thus faces problems in terms of conventional evaluation and classification. As Hunt (1992) puts it:

Forced to describe themselves in terms of established norms, children's books do not shape up very well: their narratives are often novellas rather than novels; their verse is doggerel rather than poetry; their drama is improvisation rather than mediated text. As with other forms of literature, genre can generate rapidly into formula. (p. 3)

Therefore, unlike the renewed canons of a literary system, ChL was considered not to respect appropriate literary requirements. These issues have resulted over the years in ChL being classified as inferior and subsequently insignificant, and thus research in this area also remained fairly limited. According to O'Connell (1999), the sad absence of children's writers amongst winners of the Nobel Prize for Literature is another indication of the poor status of this particular field. The following quotation from Nodelman (1985) shows the attitude of the scholarly world in those years: "Until we develop a new approach, we will not understand how a children's novel can in fact be unique even though its characters, its story, its "simple" language, and even its central core of patterns and ideas are not" (p. 5).

As years went by, critics were less focused on language and textual issues, and ChL started being viewed as comprising works of art related to historical, social, and ideological issues pertaining to every given period (Oittinen, 2000; Katsonis, 2008). Being currently an officially acknowledged field of literary studies (Mallouri, 2006; Katsonis, 2008; Panaou, 2009a), ChL reflects the social and ideological changes that characterise a historical period. In the realm of these rapid changes, traditional characteristics ascribed to ChL are no longer satisfactory. They are seen as incomplete or misconceived, as they addressed a 'protected childhood' where the child-reader was pictured as withdrawn from the wider social settings and placed in environments of no responsibility and thinking (Kallergis, 1995). With a new focus on the child as a target reader, writers are no longer expected to serve didacticism, even though, in pedagogical settings ChL can still be seen to serve a social role as such (Economidou, 2000).

Contemporary ChL has various examples of work expressing contemporary conceptions, and thus meeting the needs of the modern times that demand an independent child-reader who should actively take part in meaning-making. In this vein, Trivizas (in Economidou, 2000) persuasively argues that an excellent piece of work of ChL nowadays is open to multiple readings, interpretations, and approaches, and can be subject to a variety of analyses and dimensions. It certainly seems that some of the power once held solely in the hands of the adults, has been transferred to child-reader.

Contemporary ChL accepts the fact that the reading experience of a child-reader is different from that of the adult-reader. However, according to Meek (1982), this is not due to comprehensibility or simplicity of language. It is due to something that goes beyond words and is related to the meaning and the understanding of the rules of the reading game. Knowing the rules of the reading game, the child-reader manages to keep a distance from what he reads, which is what

contemporary writers aim at in order to cultivate critical thinking (Gavrielidou, 2010). They call for the child-reader's active participation, but at the same time they keep in mind that on the one hand he is taking part in a fictional story, and secondly, he understands the way narratives function (Kanatsouli, 1997, 2005). In addition to power, the child is given an almost adult-like consideration.

Contemporary narrative is no longer simple, action-centred, didactic, and pessimistic (Mallouri, 2006). There are no clear categories of genres and text-types, an integrated and clearly mapped plot, a chronological presentation of facts, a limited number of characters that are easy to remember or understand when they speak or act. Familiar settings – to the child-reader – (e.g., home, school, playground), clear narratives with no connotations, a powerful narrator in charge of everything, etc., are no longer the norm (Kanatsouli, 2005; Mallouri, 2006). Free from taboos, happy endings, and dialogues, contemporary narrative sometimes even dares to depend on an innocent and naïve child narrator, such as Adrian Mole in this study, instead of an experienced adult-narrator, who is frequently unable to evaluate things occurring and often provides an innocent but authentic (i.e. genuine and real) point of view. The reader is thus able to access reality in a direct and simple way through the vantage point of Adrian Mole. The narrator's voice disappears in the voices of the characters. All in all, as Mallouri (2006) argues, contemporary ChL is not less complicated or challenging for young-readers than literature addressing adult-readers, which highlights the change and progress ChL has made throughout the years. Interestingly, though, it could also be argued, that rather than ChL becoming more adult-like, adults have finally realised the potential for complexity that ChL holds.

In any case, the above change in thinking had a major effect on the status of ChL. In recent years, ChL has no longer kept to boundaries (Lathey, 2006; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). Nowadays ChL is more established as an academic discipline, and is considered to be a remarkable area of writing in its own right, enjoyed not only by children but also by adults. According to Lathey's (2006) extensive review:

[i]n recent years, scholarship in children's literature has gained in respectability. There are an increasing number of literary criticism analyses in the field of children's literature criticism. Additionally, there are a number of scholarly associations in the field, including the Children's Literature Association, the International Research Society for Children's Literature, the Library Association Youth Libraries Group, the Society of Children's Book Writers and Illustrators the Irish Society for the Study of Children's Literature, and Centre for International Research in Childhood: Literature, Culture, Media (CIRCL, and National Centre for Research in Children's Literature. (p. 2)

In addition to formal scholarship, other forms of cultural focus have positively influenced the status of ChL. For example, some museums and galleries now host exhibitions on the subject, and centres for ChL (e.g., Seven Stories) aim at entertaining the public, rather than just scholars. The field has come a long way in a relatively short period of time (Lathey, 2006).

Just as in AdL, one can now find various awards⁷ in the field of ChL nowadays as well as bestsellers at a national, European, and international level. Authors that contributed significantly to ChL, such as Selma Lagerlöf and Isaac Bashevis Singer, were awarded the Nobel Prize for literature. Commenting on the increased popularity and status of ChL, Lathey (2006) notes that:

[t]he travels of Cinderella, Aladdin, Alice, Pinocchio, Emil, Pippi Longstocking, Babar, or Winnie-the-Pooh have been halting and uneven – sometimes with delays of several years between publication of the original and translation and positive reception in other countries (...) Economic, ideological, political, and cultural factors have all played their part in the international success or otherwise of children's books, as has the fact that children's literature is a visual as well as a literary medium: E. H. Shepard's Winnie-the-Pooh or Jean de Brunhoff's Babar are recognised everywhere. But there is no doubt that since the advent of Harry Potter, the concept of an international bestseller for children has taken on a new meaning as well as a new epithet: 'phenomenon'. (p. 2)

The universal criteria for evaluating and selecting high quality ChL pose an additional similarity to AdL and another proof of ChL's higher status nowadays. In an attempt to provide evaluation criteria for excellent ChL, Manjari Singh and Mei-Yu Lu (2003) developed a list by synthesising recommendations from several sources (e.g., ALSC Board, 1987⁸; Pang, Colvin, Tran, & Barba, 1992; Tomlinson, 2002): authenticity, contexts, perspectives, translation, and illustration. For the purposes of this study, it should be noted that the fact that translation is one of the prevalent evaluation criteria for high quality ChL, is of major significance. In such a way, the role and status of ChL as a booming discipline, that is independent and interdisciplinary at the same time, is acknowledged. In the following sections, ChL in Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts will be discussed and problematised.

⁷ See for instance the 'Marsh Award' for ChLT (available at: <http://www.esu.org/marshchildrens/> – last accessed 30/07/2011) that is given biannually to an outstanding work of fiction for young readers introduced into the English language through translation and published by a British publishing house, aiming thus at encouraging the translation of ChL into English.

⁸ Available at: <http://www.ala.org/alsc/awardsgrants/bookmedia/caldecottmedal/caldecottterms/caldecottterms>

1.2. Children's Literature in Greece and Cyprus

1.2.1. Children's Literature in Greece

In an attempt to contextualise this study, and reveal its contribution as one of the first studies to address ChLT in the Greek and especially the Greek-Cypriot contexts, this section will discuss issues of importance in ChL in both the Greek and Greek-Cypriot settings. The section starts with an overview of the history of ChL in Greece and then discusses the situation of Greek ChL in the academic context. The missionary role of ChL in Greece and some of its characteristics as they derive from the historical overview are then reviewed, and some final thoughts are noted before investigating the tangential Greek-Cypriot context.

1.2.1.1. An Overview of the History of Children's Literature in Greece

An historical overview of the developments of ChL in Greece highlights five main historical epochs: I. 1835-1858; II. 1858-1917; III. 1917-1940; IV. 1940-1974; and V. 1974-today (Giakos, 1989; Delonis, 1990; Papantonakis, 2003; etc.). The context of each period is briefly described below.

I. The First Period (1835-1858)

The implementation of the law on the generalisation of education in 1834 resulted in the implementation of obligatory primary education, and subsequently the creation of a new readership constituency (i.e. young-readers). This functioned as a requirement for writers to start producing new works for this age group; and thus, in this period, ChL writers in Greece made their first attempts to provide ethical and didactic books for children (Sakellariou, 1987; Delopoulos, 1995; Hadjidemetriou, 1999; Papantonakis, 2003). Penelope Delta was the first children's writer, followed by Gregorios Xenopoulos (Sakellariou, 1987; Delopoulos, 1995). Additionally, the first magazine specifically published for children, "Η Παιδική Αποθήκη" [Children's Storeroom] was published in Athens, in 1836 (Delopoulos, 1995). This marked the beginning of publications and books specifically aimed at children.

II. The Second Period (1858-1917)

The second period that ends with the educational reformation is marked by the publication of *Γεροστάθης* [Gerostathis] of Leon Mela (1858) and other books for children (e.g. Greek Mythology and Aesop Fables) of a mainly socio-didactic, and, to a certain extent, an entertaining character (Delonis, 1990; Sakellariou, 1987; Papantonakis, 2003). The aim was for children to prepare for the adult world and to learn what is good/acceptable and bad/forbidden for them.

Journals such as *Διάπλασις των Παίδων* (1879) [Conformation of Boys] and organisations for the promotion of children's books such as "Σύλλογος προς Διάδοσιν των Ελληνικών Γραμμάτων" (1869) [Society for the Propagation of Greek Letters] and "Εκπαιδευτικός Όμιλος" (1910) [Educational Society], began their publishing activities with earnest.

III. The Third Period (1917-1940)

The third period starts with the educational reformation (1910) and ends with World War II (Sakellariou, 1987; Delonis, 1990; Papantonakis, 2003; Katsonis, 2008). The triptych 'fatherland, religion, family' prevails literature following the socio-political trend, and characteristics of publications resemble the ones of the previous period, i.e. didacticism. The government's interest in the child and his education has, as a consequence, the exclusive creation of literature especially for children (Papantonakis, 2003; Katsonis, 2008).

IV. The Fourth Period (1940-1974)

The fourth period covers the years of various socio-political happenings starting from World War II until the fall of the Greek Junta (1974). All events are mirrored in the themes of ChL of this period (Sakellariou, 1987; Delonis, 1990; Papaleontiou, 2000; Papantonakis, 2003; Katsonis, 2008). Translations of children's books increased, and what was acknowledged by authorities to be an exceptional book was immediately translated into Greek. Organisations such as "Γυναικεία Λογοτεχνική Συντροφιά" (1965) [Women's Literary Society] and the Greek sector of the International Board on Books for Young People (IBBY) [1969] were also established during this time. Both organisations contributed significantly to the promotion and advance of ChL as well its independence as a scientific field in its own right (Katsonis, 2008).

In Greece, one of the consequences of World War II was the cessation of the production and promotion of ChL in Greece for a decade (1945-1955). The translation of World Literature Classics continued (Katsonis, 2003) and adaptations of exceptional Greek classics (e.g., Homer, Aesop, etc.) were a common practice at the time, aiming to avoid anything that might not be beneficial to a child. In general, these adaptations were seen as a positive trend (Economidou, 2000). This return to classics seemed to mirror the national mood of keeping safe and protecting the Greek heritage and national pride post-war.

V. The Fifth Period (1974-today)

The fifth period starts from the establishment of democracy in Greece and lasts until today (Katsonis, 2008). The 15th International IBBY Conference for Books for Children and Young Adults endorsed the existence of ChL in Greece. The first attempt to report the history of ChL in Greece was also made (Giakos, 1989) and the second one followed a decade later (Sakellariou, 1987). New journals were also established with a focus on ChL theory and criticism (e.g., *Επιθεώρηση Παιδικής Λογοτεχνίας* [*Inspection of Children's Literature*] and *Διαδρομές στο χώρο της Παιδικής Λογοτεχνίας* [*Routes in Children's Literature*]), and the evaluation of children's books' production (e.g., *Διαλέγουμε βιβλία για παιδιά* [*Choosing books for children*], and *Οδηγοί παιδικού-νεανικού βιβλίου* [*Guides for books for children and young adults*]). Competitions and awards also make their debut in this period, and the number of writers (mostly women) increases alongside publication quantity, with public houses circulating lists of ChL publications to the media or to ChL journals. According to the official statistics of EKEBI (the National Book Centre of Greece) for 2006, ChL holds the percentage of 25% of the total production of books in Greece and has increased by 13.9% in comparison to 2005 and 61.6% in comparison to 2001 (Bartzis, 2006).

In line with this, translation and adaptation activities began to prosper, and much attention was paid to faithfulness and equivalence. Exceptional books of talented Greek ChL and AdL writers are often edited in second and third editions. In addition, the first studies of ChL appeared in academia, though according to Papantonakis (2003), these are not of a high academic standard, as they resemble journalistic texts instead of academic ones. Between the years 1980-1990 and onwards, things in the academic world of ChL in Greece improved with studies being established at an undergraduate and postgraduate level, and new academic activities proliferating (e.g., conferences on ChL, academic publications in well-known ChL journals, doctoral research, etc.). Last but not least, the contemporary pedagogical perceptions of the child and his personality make parents realise the need for ChL as it benefits children's life.

1.2.1.2. Children's Literature in the Greek Academic World

As revealed from this brief historical overview, ChL in Greece has undergone encouraging developments in its publishing activity, an adequate activity in translation, and a very low activity or low quality of activity in the academic context. In terms of research, ChL was seen as an isolated and marginal phenomenon and some of its sub-fields (notably ChLT) still struggle to experience the acknowledgment and advances taking place in the rest of the world (Kallergis, 1995; Katsiki-Givalou, 1995; Panaou, 2009a, 2011; Gavrielidou, 2010; Panaou & Michaelides,

2010; Xen, 2011). The years 1970-1980 marked the development of ChL in Greece with the publication of well-known work and research. It was during that period that ChL started being discussed as a scientific field in its own right in the Greek academic context (Bartzis, 2006). In his book, *Approaches to Children's Literature*, Kallergis (1995) described ChL as a vigorous and dynamic scientific field with a bright future, rather than a marginalised phenomenon. In this book, Kallergis discussed for the first time the ethical and aesthetic role of ChL in Greece, as well as issues concerning ChL in the Greek, European, and international context: genres, themes, ideologies, languages, research in ChL, ChL in education, etc. As can be clearly seen, substantial advancements in raising the status of ChL in Greece have been made in the last fifteen years or so.

1.2.1.3. Mission of Children's Literature in Greece

In terms of its mission, i.e. what ChL in Greece was assigned to do, although ChL in Greece followed the trends that were prevalent in European and international ChL (see section 1.1., p. 15), local historical, and socio-political events played a key role in the appearance of certain trends. Nationalism (Simeonidou-Christidou, 1996, p. 334) and patriotism (Anagnostopoulos, 2001, p. 22), for instance, were particular features of the Greek ChL mission, and, along with the triptych 'fatherland, religion, family', they played a key role in the Greek context for a number of years (Katsonis, 2008). The didactic aspect (in terms of the moral/ethical growth of a child) and the pedagogical aspect (in terms of the educational growth of a child) were dominant characteristics of the missionary role of ChL in Greece (Kallergis, 1995; Papantonakis, 2007). The entertaining role of ChL was stressed (Katsiki-Givalou, 1995) and the contribution of ChL to the spiritual growth of children (Petrovits-Androutsopoulou, 1987, 1990) was also acknowledged as key. Last but not least, Kallergis (1995) and Katsiki-Givalou (1995) pinpoint the aesthetic role of ChL in Greece. In this context, the child-reader is confronted with reality and its problems in aesthetic ways, which encourage him to express his emotions, i.e. exceptional illustrations, elegant language, humour, etc. The aim is for literature to enable the child to mature cognitively and psychologically, and prepare him not only to enter the social environment, but also take an active part in it (Petrovits-Androutsopoulou, 1987, 1990; Kallergis, 1995; Katsiki-Givalou, 1995).

1.2.1.4. Characteristics of Children's Literature in Greece

As a result of its mission, the characteristics of ChL in Greece, although resembling to a great extent the ones that are prevalent in the European and international ChL contexts (see this chapter, section 1.1.5., p. 23), do vary in certain respects. For many Greek writers, children are a special audience, characterised by innocence and lack of ideology or "non-canonical ideology" (Paraschou-Hatzidemetriou, 2003, p. 100). Due to this, some writers are at times subject to

certain limitations or subject themselves to those, such as language, register, and context, or aim to adhere to adult ideology, so that the text is accepted by the adult gate-keepers. They tend to use simple and clear language, particular topics, and show what is good or bad for the child in a didactic context. The plot of the story is a crucial aspect in ChL and so are the characters. Everything from humans, giants, dragons to witches, mermaids, and wolves, are all frequently presented with few and clear traits in ChL, rather than the complex ones encountered in AdL. For many Greek writers, a story for children has a clear plot, is educational, and can refer to the past, the present, the future, in the fantasy world or not. It may tackle children's relationships and problems of any nature. Contemporary ChL in Greece follows European and international trends, but often trails some years behind. It can be at certain times complex and provide an opportunity for children to think critically and set their own life limits (Hadzidemetriou, 1999; Paraschou-Hadzidemetriou, 2003). It is interesting to note that with nationalism and patriotism as part of the Greek 'mission' to be inscribed in ChL, there is still a feeling that children should be made to think critically. This seems contradictory, and the perceived innocence and lack of ideology of children may have influenced writers to inscribe ideology into the plot in a context of patriotism.

1.2.1.5. Final Thoughts

ChL was developed during the end of the last century and matured during the first post-war years (Sakellariou, 1987; Kallergis, 1995; Katsiki-Givalou, 1995; Vasilarakis, 1998; Hadzidemetriou, 1999; Papantonakis, 2007). Before then, only AdL, and particularly books that corresponded to the didactic views of the time were permitted to be used by children-readers (Sakellariou, 1987; Katsiki-Givalou, 1995).

The development of ChL in Greece was not similar to AdL in the sense that, contrary to the developments at the European and international levels, ChL in Greece flourished some years following the development of AdL. In the above discussion, a brief overview of the history of ChL in Greece was presented, revealing aspects of its missionary role throughout the years, and some of its more prevalent characteristics, notably the emphasis on its didactic nature. For the purposes of this study, it is important to note that the academic interest in ChL in Greece began much later than the boom of ChL outside of Greek contexts. It is, therefore, still a relatively new area of research and many features have not yet been investigated. Although it has become more popular in recent years, research has mainly focused on certain areas (i.e. the History of ChL, ChL in Education, ChL and New Technologies, etc.), and certain specific issues (the characteristics of ChL, the themes, the protagonists, etc.), thus side-stepping many others, e.g.,

children's choices of ChL, ChL in the publishing context, ChLT, etc., which remain under-researched at the time of writing this thesis. The limited research activity on ChLT in Greece and the total absence of such studies in Greek-speaking Cyprus make this study a timely contribution to the field of TS and ChLT, and address a lacuna in the current body of knowledge. Through this study, it will also be attempted to initiate research interest in ChL and ChLT in the academic context of Greek-speaking Cyprus, which is further investigated below.

1.2.2. Children's Literature in Cyprus

Greek-Cypriot ChL is the literature created and produced in the island of Cyprus by Greek-Cypriot writers⁹ who write in Standard Modern Greek (SMG) or in the Cypriot Dialect (CD) following the trends and developments of the wider Greek-speaking world of literature (Papaleontiou, 2000; Katsonis, 2003, 2008, Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). With its roots in folklore creations, Greek-Cypriot ChL was transferred orally through the generations, and years later it was transcribed in journals and books (Papaleontiou, 2000; Katsonis, 2003, 2008, Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). It is part of the Greek literary system due to religious, linguistic, historical, and social bonds (Maratheftis, 1979, 1990; Theodoulou, 1985, 1988; Papantonakis, 2007; Katsonis, 2008, etc.). In terms of the polysystem theory (see Chapter 2, section 2.1.4.1., p. 50), Greek-Cypriot ChL is a minority literature that exists on the periphery of metropolitan Greek ChL, striving to establish its place within the Greek-speaking world, as well as amongst the European and international literatures. The ideology of Greek-Cypriot ChL has always been influenced by the prevalent historical and socio-economic contexts at a local and Greek level, and by the local and Greek literary system (Theodoulou, 1985, 1988; Anagnostopoulos, 2001; Katsonis, 2003, 2008; Papantonakis, 2007; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). Although its developments mostly parallel those of the Greek, European, and international literatures, the Greek-Cypriot ChL is much slower in its development (Theodoulou, 1985, 1988; Anagnostopoulos, 2001; Katsonis, 2003, 2008; Papantonakis, 2007; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). Reasons for the delay are summarised clearly in the following statement by Panaou and Michaelides (2010)¹⁰:

Despite illiteracy, colonialism, war, identity crisis, language confusion, and marginal cultural status, Cyprus, with no land border and no easy access to other neighbouring countries besides Greece; with an official language (Standard Modern Greek) and a dialect (Cyprus Dialect) that are not widely read; with scarce publishing houses and economic, political, and cultural complexities, still

⁹ While other literature for children developed in Cyprus (e.g. Turkish-Cypriot ChL), this section pays attention specifically to literature produced by Greek-Cypriots.

¹⁰ Available at: <http://www.ibby.org/index.php?id=1053> – last accessed 11/08/2011

faces many challenges, even though exceptional children's books by gifted authors and illustrators are increasingly being published.

In what follows, a brief description of the historical progress and future potential of Greek-Cypriot ChL reveals the strength of its minority culture and the will of parties involved to constantly promote it, until it achieves the status it surely deserves at the local, European, and international levels.

1.2.2.1. An Historical Overview of Children's Literature in Cyprus

The history of Greek-Cypriot literature is divided into four periods: The Colonial Period (1894-1960); The Period of Independence (1960-1974); The Forming Period (1974-2004); and the Era of Europe (2004-today) (Maratheftis, 1979, 1990¹¹; Katsonis, 2003, 2008; Papantonakis, 2007; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). The four periods that correspond to major socio-historical and political happenings of the island are presented below:

I. The Colonial Period (1894-1960)

With roots in folklore literature (Katsonis, 2003), the first period starts in 1894, when the first text for children was published and ends on the year of the island's independence, in 1960. At that time, ChL was considered to be inferior to AdL, reflecting European and international ChL contexts (see section 1.1., p. 15). There were no publishing houses, very few writers, and well-known authors were discouraged from writing for children (Katsonis, 2008). This was a period during which various problems plagued the island's literary development. According to Panaou & Michaelides (2010)¹²: "illiteracy [that] limited the reading public, (...) economic difficulties, social and political disagreements, linguistic and cultural confusion were some of the characteristics of the era." Panaou & Michaelides go on to note that "education and literature functioned within three "languages": the purist Greek idiom, Modern Greek, and the Greek-Cypriot dialect" (ibid.). During this period, only twenty books and seventeen magazines for children are reported to have been published (Katsonis, 2008). The majority of texts were published in children's magazines, which were mainly distributed in schools, as this was the only way to reach the young readership.

¹¹ In his book *Δοκίμια για την παιδική λογοτεχνία* [Essays on Children's Literature], Maratheftis (1990) distinguishes the following periods: a) The beginning (1894-1945); b) The first steps (1945-1960); c) New horizons (1960-1974); and d) On the way to maturity (1974-today).

¹² Available at: <http://www.ibby.org/index.php?id=1053> – last accessed 11/08/2011

II. The Period of Independence (1960-1974)

Lasting fourteen years, from the end of the British colonial rule when Cyprus became an independent state (1960) until the year of the Turkish invasion of the island (1974), this second period in the history of ChL in Cyprus had several factors negatively affecting the production of ChL. This period witnessed several socio-political and economic issues, such as the establishment of a new state, unbalanced economic development, as well as political problems and instability. In this period, three printing houses existed but no actual publishers (Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). Only four ChL novels were published, as well as a few fairy tales and short stories tackling anti-colonial struggles and aspects of the history of Cyprus. Authors were acting as the editors of their own work, and at certain times as illustrators, making low budget and often less attractive illustrations too, consisting of black and white sketches (ibid.). As for the language of Greek-Cypriot ChL during those years, Standard Modern Greek (SMG) dominated and the Cypriot Dialect (CD) was marginal, and thus not used. This is a long-standing problem, especially for literature aimed at children. According to Panaou and Michaelides (2010)¹³, the marginal status of the Greek-Cypriot language and culture “within the broader Greek culture, reinforced in the creators what we could call an ‘identity anxiety’, is to some extent still felt by authors.” In addition to the identity anxiety of authors, the lack of ChL written in the dialect understood by children is likely to have affected the way in which they themselves identified with the books they read.

III. The Forming Period (1974-2004)

Called the Post War-Period, the period after the Turkish invasion in the island that resulted in the occupation of part of the island, although acknowledged as one of the darkest moments in the modern history of the island, is perhaps surprisingly the period in which ChL flourished. This was perhaps a result of the renewed wish to express the Cypriot identity through writing. Authors increased in number, with 88 Greek-Cypriot authors, and women teachers reported as the most highly inspired and motivated to write (Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). Publications multiply with 314 editions, genres cover a wide spectrum, and some folktales are published in the Greek-Cypriot Dialect (Katsonis, 2008; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). The period is also marked by the establishment of The Cyprus Board of Books for Young People (CyBBY) (1974), Children’s Literature Awards (1976), and *Ανέμη* [Anemi], the official Journal of CyBBY (1989). During this period, the IBBY Congress takes place on the island (1984), and ChL enters the Cyprus Pedagogical Academy as a module, opening new pathways for research and documentation in

¹³ Available at: <http://www.ibby.org/index.php?id=1053> – last accessed 11/08/2011

ChL. Despite these obvious and positive developments, the promotion and distribution of Greek-Cypriot ChL is still limited (Katsonis, 2008; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010).

IV. The Era of Europe (2004-today)

The fourth period of the history of Greek-Cypriot ChL is commonly acknowledged as the year that Cyprus joined the European Union (2004). This is the period when Greek-Cypriot ChL experiences its second flourishing. New writers make their debut – totaling 120 – discussing genres, topics, and written styles similar to the ones encountered in the context of the European ChL (Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). Some of them publish their works in Greece and gain awards in and out of the Greek-speaking world. Publishers increase – totaling 20 with four releasing 10-15 books per year – and so do publications. As Panaou and Michaelides (2010)¹⁴ document, “the number of books published during the past 6 years (2004-2010) is almost equivalent to the number of books published during the preceding 30 years (1974-2004)” – something that explains noteworthy publishing developments in the island in the context of ChL at that time.

However, despite these developments, various challenges still remain. Local and international market policies are absent as market placement depends on personal relationships between booksellers, publishers, and authors (Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). For the purposes of this study, a noteworthy issue is that only one book for children has been translated from Greek-Cypriot into another language¹⁵, making ChLT one of the big challenges in the Greek-Cypriot context in this contemporary period, in addition to: production, publication, dissemination, lack of contemporary themes, absence of academic background, etc. The issue of translation will be discussed in the next chapter (Chapter 2).

From the above, it can be argued that contemporary Greek-Cypriot ChL still faces various challenges. Many of these have been long standing issues (e.g., production, publication, dissemination, contemporary themes, lack of academic background, translation) and are challenges faced by most minority literatures. As with other minority literatures, exceptional literature does exist and should be supported so as to have the place it deserves in the national, European, international bookshelves, and within literary history and criticism. In terms of support, scholars underline the key role played by new technologies in the promotion and dissemination of literature (Katsonis, 2008; Gavrielidou, 2010; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010;

¹⁴ Available at: <http://www.ibby.org/index.php?id=1053> – last accessed 11/08/2011

¹⁵ In 2008, Kika Polulcheriou's novel, *Ta Μεγάλα Παπούτσια* [*The Big Shoes*], was published in Bulgarian by the Foundation for Bulgarian Literature.

etc.). They also suggest the publication of multilingual editions or the promotion of cultural exchanges between linguistic communities as a way to overcome the language issue. Translation also appears to be a way to support the promotion of Greek-Cypriot ChL and other minority literatures. Becoming one of the foci of the European Union (EU) in the context of multilingualism, translations of children's books are shown to have a key role to play in the promotion of ChL at a European and international level.

1.2.2.2. The Missionary Role of Children's Literature in Cyprus

The missionary role of Greek-Cypriot ChL, involves several aspects in a similar way to ChL at the European and international levels, as seen previously in this chapter. Each serves the trends of a distinct period. As with Greek literature, the didactic aspect (moral/ethical) was the first key feature of ChL in Cyprus, and was soon followed by the pedagogical aspect (instructional). Throughout the years, the educational role¹⁶ was present, and emphasis was placed on the need for background knowledge, sentimental, and psychokinetic development (Katsonis, 2003). The patriotic/nationalist role also featured at times, particularly in a post-colonial context, something which was in many cases linked to the "perceived moral-ethical role" (Katsonis, 2008, p. 26 and p. 34) of ChL which in turn is linked to its didactic aspect. Much later, the entertainment role, and the aesthetic one also came into play (Katsonis, 2003, 2008).

1.2.2.3. Characteristics of Children's Literature in Cyprus

From the brief historical review provided above, and the ensuing missionary role of Greek-Cypriot ChL, its unique characteristics are easily identified. According to Katsonis (2008), the same characteristics are mirrored in ChL at the international level several years prior, due to delays in the development of Greek contexts. As Katsonis highlights, some characteristics of ChL in Cyprus are the following: books for children are short in length, consist of dialogues and facts instead of descriptions, have children as protagonists, and promote an active participation on behalf of the child. Thus, the focus is on: the length of the text, plot, and content. They tend to have clear and optimistic plots where adventure is usually a key feature. As can be clearly seen, there are close parallels with the characteristics of ChL in Greece, although historic and political reasons have resulted in some differences across these two related contexts.

¹⁶ The first published book of Greek-Cypriot ChL was *Λευκάνθεμα. Ποιήσεις πρωτότυποι και παιδαγωγικά. Προς την παιδαγωγικήν μόρφωσιν της νεότητος αμφοτέρων γενεών* [White Flowers. Groundbreaking and educative poetry. For the education of youth of both generations] written by the teacher-writer Βιργινία Σ. Οικονομοπούλου [Virginia S. Economopoulou.]

1.2.2.4. Final Thoughts

From what is discussed above, it is clear that ChL in Cyprus was undervalued and under-researched for many years due to various socio-political challenges. Even when it experienced a boom, the situation did not completely mirror the situation in the Greek ChL context, nor in the European or international ones. ChL in Cyprus lagged behind developments in themes, structure, context, etc., and it took long until it found its individuality as an academic discipline. Moreover, in fields like research or translation, ChL in Cyprus still struggles to establish itself.

Cyprus is home to limited research activity in ChL. Very few doctoral theses have been produced on the island. In fact, the presentation of the first three doctoral theses took place in Nicosia, the capital of the island, during the academic event “The first 3 doctoral theses in Cyprus in Children’s Literature”, organised by the CyIBBY under the auspices of the Ministry of Education and Culture of Cyprus, in October 2011. This is an important step in terms of promoting the study of literature in Cyprus. However, there is still a lack of research and teaching activity in the public higher education arena¹⁷, and it is therefore vital for efforts to be made to systematise its study, so that the area can gain the place it deserves. In this context, this study attempts to join these efforts and be one of the first to explore translation in the context of Greek-Cypriot ChL, with a desire to also contribute more generally to existing knowledge in the study of ChL and ChLT.

1.3. Concluding Remarks

This chapter marks the beginning of the literature review of this thesis with an exploration of ChL as a scientific field that has been gaining increasing acknowledgement. Several issues that fuel ongoing discussions in academic and non-academic arenas were debated, such as the history and theory of ChL, its characteristics, its status at a national, European, and international level, etc. That the Greek and especially the Greek-Cypriot context seem to lag behind in developments, especially in terms of research in ChL, is a gap that this study hopes to address. In what follows (Chapter 2), issues in the realm of children’s literature translation (ChLT) will be discussed in an attempt to further contextualise the present study.

¹⁷ ChL has been taught and researched only in two private universities in Cyprus, the European University and Nicosia University, both based in Nicosia, the capital of the island. From the academic year 2012-2013 ChL will be offered at the Department of Education of the University of Cyprus as an undergraduate module for the first time.

Chapter 2

Children's Literature and its Translation

“Never has there been a greater demand
to be able to read books from other areas of the world (...)
children need to read the best literature other countries have to offer.
We must meet this challenge by respecting and providing the best in translations
or they will be cheated out of part of their global heritage.”

(Uobe in Hunt & Bannister Ray, 2004, p. 521)

2.0. Introductory Note

This chapter focuses on issues of concern in the study of children's literature translation (ChLT) at the national (Greek and Greek-Cypriot), European, and international levels. Attention will be paid to the origins of ChLT and the period of time when this field was much substantially under-represented in academic and non-academic (i.e. professional) translation worlds, placing this study within a wider context to demonstrate where it fits and fills a gap. Issues that have generated intense discussions in both academic and non-academic contexts will be addressed, such as: the missionary role of ChLT, the theoretical framework of ChLT, the translator's invisibility, low status, profile and royalties, translatability versus untranslatability, ideology, censorship, manipulation, and ambivalence. Moreover, the deep impact these issues have had on key actors, processes, and products in ChLT will be discussed¹⁸: the child-reader, the translator, the translated text, the translation process, the author, the publisher, etc.

2.1. Children's Literature Translation at a European and International Level

2.1.1. Discussing the Origins of Children's Literature Translation

It is widely accepted that ChLT is an area that is relatively novel within TS (Klingberg, 1986; Lathey 2006, 2010; Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998, 2006, 2009; O'Connel, 2006; Pinsent, 2006; Van Coillie & Verschueren, 2006). Though the study of ChL is now well established as an academic

¹⁸ These sections were published in the Greek electronic journal for the study of Children's Literature *Κείμενα [Texts]*. A full reference of this publication is the following: Xeni, E. (2011). Issues of Concern in the Study of Children's Literature Translation. In P. Panaou (Ed.), *Comparative Studies in Children's Literature. Κείμενα, 13*. Retrieved on December 1, 2011, from: keimena.ece.uth.gr/main/t13/Xeni_final_text_English.pdf

discipline at the European and international levels (see Chapter 1), the specific study of its translation is a much more recent and nascent scholarly endeavour. Stolt (in Lathey, 2006) observes that: “in the theoretical works in the subject [translation] one hardly finds anything relevant on this subject” (p. 1), whereas O’Connell (in Lathey, 2006) asserts that:

[c]hildren’s literature has long been the site of tremendous translation activity and so it has come as something of a surprise to me to discover recently the extent to which this area remains largely ignored by theorists, publishers and academic institutions involved in translation research and training. (p. 1)

As noted in the introductory quote above, during the turn to the reader in literary studies’ contexts in general and the focus to the child-reader in the context of ChL, the new demand for children to be able to read literature from other parts of the world (Jobe in Hunt & Bannister Ray, 2004) marked the establishment of ChLT. In the following discussion, the origins of ChLT as a sub-field are further explored, in an attempt to further contextualise this study.

Comparative approaches focusing on analysing international literature resulted in an interest in translations in the 1960s and 1970s (O’Sullivan, 2005; Lathey, 2006, 2010; Pinsent, 2006; etc.). Paul Hazard (1944) and Jella Lepman’s (1969/2002) pacifism endeavours through ChL have contributed significantly to transnational communication, exchange of ideas, and cultural understanding between national children’s literatures (cf. Panaou, 2009a, 2009b, 2011). Both scholars were passionate about the potential of books to further international understanding and world peace (Panaou, 2011). Comparative ChL gained momentum with the International Research Society for Children’s Literature (IRSCL) which was founded in 1970. The discussion of ChL in comparative contexts was extended during the 1980s, when links were made with TS and the adoption of polysystem theory, which will be analysed later on in this section.

The growing interest in comparative aspects of ChL is illustrated by a series of publications dating back to the 1990s. As noted in the *International Companion Encyclopedia of Children’s Literature*, edited by Peter Hunt & Sheila Bannister Ray (2004), a large percentage of published work derived from international sources, as for example: Perrot and Bruno (1993), Ewers, Lehnert and O’Sullivan (1994), Webb (2000), and Neubauer (2002). Well-known Comparative Literature journals such as *Poetics Today*, 13(1) (1992), *Compar(a)ison*, 2 (1995), *New Comparison*, 20 (1995), *Meta*, 48(1-2) (2003) have also taken comparative aspects of ChL into account. In line with this, renowned children’s literature journals like *Children’s Literature Association Quarterly* (ChLAQ) and

The Lion and the Unicorn (L&U) dedicated special issues to ChLT. *ChLAQ* published a special issue on “International Children’s Literature” (Winter 2003-2004, Volume 28, N. 4), and the *L&U* published special issues on “European Children’s Literature Theory” (Number 1, June 1995), “Irish Children’s Literature” (Number 3, September 1997), and “French Children’s Literature” (Number 1, January 1998), aiming at enhancing research in the field of ChL. As can be seen from the abundance of publications, the last twenty years or so have marked a new openness to publications from foreign countries.

The above has not, of course, been an extensive account of the developing momentum of comparative ChL during the current transitional period from the 20th to the 21st century. Groundbreaking research, articles, books, and conferences progressively focus on issues concerning comparative ChL, highlighting that what happens in one national literature can no longer be studied in isolation to what takes place in the rest of the world (Panaou, 2009a, 2011). In order to conduct a thorough comparative study, ChLT was presented as a means to accomplish such a goal, but had not yet gained the recognition it deserved in comparative studies, translation studies, and literary studies. In fact, it is not an exaggeration to declare that ChLT is still less acknowledged and developed than other fields, as a result of suffering from a low status for a number of years (O’Sullivan, 2005; Lathey, 2006, 2010; Pinsent, 2006; etc.). Thus, the present study is an attempt to bridge the efforts of an international community of scholars, translators, authors, children-readers, publishers, and all parties who have an interest in ChLT and wish to raise its profile across fields such as TS, comparative and literary studies, educational sciences, multicultural education and language teaching and learning, childhood studies, cultural studies, contact studies, linguistics.

Although it might be expected that the establishment of ChL as a scientific field of literary studies would automatically mean an acknowledgement of all the above mentioned interdisciplinary sub-fields, this was not the case with ChLT. Quoting Thomson-Wolgemouth (1998) in the introduction of her MA Dissertation on ChLT:

I was excited to be given the opportunity, within the context of this dissertation, to do some research into the field of children’s literature and its translation. Determined to find as much information as possible, I visited several libraries in my search for books and journals. However, I was disappointed not to find the wealth of literature I had expected. There are a few books which deal comprehensively with all the aspects of this field and, of those which do, most date back to the 1960s and 1970s. Many libraries proved to be poorly equipped, without even a stock of the basic background literature. Most publications deal

with only one, very specific sub-area, and do not relate it of the whole of children's literature; information tends to be scattered over various locations. Frequently, the literature available deals with the problem of translating for children only by way of analysing and criticising the actual renderings of texts. A theoretical grounding has not, as yet, been developed, although everyone seems to agree on the importance of establishing one. (p. viii)

There are clearly gaps that remain in terms of ChLT theory and areas for research and development. Unfortunately, the situation is even direr in the Greek-speaking academic world, as will be discussed in a following section (see section 2.2. of this chapter). What follows is an attempt to provide grounding for ChLT and how this study is informed by theories pertaining to it.

2.1.2. An Auspicious Turn to Children's Literature Translation?

In the beginning of the talk she gave as an invited speaker at the conference 'No child is an island', held in November 2005 at Roehampton Institute, Anthea Bell (in Pinsent, 2006), highlighted the recent promising interest in ChLT: "it is encouraging to see a revival of interest in foreign books for young people" (p. 53), and in her concluding remarks she stressed the following:

I am delighted to reflect that in the past three or four years, I must have translated more books for children and young people than in the two preceding decades. We would all here today like to see translated children's literature move out into public view; I do see a distinct tendency that way, and may it long continue. (Bell in Pinsent, 2006, p. 53)

Anthea Bell is not the only one to observe a nascent turn to ChLT these days. Lathey (2006), also sees a critical interest developing with increased speed over the last thirty years. The boom in TS observed in the 1990s (Snell-Hornby, 1988; Metcalf, 1995; Baker, 1998; Anderman & Rogers, 1999; etc.), and the increased interest in ChL (Fernández López, 2000), seem to pave the way for a positive development of ChLT, an area that has lagged behind for years in terms of ChL studies and its presence on the TS map.

In addition, increasing academic interest in ChLT can be seen with new initiatives such as the Marsh Prize for Children's Literature in Translation, the catalogue *Outside In* by Deborah Hallford and Edgardo Zaghini (2005), and the establishment of research centres and academic departments

in several parts of the globe¹⁹ offering courses in ChLT and research opportunities leading to MA and PhD Degrees. At the moment, several aspects of ChLT are gaining ground in terms of research interest, thus meeting the “need for multicultural research” (Fernández López in Lathey, 2006, p. 52), something which scholars have been frequently calling for. Topics of interest include: the cultural ‘other’, translation and illustrations, translation and ideology, translator’s visibility, the addressee, the publishing industry, adaptation, translation norms and strategies, translation and globalisation, translation and wordplay, translations of classics, media/screen translation, history of translation, the postcolonial context, translation and gender, translation and education.

As pointed out in the introduction to this chapter, interest in ChLT sprang from a demand to read books from other parts of the world. This demand resulted in a turn to ChLT where the focus is the child-reader. This in turn opened new pathways for TS and ChL studies. In the discussion below, the missionary role of ChLT is explored in further detail with an emphasis on its didactic/pedagogical aspects, as well as its cultural/social, psychological, cognitive and academic aspects.

2.1.3. The Missionary Role of Children’s Literature Translation and its Significance for Translation and Children’s Literature Studies

In the collections of papers they edited under the title *Children’s Literature in Translation: Challenges and Strategies*, Van Coille and Verschueren (2006) emphasise the missionary role of ChLT, i.e. what its aims/missions are in each period based on prevalent views in society, and the role of individuals who are seen as key actors in the ChLT context. The subsequent didactic/pedagogical, cultural/sociological, psychological, cognitive, and academic aspects emerging from this missionary role, are critically presented below.

2.1.3.1. The Didactic/Pedagogical Aspect

The perceived ‘mission’ of ChL being to educate is much debated in ChL and ChLT studies. Various scholars have identified this as a primarily didactic/pedagogical role (Ben-Ari, 1992; Shavit, 1996; Klingberg, 2008; Lathey, 2010). In defining this aspect, Klingberg (2008) stresses that “[d]idacticising can be defined as the intention to instruct, i.e. to teach knowledge or/and moral attitudes and behaviour. This intention is, understandably enough, an old tradition in ChL,

¹⁹ For example, the Cambridge/Homerton Research and Teaching Centre for Children’s Literature that is a joint enterprise between the Faculty of Education and Homerton College at the University of Cambridge; the National Centre for Research Children’s Literature at Roehampton University; the International forum for research in Children’s Literature (IFRCL) at Worcester University; the Centre for Children’s Books at the University of Illinois; etc.

since from the beginning it had instructional aims” (p. 15). Interestingly the educational aspect of ChL has, in some shape or form, survived through the ages. As was also underlined in the previous chapter (Chapter 1), the mission of ChL to educate does not only refer to moral/ethical aspects (didacticism) but also to other knowledge provision as long as it is proper for the child (pedagogical/instructional) (c.f. Shavit, 1986; Klingberg, 2008). Thus the educational mission of ChL in traditional terms was not a simple one by nature, but a complex one consisting of two major aims/aspects; the didactic and the pedagogical. At most cases these two aspects were taken as one, i.e. what was didactic was pedagogical too, and what was pedagogical was didactic (Klingberg, 2008). This issue is clarified nowadays and as it is related to prevalent norms discussed in this study it will be further expored in Chapter 10 (see section 10.2.2., p. 330).

In terms of pedagogical benefits, it is well accepted that the best way for a child to assimilate the world and his surroundings is through literature, both original and translated (Wells, 1986). Besides this knowledge of their envoronment, ChLT can also enhance children’s literacy skills. Frimmelova (2010) indicates that “translated books play a role in the development of a positive reading attitude and may even stimulate the more reluctant readers towards reading” (p. 28). Quoting Billings and Hoskins (in Pinsent, 2006), translated literature provides children with “rich opportunities for expanding their textual and visual vocabularies, which can enhance their reading and perception skills in general” (p. 102). There are clearly many pedagogical advantages to using ChLT, and it is therefore not surprising that this mission to educate has been a central focus for years. Indeed, it was central before postmodernity, when equal emphasis was then given to aesthetics (Coats, 2001; Falconer, 2009; Beckett, 2008, 2009, 2012; Panaou & Tsilimeni, 2011).

2.1.3.2. The Cultural/Social Aspect

Besides its instructional objectives, ChLT also serves broader cultural aims. Literature is a major carrier of cultural content and may enable the child-reader to understand the world and his surroundings (Batchelder, 1966; Wells, 1986; Metcalf, 2003; Xeni, 2006e, 2007). ChLT introduces children to segments of life in other cultures, creating “further cross-cultural understanding” (Metcalf, 2003, p. 324). Mildred L. Batchelder (1966) affirms that: “[t]o know the classic stories of a country creates a climate, an attitude for understanding the people for whom the literature is a heritage” (p. 34), highlighting that children of one country who come to know the books and stories of many countries create opportunities for international understanding (Batchelder, 1966; Metcalf, 2003; Panaou, 2009a). The translation of children’s books from other languages increases the number of truly excellent literary works available to young people and fosters an understanding of both the uniqueness and the universality of human experience. ChLT

has the ability to move throughout the world, crossing linguistic and cultural borders, making global connections, and giving new life to world literature (Bassnet, 1993; O'Sullivan, 2005; Desment in Pinsent, 2006). Speaking particularly of Britain and the United States, as the main nations producing English ChL, Pinsent (2006), asserts that:

[t]here is an increased understanding that the search for global unity and peace demands a welcome to books from other languages and cultures. Translators who can make such books equally accessible to their young monoglot English-speaking audiences as they are in their source languages should be recognised as vital in the transmission of cultural values. (p. 7)

It is interesting to note the link between translation and cultural awareness. The quote highlights the cultural/social mission of translation, the contribution of translation theory and practice as a disciplinary area, and the significant role of the translator as a key actor in the translation process.

2.1.3.3. The Psychological Aspect

As well as introducing children to segments of life in other cultures, ChL and its translation into other languages presents a world where children can fulfill their affective needs (Xeni, 2000; Lehman, 2004). This highlights a further role of ChLT: that of enhancing children's well-being. When they are able to identify with the heroes presented to them, and have the same needs that they have (e.g., the need to overcome anxieties, worries and fears, the need for humour), children, "laugh, enjoy and learn throughout reading and experiencing heroes' problematic situations with less stress and more joy, learning in such ways to face their own worries with less stress, anxiety, and fear" (Xeni, 2010, p. 157). It is significant that one of the aims of both, ChL and ChLT, is to enable the psychological development of readers. This formative and supporting role has lifelong effects on the child-reader.

2.1.3.4. The Cognitive Aspect

When discussing the cognitive aspect as a benefit of translated literature for the child-reader, Pinsent (2006) underlines that: "increased translation from sources all over the world could be an invaluable way of adding fresh perspectives from unfamiliar cultures for the immense enrichment of young readers, not only in terms of imagination but also of cognitive development" (p. 226). In cognitive terms, for children and YA it is said to be easier to absorb new information when this is presented within the structure of a story (Wells, 1986; Xeni, 2011). The child, interested in reading a translated book from another culture, attempts to make sense of it by activating

cognitive skills, such as thinking, analysing, making comparisons, etc. This is another enduring effect of reading ChL.

2.1.3.5. The Academic Aspect

Speaking of the turn to ChLT in the Spanish context, as she has witnessed it, Fernández López (in Lathey, 2006) highlights that:

[t]ranslation has meant not only the transfer of the works from those systems that have been traditionally dominant in the field of children's literature to the Spanish system, which has facilitated the revival of the field by means of new techniques and topics, but also the highlighting of ideological confrontations in studies of translator behaviour. (p. 42)

According to López, the turn to ChLT further contributed to the academic disciplines of both ChL and TS, as it was the reason for the appearance of new techniques and fresh topics. What is more, this turn to ChLT placed the study of translator's behaviour and the translator's firmly role on the research agenda.

The above points, summarising the contribution and benefits of ChLT, highlight its multifaceted role. Bamberger (in Lathey, 2006) summarises that only due to translation "children all over the world can [now] enjoy the same pleasure in reading [and] appreciate similar ideals, aims, and hopes" (p. 2). The missionary role of translation, as seen in the five aspects presented above, emphasises the importance of ChL and ChLT for children and YA's learning, cognitive development, and welfare. These aspects are therefore going to be revisited in the analysis (Chapter 9) and the discussion of the main findings (Chapter 10). Thus, it is emphasised that:

[p]icture books, animal stories, myths, fairy tales, fiction, poetry, creative drama, etc. [original or translated] become more than a cute and exciting way to amuse or teach children to read, write or behave, and a challenging, provocative, inspiring, creative, and effective preoccupation in children and young adult's daily life. (Xeni, 2010, p. 151)

This section also revealed the interdisciplinary role of TS (e.g., contributing to education, cognition, culture, psychology, etc.) and the translator as a key player in the translation process. The significant role of the translator will also be discussed in the next section, where translation theory and translation practice are further explored.

Chapter 2

2.1.4. Theoretical Framework of Children's Literature Translation

ChLT theory, being a 'young' strand of translation theory with origins in comparative studies, is not much more than four decades old. During this time, a number of theories influenced translators' approaches, strategies, and norms in ChLT, and raised a number of issues. In the discussion below, key theoretical approaches in ChLT are reviewed, particularly the theoretical contributions of Itamar Even-Zohar, Zohar Shavit, Hans Vermeer, and Katharina Reiss. These approaches were the catalysts for the emergence of the main theoretical developments in ChLT and are presented chronologically²⁰. This discussion is not intended to provide an in-depth analysis of these theories, but solely an overview to highlight their relevance for ChLT as it pertains to this study's chosen foci. These theories are relevant for the present study, as they paved the way for norm-based studies and the theoretical framework chosen.

2.1.4.1. Itamar Even-Zohar's Polysystem Theory

The turn of TS to cultural studies in the 1970s gave rise to polysystem theory. Polysystem theory was developed by Itamar Even Zohar, an Israeli cultural theorist who investigated how literature and translation function in certain contexts or systems. To Even Zohar (cf. 1971), a polysystem is an entire network of correlated networks – literary or extraliterary – and covers all major and minor literary systems within a society. Every literary polysystem consists of a number of sub-systems, that are hierarchically arranged: primary models (innovatory) and secondary models (conservative), canonised and non-canonised types of literature, or positions closer to the centre of the system or closer to the periphery (cf. Even-Zohar, 1971). These represent stronger and weaker literatures. The closer to the periphery a subsystem is, the lower its cultural status within the entire system. Literary polysystems are not isolated systems, but correlate with other cultural systems, that can be encountered in the ideological and socioeconomic structures of a society.

Translated literature as a sub-system may hold any position within the system. It can be found either in the centre, representing a significant part of a country's literature (e.g., in former colonial contexts where the literary system is not fully developed), or in the periphery, representing a less influential part. This tends to be the case in strong and powerful countries with established literary systems (Lefevere, 1992). ChL is one of the parts of the literary system and it usually maintains a peripheral position in the literary polysystem with traditionally low cultural prestige. Similarly to ChL, ChLT upholds a marginal position in the literary system, and remains in the periphery with minimal influence. It relies on norms already established by a dominant type within a particular

²⁰ This section was published in Xeni, E. (2012). Theoretical Framework of Children's Literature Translation. In S. Sinha (Ed.), *Canons of Children's Literature* (pp. 88-94). New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers and Distributors.

genre (Ben Ari, 1992). Due to this, ChLT is, according to Even-Zohar (cf. 1971), ignored and liable to manipulation, while the ChL translator is undervalued and subjected to bad working conditions. Highlighting ideological issues, Even-Zohar (1971) stresses the impact of norms on the translators' role and status. Since translators are expected to obey the rules established in the culture and society of the TT (the receiving culture), they will, consequently, have less freedom of power in the process of translation. However, according to Thomson-Wolgemuth (1998) wherever translators feel completely free to translate, they will still have their own opinions regarding the text – conscious or unconscious. This point raises the issue of ideology intervening in the translation process, a point which will be elaborated later on (see section 2.1.5.3., p. 59). Suffice to say at present that ChLT is clearly subject to specific norms some of which are ideological in nature.

2.1.4.2. Shavit

Shavit (1981) further developed polysystem theory and applied it to ChLT. Shavit's (1981, pp.172-177) key contribution to the present study is her list of five characteristics that distinguish ChLT as a subsystem namely due to its:

1. Affiliation to existing models: texts which have the form of a source text model, which does not exist in the target culture, may be changed. Such changes occur mainly by deleting elements, to adjust them to models which exist in the target culture
2. Integrality of texts: in this context translators are allowed to manipulate the fullness of source texts, in order to adapt them either to a child's level of comprehension or to moral norms
3. Level of complexity of texts: this characteristic is related to the simplification of texts, meaning that if a text consists of two or more levels – as happens in the case of ambivalence – it is simplified at a single level
4. Evaluative adaptation (ideological adaptation): in this context texts pose a didactic instrument for ideology transfer purposes
5. Stylistic norms: these norms indicate a high literary style and are important in ChL for didactic purposes as they enrich children's vocabulary.

Despite the different terms employed (e.g., adaptation, norms, ideology, etc.), which may lead to confusion, what can be said from studying these characteristics is that Shavit adequately summarised the main factors that come into play in the realm of ChLT: the text, the role of the translator, and translators' norms and strategies applied during the translation process. Shavit also

contributed to determining the relationships between ChL and literature for adults (AdL) by identifying the subsystems of canonised and non-canonised ChL and AdL. According to her findings, all ChL maintains a similar position to non-canonised AdL. With these findings, Shavit's work raised awareness of the role and status of ChL, and thus contributed to a great extent to increasing its recognition.

2.1.4.3. Vermeer, Reiss and Skopos Theory

Vermeer and Reiss (1984) are scholars whose contribution to TS theory also had a major impact on the theory of ChLT. These functionalist scholars were the first who advocated the theory of text-types and applied it to ChLT (cf. Reiss & Vermeer, 1984).

Skopos theory has significant application to ChLT. Developed by the 'functionalists' (Vermeer, Hönig, Kussmaul, Holz-Mänttär, Nord, and Reiss), skopos theory highlighted that translating and interpreting should primarily take into account the function of the source and target text (cf. Reiss, 1971; Reiss & Vermeer, 1984). Having skopos (purpose) as the most important criterion in any translation which depended on the needs and expectations of the target text (TT) readers, this group of theorists moved focus from the source text (ST), which was regarded as the "sacred original" (Hönig, 1997, p. 9), to the reader, placing the child-reader in a central position. In addition to advancing the role of the child-reader and the TT, skopos theory assigned a new role to the translator, now considered to be an "expert" (Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998, p. 105). With more freedom at hand, as he is "exempted from the obligation" (Vlachopoulos, 2010, p. 150) to reproduce the ST exactly in the target culture (TL), the translator started to acquire a higher profile and status. Finally, in the context of skopos theory, translation is regarded as "a cultural product" (Vermeer, 1994, p. 10), and the process of translation as "a culture-sensitive procedure" (ibid.), an aspect which is linked to polysystem theory and the cultural-turn (Even-Zohar, 1971).

Skopos theory marked a new era for translation theory and practice. In the context of ChLT, skopos theory introduced changes for the child-reader, the translator, the translated text, and the translation process itself. Indeed, this was a renewed focus on the target reader. The theory also raised important issues such as the status and income of the translator and ideological concerns in the context of TS. In the context of skopos theory, the translator is given relative freedom, in the sense that he is not shackled by ST norms. However, as Thomson-Wolgemuth (1998) explains, in real life a translator working under commission still has limited freedom and cannot really reject a project, due to his low status, profile, and income. In this respect, he is still subject to source culture (SC) and TC pressures. In line with this, if the translator does not act in an 'appropriate'

way, the commissioner who has the final word may interfere, thus reducing the translator's freedom.

Since its beginning, translation theory has undergone major changes as an academic discipline. A brief presentation of the main contributors or instigators of the development of the theories of ChLT hints at the relationship between theories, approaches, strategies, and norms in the field. Recent developments clearly reveal some key general changes in the field, which affected all of the sub-fields and highlighted a "methodological shift from source orientation to target orientation" (Tabbert, 2002, p. 303). According to Sas (2010) "Reiss and Vermeer did not one day wake up and decide to start a new theory based on a Greek word. On the contrary, skopos theory is the result of a development in translation studies where the focus shifted from the source text to the target culture" (p. 7).

A brief analysis of the development of key TS theories demonstrates a shift from conservative to more liberal approaches. As a result, the former focus on the status of ChLT and translation methodology shifted to settle on the power of the translator as a key player in the translation process and the target readers' interaction with the text. In addition, it was then acknowledged that translation is not a purely linguistic matter, but is affected to a great extent by social, cultural, economical, and political factors (Fornalczyk, 2007). This sea-change in thinking about translation affected all areas of activity, including ChLT.

In addition to issues of concern deriving from its multifaceted missionary role and developments in the theory, ChLT has also had to face further issues: the translator's invisibility, low status, profile, lack of royalties, and the issue of translatability. These issues are to be addressed in the next section. The concepts of ideology, censorship and manipulation, as well as ambivalence will also be discussed, as these are additional issues of concern in ChLT and of relevance to this study.

2.1.5. Issues of Concern in Children's Literature Translation²¹

Ever since the rise of ChLT, the abovementioned issues have provoked ongoing discussions. These, along with norms and strategies in TS in general and in ChLT in particular, will now be explored in an attempt to provide a framework to contextualise the present study and to focus on the theoretical approach chosen to meet the research aims.

²¹ Parts of this section were published in the Greek electronic Journal for the study of Children's Literature *Κελμενα*. A full reference of this publication is the following: Xeni, E. (2011). Issues of Concern in the Study of Children's Literature Translation. In P. Panaou, P. (Ed.), Comparative Studies in Children's Literature. *Κελμενα* (13). Sections 2.1.2.5.1.-2.1.2.5.5. were parts of an invited speech given at the Ελεύθερο Πανεπιστήμιο, Σκαλι, Aglantzia Municipality in Nicosia, Cyprus, on the 2nd of March, 2011. A full reference of this is the following: Ξενή, Ε. (2011). Μετάφραση Παιδικής Λογοτεχνίας. Διάλεξη. Ελεύθερο Πανεπιστήμιο, Σκαλι, Αγλαντζιάς, Λευκωσία, Κύπρος, 2 Μαρτίου, 2011. [Xeni, E. (2011). Children's Literature Translation. Invited Speech at the Elefthero Panepistimio at Skali, Aglantzia Municipality, Nicosia, Cyprus, 2 March, 2011].

2.1.5.1. Translator's Invisibility, Low Status, Profile and Lack of Royalties in the Context of Children's Literature Translation

The ChL translator's invisibility, low status, profile and royalties are issues of general concern for both the academic and non-academic world. These issues are co-dependent; due to his invisibility the translator has a low status and profile, and as a consequence unsatisfactory wages. This situation is not nation-bound but has been acknowledged world-wide (Lathey, 2006; Pinsent, 2006; etc.).

Pinsent (2006) underlines that "it is however clear, that translators today have a higher profile than any time in the recent past" (p. 1). Looking back at previous years, Anthea Bell (in Pinsent, 2006) recalls that children's books "have often been placed in a kind of ghetto, and when you consider the comparative reluctance of the English-speaking world to publish any translations at all, translation in itself has been in ghetto, so translated children's books have been banished to ghettos twice over" (p. 48). As a well-known translator, Bell stresses a reality that Billings and Hoskins (in Pinsent, 2006) also reveal from the perspective of the publishing and marketing of translated books. Seeking to understand the low status of ChLT, they pointed out the following:

[A] perceived lack of interest from the general public; the fact that translated books were costlier to make; the difficulty of knowing from a UK perspective whether a book will do well; the abundance of good UK illustrators; and, most important, a lack of real interest on the part of bookshops in stocking them. (p. 103)

The lack of interest in translated books seems to be widespread in the industry. Generally, translators do not seem to receive much appreciation from publishers. A typical behavioural pattern of publishers is a lack of respect and understanding of the role and nature of the translation profession. Added to this, is the publishers' unwillingness to spend money on ChLT, as they see it as a vain investment. To them translations are "a money-losing proposition" (Goldsmith in Pinsent, 2006, p. 88) which "tend[s] to be expensive, time-consuming, and unsuccessful in the marketplace" (Roxburgh, 2006, p. 48). Pullman's (2005) explanatory statement illustrates publishers' attitude towards ChLT:

But these days, more and more mainstream publishers are owned by big multi-national corporations that are interested only in profit, and in nothing else whatsoever. And it costs money to translate books, because it's a demanding intellectual activity and there aren't many people who can do it well, and publishers are reluctant to spend money on producing books that booksellers won't sell, and booksellers are reluctant to give space to books that readers don't

want, and readers don't want books they've never seen reviewed, and literary editors won't review books if the publishers don't spend much money on advertising. And it all goes round in a circle, and outside the circle is the rest of the world. (p. 23)

This vicious circle contributed to maintaining the status quo, and for many years the translator was little acknowledged, or as Lathey (2006) puts it, "belong[ed] to the great disappeared of history" (p. 209). As anonymous, "unsung heroes", or "shadowy figures" (Lathey, 2006, p. 209), translators were found nowhere in translated work, whether on the front page, preface, afterword, or elsewhere. Thomson-Wolgemouth (in Pinsent, 2006) contends that:

[r]arely were the translators of the stories given a platform to voice their opinions in Afterwords; rather it was the specialists in English language and culture, and the social historians, who provided information and critical comments on the socio-historical background of the story, on the biography of the authors and on the protagonists' motivations for their actions. (p. 228)

Not only were the translators invisible, but they were also spoken for by others, and were therefore unheard. Additionally, like authors of ChL in a period of obscurity (Lathey, 2006, 2010; Pinsent, 2006), translators had been poorly paid. Royalties were low and rates unsatisfactory. Worse than that, many translators experienced difficult working conditions, and still do (Lathey, 2010). Torstein Hoverstad, the Norwegian translator of *Harry Potter*, is a living example of a professional translator, who, speaking of his experience of being a literary translator, confesses that to him, it feels like attempting something impossible. Although he is successful, he is badly paid and remains virtually invisible (Goldstein, 2005). It is interesting, though disheartening, to see that even a translator of a very popular and lucrative book is treated so poorly.

The reasons for the undervalued nature of the translation profession mirror those that apply to ChL. ChLT was seen as inferior to AdLT for years, because as discussed earlier, it was mainly addressed to children who were regarded as a less significant minority who were to be catered for by women (and subsequently professionally relegated) writers. Moreover, as seen earlier in Chapter 1 (see section 1.1.6., p. 29), the way children's books deviate from conventional literary norms led, in many ways, to evaluation and classification problems. However, for some, this low status is perceived to be normal and even good. To some, the translator had better be invisible. As Bell (in Pinsent, 2006) puts it:

Translation is a low-profile profession, and in my view it ought to be; I adhere to the old school of invisible translation, which is not fashionable today, but I am absolutely delighted if someone says that she or he didn't realise a book was a translation at all (...) the translator's profile **should** be low; the idea is not for the translator to go on an ego trip, but for the reader to have as far as possible the same pleasure from reading a book in translation as readers of the original. (p. 48)

In other words, the focus should be on the reader and not the translator. It could be argued though, that a focus on the reader does not necessarily entail invisibility of the translator – a controversial term in TS referring to the low status of the translator in the literary scholarly world. Indeed the translator could be visible in paratexts, for example, without affecting a reader's pleasure. A breakthrough for the translator's invisibility has been the *Harry Potter* series. From Minier's (in Pinsent, 2005) point of view, the example of *Harry Potter* "now provides an exception to the general tendency of translators to remain 'invisible' " (p. 119). Translators of *Harry Potter* are generally well known in their home country, and the situation may therefore be changing in the industry, albeit slowly.

The situation was even bleaker for the professional exposure of translators in the academic world. Significant interest in ChLT has developed over the last thirty-five years, with the third symposium of the International Research Society of Children's Literature (IRSCL), in 1976, being a turning point. It was the first – and for years the only – ChL academic event dedicated to ChLT and the international exchange of children's books (Lathey, 2006). The proceedings of that symposium, co-edited by Klingberg and Ørvig (1978), along with Klingberg's (1986) publication of a study on the adaptation of children's books, were for years the only academic references in English in the field. In the symposium in question, Klingberg (1978) was asked to list possible areas of ChLT for further research, and he drafted the following:

- Statistical studies on which source languages yield translations in different target languages or countries
- Studies on economic and technical problems associated with the production of translations
- Studies of current translation practice and specific problems encountered by translators
- Studies concerning the reception and influence of translators in the target language (TL) (p. 9)

Many of the areas of research mentioned above have still not been investigated systematically. Stolt (in Lathey 2006) underlines that “in the theoretical works on the subject [translation] one hardly finds anything relevant...” (p. 1), and O’Connell (in Lathey, 2006) comments that this area “remains largely ignored by theorists, publishers and academic institutions” (p. 1). As a consequence, acknowledging the fact that ChLT had been for long a neglected area, suffering from a low profile and low prestige, a number of scholars emphasised the need for generating discussions on some of the abovementioned issues (Klingberg, 1986; Stolt in Lathey, 2006; O’Connell in Lathey, 2006). The lack of academic interest in the topic mirrors the lack of industry interest, and both have contributed to the current state of affairs.

O’Connell (in Lathey, 2006) takes a more controversial stance when trying to understand the low status of ChLT and ChL translators. As she puts it:

Academics are as guilty as anyone of contributing to this problem of poor public perception and low prestige. How many undergraduate or for that matter postgraduate programmes in Translation Studies offer students the chance to develop skills in this field in either core or optional courses? (...) If academic institutions involved in translator training were prepared to channel more resources in terms of research and teaching staff into investigations of the specific challenges of this field, it would surely make a difference, just as research into commercial and technical translation in the 1970s and 1980s enhanced the status and conditions of those engaged in that kind of work. (p. 20)

Although the scholar places the blame firmly on academics, it could be argued that they are not the only ones to blame, as there are other active players in the arena of ChLT: publishers and translators themselves, for instance. What is true, though, is that ChLT is a promising research field, with many issues remaining unresolved and under-researched.

The positive developments listed in section 2.1.2. (i.e. new conferences, publications, and initiatives on ChLT) marked a first turning point in the field. O’Sullivan’s *Comparative Children’s Literature* (2000), for example, provided an international insight into ChL, and Riitta Oittinen’s *Translating for Children* (2000) championed a child-centred approach to translation. The publication of Lathey’s ChLT Reader, *Topics in Translation: The Translation of Children’s Literature, A Reader* (2006), provided the academic world with a concrete reference work that reflects the critical interest and increased development of ChLT and the international trade of children’s books from 1976 onwards. Lathey succeeded in generating renewed interest in ChL, putting emphasis on publications – not as many in number the field deserves to have – that seriously and

critically addressed issues of ChLT, and at the same time turned our attention to the future of ChLT. With this contribution, she also highlighted again the requirements for ChLT: more studies addressing the topics Klingberg suggested in his speech back in 1976, along with appropriate tools and methodology (Klingberg, 1978). With her most recent book, *The Role of Translators in Children's Literature: Invisible Storytellers*, Lathey (2010) highlights the significance of translations and translators throughout the years. The book, as noted in the foreword, is “dedicated at furthering original research in children’s literature and culture” (Zipes in Lathey, 2010, p. xi). Thus, the purpose of the book is twofold: to “outline the chronology and impact of translators and translation on the history of children’s literature”, and to “give an account of the motivation and methodology of translators working for a child audience” (Lathey, 2010, p. 8). It thus stresses the crucial role the translator played in the translation process over time, giving him voice and power, and it focuses on translation process issues, such as the translator’s methodology, strategies, and motivation. This volume, by focusing on the translator and demonstrating him to be a visible and agentive actor in ChLT, is a testament to the progress and developments recently made in the field.

In what follows, translatability and untranslatability, ideology, censorship and manipulation, as well as ambivalence will be addressed, due to their relevance for – and impact on – ChLT.

2.1.5.2. Translatability versus Untranslatability

The issue of untranslatability is primary, as it governs all issues of concern in ChLT (Lathey, 2006; Pinsent, 2006). The complexity of ChLT makes it anything but a trouble-free matter. It is widely accepted that various “delicate matters” (Bell in Lathey 2006, p. 232), “peculiarities” (Gile in Baker, 1998, p. 45), “issues” (Munday, 2008, p. 4), and “problematic areas” (Leonardi, 2000, p. 1), or “problems” (Gerding-Salas, 2000, p. 2) can be encountered in the translation process. Firstly, the translator is preoccupied with a complex activity itself, for translation has long been described and characterised as a demanding activity. Secondly, the translator constantly has to keep in mind that the translated text is addressed to child-readers, a target group with its own idiosyncrasies (see Chapter 1, sections 1.1.2., p. 12 and 1.1.5., p. 23). Thirdly, cultural differences come frequently into play, especially in the case of an international market, leading to potential censorship issues (see section 2.1.5.4., p. 61, below) that cause limitations in terms of translation.

These issues led several scholars to question the translatability of ChL. In her article published in *Babel*, Anthea Bell (1969) speculated in her title: “Are children’s books translatable?” Ten years later, Brigit Stolt (in Lathey, 2006) in her contribution “How Emil becomes Michael: On the

translation of children's books" wondered: "An impossible task then?" (p. 69). If translation is often considered to be impossible, it seems that ChLT is felt to be doubly so.

In the next section, issues of concern in ChLT are discussed, bearing in mind this concept of translatability of ChL, which serves as the '*raison d'être*' of ChLT studies. Indeed, what nonetheless seems to motivate scholars to embark upon researching this scientific area, in the first place, is the belief that ChL is translatable. As Lindgren (in Lathey, 2006) highlights: "I believe that children have a marvellous ability to re-experience the most alien and distant things and circumstances, if a good translator is there to help them, and I believe that their imagination continues to build where the translator can go no further" (p. 69).

In what follows, issues in ChLT, such as ideology, censorship and manipulation, as well as ambivalence, are critically discussed in the context of child-centred studies and translator-centred studies.

2.1.5.3. Ideology

In the context of literary studies and TS, ChL and ChLT constitute an important "ideological instrument" (Puurtilinen, 1998, p. 526). Stolze (2003) in her article in *Meta*, "Translating for Children? – World View or Pedagogics", starts her argument with the following statement: "What I understand is what I know already" (p. 214), and commented that "the main problem in translation (...) is the translator's knowledge base and ideology as a person, that will be activated by the textual input" (ibid.). What Stolze (2003) highlights here is the translator's positionality through his ideology and principles which doubtless influence the translation process. In her conclusion, stressing once more the issue of ideology in ChLT, Stolze underlines that:

[t]ranslation is not only a question of language transfer, of easy reading and of old-fashioned or modern wording. Even ideology reflects in the formulations. Translation is a question of understanding the text and the cultural background, and of deciding about the concrete language formulations to be used that imply decisions on coherence, style and ideology. (p. 220)

The translator's ideology therefore, emerges as a new issue of concern in ChLT. Simpson (1993) defines ideology as the "taken-for-granted assumptions, beliefs, and value systems" (p. 5) shared collectively by social groups, whereas Thomson (1990, p. 56, as cited in Knowles & Malmkjær, 1996) defines it as "meaning in the service of power" and "the use of language to establish and sustain relationships of domination" (p. 43). For Halliday (1978), the language of children's

literary and non-literary texts is a very influential socialising instrument. Through language, a child learns about customs, hierarchies, and attitudes; therefore the language of literature can promote and reinforce the adoption of all of the above. Language, namely the lexical and syntactic choices the writer makes, so as to describe events, characters, and their relationships, can help create and maintain beliefs, values, and relations of power. In line with Halliday (1978), Stephens (1992) highlights that every book is inscribed with an “implicit ideology” (pp. 8-9), usually in the form of beliefs and values established in society, that is sometimes made explicit through clear statements of moral or ethical principles, but most often remains implicit, and thus perhaps more effective and more difficult to challenge. The presence of ideology in translation work cannot, therefore, be ignored. How it is thus considered in this study is discussed at a later stage.

Stephens’ (1992) statement reveals the powerful role of ChLT and of the translator himself. The translators’ decisions are bound to have a significant effect on the way children experience literature, and the language of translated texts may have some bearing on their language development and acceptance of ideas (Knowles & Malmkjær, 1996). The translator’s ideology governs his choices, decision-making processes and strategies, approach, professionalism, and self-image. At the same time ideology reflects on a chain of issues: the translator’s interaction with the source text (ST) and the author, the target text (TT), the child- and adult-reader, etc. According to Hervey (1997), the translator’s ideology affects a number of issues:

In developing a strategy for translating a given ST under given circumstances, translators invariably face a major ideological choice: should their primary task be to represent, as closely as possible, the ideology of the ST, and (in so far as this can be determined) the ideology held by the author of the ST? Or should the TT be substantially adapted to the ideological needs of the target culture, even at the cost of gross ideational distortion of the ST? Similarly, should translators, as paid professionals, serve the (implicitly or explicitly) prescribed ideology of the organisation financing publication of a TT? Or should they insist on their intellectual and moral autonomy in matters of ideology? (p. 60)

ST, TT, client, and translators’ ideologies all form an integral part of translation work. The issue of ideology in TS is closely related to translation norms and translation strategies and therefore directly influential. This is linked to the belief that the translator’s decision-making is norm-governed, which is the main focus of this study. Ideology is a key issue in the context of ChLT, and is closely related to the concept of censorship and manipulation, both of which are explored below.

2.1.5.4. Censorship and Manipulation

Issues of appropriateness, suitability, and usefulness, seen as norms of ChL (Klingberg, 1978; Shavit, 1986), are reminders that adults are very protective towards children and are much concerned with their choices in what to provide child-readers with. For them, what children should have access to is not a matter to be taken lightly. According to Thomson-Wolgemuth (1998):

Booksellers and publishers, feeling the pressure from parents, will adapt in order to sell their books; or rather, they will anticipate what it is that parents want and will censor anything that they feel would not meet with parental approval. Authors will adapt to survive in the market and write only “good” books – that is, meaning superficial, sanitised books – avoiding controversial and taboo subjects. What society wants, in the end, are good citizens who function according to society’s norms. It will therefore exercise pressure on its citizens, i.e. the people working and bringing up their children, and so the circle closes again. (p. 26)

As seen in the citation above, ChL is a strong tool in society and one which is subject to close monitoring. From Meckling’s perspective (in Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998), “whoever deals with children’s books, deals with the central ideas of the society in which these books are written, sold, and read, and he works out how prevailing trends can be expressed in texts” (p. 26). Similarly, Von Stockar (1996) articulates that “the traditional pattern is to convey the valid pedagogical, religious, social, political, ethical (...) ideas and models, and in doing so, help children to become well integrated citizens in society” (p. 26). Lathey (2006) writes that “differing cultural expectations of children readers give rise to censorship in the process of translation particularly in the representation of violence and scatological references in which children take such delight” (p. 6). These scholars are arguing the presence of specific patterns in ChLT, particularly omission, adaptation, etc. (i.e. censorship) for children’s ‘own good’. Despite society and children disagreeing on what should be included, the former get their way in an almost dictatorial way.

Also discussing censorship and manipulation in ChLT, Shavit (1986) stresses that “censorship is often justified on pedagogical grounds or resulting from children’s assumed incapability of understanding” (p. 112), and explains that due to the peripheral position of ChLT in the literary system, the translator is authorised to “manipulate the text in various ways by changing, enlarging or abridging, or by deleting or adding to it” (Shavit, 1986, p. 112). In this way he, like an author, is adapting to survive in, and conform to, the target society. Astrid Lingdren is an example of an author whose translated work was censored. As she writes, she was surprised to

find out that scenes from one of her books (*Pippi Longstocking*) were deleted, shortened, and changed, because the content was not in accordance with the ideological line of the receiving country. Commenting on this, Lindgren stresses (1969): “it has happened that I have seen a chapter completely censored from the first to the last word. (...) Sometimes, I tell myself that the editors still have to learn a lot about children” (pp. 98-99). Perhaps it is true that editors are not aware of what pleases children, but a more cynical perspective would be that they simply do not wish to take it into account.

It can be said that translators, although victims of censorship and manipulation, have often managed, or at least attempted to, maintain the aspect of pleasure and enjoyment in ChLT. Accordingly, in the context of literary TS it is assumed that “translating implies a degree of manipulation of the source text for a certain purpose” (Hermans, 1985, p. 11), and that “rewriters have to be traitors, but most of the time they do not know it and nearly all of the time they have no other choice” (Lefevere, 1992, p. 13). Therefore, whether for conscious or unconscious reasons, issues in ChLT of a didactic, moral, ethical, religious, social, political, sexual, and ideological nature, where censorship, and manipulation are applied, are a reality and a result of a given society’s attempt to preserve the educational, informative, therapeutic, intellectual, and entertaining aspects to their literature. It is, therefore, a worthwhile area of research focus for this study.

2.1.5.5. Ambivalence

Another key characteristic of ChL is its ambivalence due to its dual readership. For Rurdvin and Orlati (2006), ambivalent texts are those “written for and received by both adults and children at various textual levels of both production and reception” (p. 159). In the context of TS, this is a challenge to a translator and an issue of concern in ChLT. Metcalf (2003) contends that “[m]ore children’s books than ever before address a dual audience of children and adults, which on the other hand comes with a dual challenge for the translator, who now has to address both audiences in the translated literature” (p. 323). The translator is forced to take into account both the child-reader as a primary audience and the adult-reader as a secondary audience. Both readers’ demands and needs are to be considered, and cautious practices have to be applied, for as Frimmelova (2010) underlines that:

[c]omplete omission of ambivalent elements (deleting them, transforming, or adding explanations) can result in the loss of characteristics making the literary text unique. Adults will no longer enjoy the book when reading it aloud; it may lose its linguistic quality. To preserve multiple levels in the text, the conventional

one to be simply realised by the child reader; the other one only understandable to adults, is one of the biggest challenges for translators of children's literature. (p. 35)

Keeping two readerships 'happy' is, therefore, a key preoccupation of translators of ChLT, and will be referred to in the present study, especially in light of the norms outlined in the previous section. Ambivalence and dual readership are amongst the key issues for ChLT along with translators' invisibility, low status, profile and royalties, translatability and untranslatability, ideology, censorship and manipulation.

As previously noted, in the research arena of ChLT there is an increasing interest in process-oriented research where translators' strategies, norms, motivation, and even emotions are of interest. In Chapters 3, 4, and 6, translators' norms, strategies, and approaches will be explored as major issues in ChLT. In the following section, ChLT in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts more specifically will be reviewed, as this should shed light on some environmental and historical reasons for the use of certain norms and strategies by the translators in the present study.

2.2. Children's Literature Translation in Greece and Cyprus

In her book *Introduction to the Theory and Criticism of Children's Literature*, Kanatsouli (1997) underlines that issues of translation and adaptation of ChL in Greece have been primarily discussed in the context of theory and criticism of ChL, revealing that independent research on ChLT has not yet been done on a systematic basis. This study attempts to enrich the field by systematising issues that have hitherto remained very under-researched in Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts – the former being a context of limited research, the latter of no research at all. Focusing on the Greek context to begin with, in the following discussion, an overview of the history of ChLT in Greece is presented, from which long-standing issues of TS derive.

2.2.1. Children's Literature Translation in Greece

2.2.1.1. An Historical Overview of ChLT in Greece

According to Kanatsouli (1997) translations of literary works in Greece was done "precociously" (p. 129). In pre-Revolutionary Greece, the absence of substantial original ChL resulted in the proliferation of translated books (e.g., *Young Robinson*) that were seen as an important way to fill in the gaps in the Greek literary system. The translators were mostly Greeks in the diaspora who had an interest in the education of children (Kanatsouli, 1997). This is probably the reason why the main centres for the publication of childrens' books were found in important international

Greek communities, like the Greek community of Venice in Italy (Kanatsouli, 1997; Katsonis, 2008).

Between the end of the 18th and the beginning of the 19th century, mainly novels, encyclopaedias, and other pedagogical texts were translated. This highlights the didactic/pedagogical aspect of the mission of translation in the Greek context, with enjoyment as a second aspect. Both are equally important in the wider European and international contexts, as seen earlier in section 2.1.3., in this chapter (p. 46).

What is important to note is that works produced mainly by French and German authors were translated – something that underlines the preferences of those who were involved in ChL and ChLT in Greece at the time. The European book was dominant in Greece just before the beginning of the 19th century (Sakellariou, 1987; Kanatsouli, 1997; Papantonakis, 2003; Katsonis, 2008). Kanatsouli (1997) notes that “in a total of 900 published children’s books, 510 titles belonged to foreign authors” (p. 130). Another point of interest about the translation of books in this period is that domestication seemed to be the prevalent translation strategy. Quoting the same author: “most of them [i.e. books] do not comprise of pure translations, but rather include ‘recreated interventions’ by the translators; thus, the foreign texts have been rendered into Greek in such a manner that they “cannot but be considered as ‘Greek’” (Kanatsouli, 1997, p. 130). This is noteworthy, because the strategy may well be still relevant and active in the context of the present study.

Additionally, in the last three decades of the 19th century, an increased interest in ‘pure Greek’ books has been observed, underlining faithfulness to the ST as a prevalent norm when translating out of Greek (Gavrielidou, 2010). Thus, Greek books/source-texts are required to be faithfully translated into other languages, without the intervention of the translator, so that every national ChL volume may become an international achievement. Clearly, strategies when translating into and from Greek have been quite different over the years in terms of their aims and objectives.

Nowadays, books for children written by Greek-speaking authors are constantly translated into other languages, and ChLT in Greece is supported and funded by international organisations, such as IBBY, international prizes, book exhibitions, etc. According to E.K.E.B.I. (the National Book Centre of Greece), translated books in Greece represent two-thirds of the total number of publications (Gavrielidou, 2010). This situation is similar to the situation in Finland, Holland,

Slovenia, Taiwan, Japan, etc. (Oittinen, 2003, Marzi-Leskovar, 2003, etc.). ChLT in Greece is therefore a reasonably healthy enterprise all things considered.

2.2.1.2. Mission of ChLT in Greece

According to Gavrielidou (2010), every national literature for children consists of a significant number of imported translated literature. This plays a key role in the TC, as translating literature develops mutual relations and interaction with other cultures and ideologies. This practice is discussed extensively by Gavrielidou in the context of the need for multicultural understanding and the aims of cultural studies to investigate the interaction of cultures via imported translations; this results in the rise of scientific attention to the discipline of TS. Thus, in addition to the social, educational, and entertainment missions, the multicultural dimension of ChLT in the Greek context is vital. In this vein, ChL has the potential to enable the child-reader to be at ease with diversity and become familiar with the 'other'. For Gavrielidou, only translated literature can effectively meet multicultural aims. Translated literature can transfer an authentic picture of other cultures and make them known the TC.

For many, translations are a tradition in Greek literary culture. At its height, Greek ChL – as happened in every national literature – had welcomed imported translated literature for children (Delopoulos, 1995; Katsonis, 2008; Gavrielidou, 2010), and it was undertaken according to the prevalent translated literature rules and norms until it found its own way of expression (Meraklis, 1997). Translation, thus, played an important role in the forming of the Greek national identity, a mission that remains highly important (Gavriedilou, 2010).

2.2.1.3. Prevalent ChLT Theories, Norms and Strategies for the Translation of CSCs in the Greek Context

In the Greek context, the prevalent translation theories in the realm of ChLT are the same as in other contexts reviewed previously. The contribution of Itamar Even-Zohar's polysystem theory, Vermeer and Reiss's skopos theory, and Zohar Shavit's views on ChLT (see section 2.1.4, p. 50, in this chapter for further details) are equally acknowledged as in other parts of the world (Gavrielidou, 2010).

Speaking of the translation of culture-specific concepts (CSCs), Gavrielidou (2010) asserts that when symbols and codes, which construct a different cultural reality, cannot be understood by readers, who belong to a different cultural system, then problems arise and, in this case, we are referring to one type of translation problems. For many scholars in the context of ChLT, it is

sometimes difficult or impossible to transfer the cultural context, for various reasons, such as the child-reader's comprehension difficulties, or lack of background and experience that prevent him from interpreting aspects that belong to a culture different from his own, such as religion (Nikolajeva, 1996; Gouvanic, 2003; Gavrielidou, 2010).

According to Kanatsouli (1997) and Gavrielidou (2010), adaptations are often preferred in ChLT as the text entering the TC is considered to need to function properly and read naturally without creating questions, tiredness, and confusion to the reader. An example coming from ChLT is the case of rendering the name of Pippi Longstocking to Πίπη Φακιδομούτη [Pippi with Freckles] by applying an equivalent translation. As the phenomenon of a girl with freckles [φακίδες] in Greece is not a common phenomenon, the translator, N. Papa, adapts the name by applying the strategy of domestication, successfully rendering this uniqueness of Pippi.

What governs the translator's decision-making in ChLT, in this context, is mainly the desired structure and the norms that are widely accepted by the gate-keepers (e.g., publishing houses). However, the translator's ideology previously discussed can also play a key role in rendering CSCs (Gavrielidou, 2010) – an aspect that serves as the *raison d'être* in this norm-based study. An example from the Greek context is the translation of *Η καλύβα του Μπάρμπα Θωμά* [Uncle Tom's Cabin] by Nikos Kazantzakis, who being an atheist, deleted the frequent references to the Christian religion and the calls for the protection of God (Gavrielidou, 2010). In this case, although the religious ideology of the SC was not far removed from the TC, the individual ideology of the translator showed a conscious resistance, contrary to target expectations and norms.

What seems to be underlying a translator's choice of strategies in ChLT is either his ideology or the ideology of translation (Mizani, 2008). What is a rule here, though, is that the translator has to take into account the social norms, pedagogical views, and dominant ideologies of the TC. This is in accordance with the polysystem theory, stressing that the end product is formed by the relations that the systems develop between them at the given socio-historical moment in the literary system they belong to. In commenting on the extent to which the multicultural mission is met, Gavrielidou (2010) asserts that, by adopting unfamiliar cultural indications in ChLT and making them familiar, the result is the following: instead of importing new ideas and creating multicultural communication, which is one of its missions, ChLT becomes a medium that ensures continuity of the “traditional views” (Even-Zohar, 1978b, p. 24). Thus, the multicultural character of ChLT is often imprisoned in its educational dimensions, as it conforms to norms.

The possibility for a child-reader to see different worlds and appreciate the richness of multiculturalism is lost, something that underlines the weakness of translation to meet its multicultural mission and its communicating role, showing a lack of respect, instead of support, for other cultures (Gavrielidou, 2010, p. 10). This domesticating in and through translation work was prevalent in the Greek context.

Although the right to meet ‘the other’ is not outwardly prevented, indirectly the pathways leading to the substantial experience offered by meeting ‘the other’ decrease. The child-reader has the illusion that the borders of the world reach his own limits. This takes from the child the chance to meet the world itself and prevents him from developing a critical point of view that derives from this knowledge. This trend “to homogenise ChL” (Gavrielidou, 2010, p. 11), is promoted by the international market and tends to downplay all national aspects. According to Panaou and Michaelides (2010), an example of this trend is “Disneyfication”, i.e. the trend to distance any cultural and historical evidence or sad incident that would lead to their promotion and circulation in the international market. Equivalent to simplification and prettification, prevalent ChLT strategies (see Chapter 4) “Disneyfication” prettifies, simplifies, and adapts classic and contemporary works of ChL in ways that ensure their smooth dissemination to child readers all over the world. Instead of helping child-readers to familiarise themselves with a diversity of ideas, “Disneyfication” traps them in a monolithic way of thinking, which prevents them from viewing things in a multicultural and complex reality. Contrary to AdL, which welcomes increasing multiculturalism, as it seeks a different reality – perhaps a more attractive and exciting one – through translated literature, ChL, in order to get translated and published, becomes trapped in promoting certain cultural elements and aims to be widely accepted. Thus, the child-reader from a multicultural reality becomes a reader of a monolithic cultural model. This is a prevalent norm in ChL in Greece of writing for translation, and of adapting for perceived child-reader needs and expectations. The resulting strategies can still be observed today, for example, in the fieldwork carried out for this study.

An additional fact is that most translated books for children in Greek (and by extension Greek-Cypriot) contexts are from English (Gavrielidou, 2010; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010; etc.). Books written in Greek are less likely to enter the literature of another country, as only translations into English tend to enter the translated literature of another country. The percentage of translations into English is low generally, as English is a lingua franca and English and American ChL seem to be considered sufficient enough for the global market (Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). As a result, the situation described above is unlikely to change any time soon.

2.2.1.4. Criteria for Translating a Book into Greek

As Gavrielidou (2010) argues, there are still many books for children that have won prizes, or have become a reference point in global discussions which do not enter the Greek literary system. Instead, books that do not seem to add to the Greek literature (i.e. are of similar thematology, content, etc.) are translated – and in many cases are translated in a rush, putting speed higher up in the requirements' list than quality (Gavrielidou, 2010, p. 10). Discussing the issue of translated literature into Greek, Gavrielidou (2010) provides an example of this situation and refers to the picture book *Rosa Bianca*, written by Christophe Gallaz, illustrated by Innocenti, and published by the Swiss Edipresse-24 Heures (1985) that seems to aim to explain Nazicism to a young readership. This picture book was translated into more than eleven languages but not yet into Slavic, Hebrew, or Greek. There is clearly an absence from Greek shelves of books concerning this topic, as at the moment there are five books discussing Nazicism, but none addressed to a young readership. This book provides one example of many of the selection criteria for ChLT.

Financial reasons also come into play as a criterion of whether a book for children will be translated into Greek. This will be a long-standing issue, due to the economic crisis in Greece at the moment, with various future consequences, one of them being the potential reduction in ChLT (Panaou and Michaelides, 2010).

2.2.1.5. Final Thoughts

This section briefly reviewed the history of translation in Greece. Similarly to ChL, ChLT adheres to trends in the field more generally, i.e. ones that appeared on the European and international levels various years before. Polysystem theory, skopos theory, and Even Zohar's approaches with regards to ChLT are prevalent in Greece (Gavrielidou, 2010), and so are norms (e.g., equivalence, comprehensibility, fluency, etc.) and strategies (domestication, simplification, prettification, etc.) for translating CSC. In a similar way, the missionary role of ChLT in Greece follows trends of other contexts (i.e. didactic, entertainment, etc.), with two further missions or aims, being highlighted: forming national identities and meeting multicultural aims – whether these aims are met is a matter of systematic research. For Gavrielidou (2010), only translated literature can effectively meet multicultural aims. Translated literature can transfer an authentic picture of other cultures and make them known in any TC. In addition, the historical overview provided here for the first time (Vasiloudi, n.d.)²² may provide an additional dimension of the

²² Available at: http://www.uowm.gr/paidiki_logotexnia/sites/default/files/Vasiloudi.pdf – last accessed 11/08/2011

history of ChL itself in the Greek context, acknowledging the power of translation in the making of a past, present, and future culture.

In the following section, ChLT in Cyprus will be discussed to fully contextualise the present study. Aspects presented below can shed light on the use of certain norms and strategies by the translators of the present study, as well as approaches adopted.

2.2.2. Children's Literature Translation in Cyprus

Issues concerning the translation of Greek-Cypriot ChL were never, to our knowledge, researched before. This is what makes this study unique, as it will raise and highlight the particular issues of translation of ChL in the Greek-Cypriot context for research purposes.

As raised in Chapter 1 (section 1.2., p. 31), production, publication, dissemination, absence of contemporary themes, and lack of academic background, etc. are considered to be contemporary issues pertaining to the Greek-Cypriot ChL context. The absence of translation is another issue to add to the list with the translation of only one children's book from Greek into Bulgarian. Commenting on this issue, the Greek-Cypriot publisher, Demetris Balaouras²³ asserts that:

[the] distribution of books abroad is very difficult; even in Greece because of the big number of their local publications. The competition is huge. Cypriot books do not get translated mostly because of their appearance and they are not sold abroad because of the language barrier (...) lately we have produced great, more attractive books that we are proud of and can stand in the international world of publishing but we need help with their promotion.

The challenges faced seem to be the same in most minority literature (Gavrielidou, 2010; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). As in other minority literature, exceptional literature does exist and should be supported so its profile is raised at the national, European, and international level, and in literary history and criticism. In terms of support, scholars underline the key role that new technologies play in the promotion and dissemination of literature (Katsonis, 2008; Gavrielidou, 2010; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). They also suggest the publication of multilingual editions or the promotion of cultural exchanges between linguistic communities as a way of overcoming the language barrier.

²³ Available at: <http://www.ibby.org/index.php?id=1053> – last accessed 11/08/2011

Translation also appears to be a way to support the promotion of Greek-Cypriot ChL and other minority literatures (Panaou, 2009a; Gavrielidou, 2010; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). Becoming one of the priorities of the European Union (EU) in the context of multilingualism, translations of children's books are presented as having a key role to play in the promotion of ChL at the European and international levels. In the Greek-Cypriot context, a recent governmental decision permits the financing of translations of Greek-Cypriot books by or for foreign publishers, something that is promising for both ChL and ChLT in the Greek-Cypriot context. It is in this period of change and relatively new interest in promoting the Greek and Cypriot national literature abroad, as well as new interest in translation and TS, that the present study is situated. Some of the norms, strategies, and approaches mentioned in this section (and further discussed in Chapters 3, 4, 10 and 11) may well be products of the historical and ideological environments within which the participant-translators in this study were trained and work.

2.3. Final Remarks

In this chapter of the literature review of this thesis an overview of the study of ChL and ChLT in the European, international, and national (Greek and Greek-Cypriot) contexts was undertaken. Attention was paid to ongoing issues within the field: the origins of ChLT, its missionary role, attempts to theorise ChLT, translators' invisibility and low status and profile, translatability versus untranslatability, ideology, censorship and manipulation, as well as ambivalence.

Interestingly the work on ChL reveals that ChLT has a rich history at the European and international levels. It is not an exaggeration to say that almost all childhood heroes have gained fame through translation (Gavrielidou, 2010). As seen through section 2.1., in this chapter (p. 42), ChL and ChLT experienced a "genre evolution" (Cámara Aguilera, 2008, p. 8), as they are both fields "traditionally marked by [their] marginal position on all fronts" (*ibid.*). However, as Van Collie and Verschueren (2006) stress, although the study of ChL is now well established as a scientific field, the study of ChLT has only recently begun to be explored. Many scholars call for further investigations into ChLT (e.g., Klingberg, 1986; Pinsent, 2006; Lathey, 2006, 2010; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010), which has opened new pathways for research in TS and other related disciplines, taking into account the interdisciplinary nature of ChL.

In the summer of 2000, while drafting the concluding notes of my Master in Arts thesis on "Children's Needs for Literature and Problems Regarding their Translation", I was putting words together with a strong feeling of satisfaction and joy, being much aware that I devoted mind and

soul to study a challenging field, which constantly revealed interesting viewpoints. My instincts and limited research experience had me thinking of this scientific field as a promising direction for research that ought to be further explored in the future. About ten years later, I find myself reporting how it all started with ChLT, what has been accomplished, and what issues generate ongoing discussions in the academic and non-academic arena as ChLT struggles to get the place it deserves in the realm of sciences.

Jobe (in Hunt & Bannister Ray, 2004) foresees a current and future focus on ChLT deriving from globalisation, and the need to translate in the best possible way for children, so as to enhance “their global heritage” (p. 521). The research avenues arising from globalisation and new trends in TS research will have an impact on the research framework of ChLT. The turn of TS to process research, new technologies, and new methodologies that can effectively support the investigation of translators’ strategies and norms, behavioural patterns, decision-making, and emotions while translating, can lead to challenging research pathways and shed much light on aspects of ChLT that have not yet been thoroughly investigated. Research topics such as translators’ attitudes, behaviours, emotions, feelings, and choices as they translate ChL, or children’s attitudes, emotions, motivations, and reactions as they read translated ChL, are issues that could be studied in an attempt to advance the future stance of this scientific field.

In what follows, translators’ norms (Chapter 3) and translators’ strategies (Chapter 4) will be discussed, in an attempt to highlight their pivotal role in the process of translation. ChLT norms are explored so as to provide a theoretical framework to this study, where it is underlined that every translator’s strategy and approach is governed by norms.

Chapter 3

Chapter 3

Norms in Children's Literature Translation

“Translators [...] let their knowledge govern their behaviour.
And that knowledge is ideological. It is controlled by ideological norms.”

(Calzada Pérez, 2003, p. 7)

3.0. Introductory Note

The notion of norms in TS was introduced by Toury (1978) in his essay “The Nature and Role of Norms in Translation Studies” (Toury, 1980; and reproduced in Toury, 1995). This study accepts Hermans's statement that “...every instant of the translation process is governed by norms” (in Gentzler, 1993, p. 136), and suggests that behind every decision-making act and any strategy translators employ during the translation process there is always a particular norm or set of norms. To be more specific, in this study the underlying assumption is that when translating humour, translators employ certain strategies and adopt particular approaches based on strong translation norms that they conform to.

Being able to identify translation norms has significant implications in the field of TS research in general and translation pedagogy in particular, as it illuminates our understanding of the translation process, and, consequently, related issues such as decision-making process, best practices in terms of successful strategies and skills that are essential for translation training. Toury (as cited in Van Dijk, 1998) points out that studying “the intriguing question of how, and to what extent, the environment affects the workings of the brain, or how the cognitive is influenced by the socio-cultural, (...) surely make[s] an invaluable contribution to our understanding of translation” (p. 99). It is in this vein that this study attempts to understand how these different norms influence the translation process.

The study of norms is closely related to the scientific discipline of TS and has a role to play in both the theory and practice of translation (Gentzler, 1993). In Hermans's (2002) words, “we necessarily translate according to our concept of translation, and into our concept of translation”

(in Neimeyer & Neimeyer, 2002, p. 16). When approaching the subject of what translation actually is, Hermans (2002a) clarifies that: “[t]ranslating is not an innate skill, it has to be learned and negotiated, both cognitively and normatively” (p. 14), and demonstrating the relationship between translation and norms, he goes on to contend that:

[t]he conventions, norms and rules which govern translation also define it: they delineate and police the boundaries of what counts as translation. In that sense the expectations we bring to translation are both cognitive and normative. That could be one way of asserting the relevance of norms for translation. But there are more. (Hermans, 1999, p. 94)

In this chapter, definitions of norms along with their role and contribution to TS research and, more specifically, process-oriented TS will be reviewed in an attempt to answer the first research question and meet the first aim of this study. The types and nature of norms will be discussed, as well as ways to identify them. This chapter will then conclude with some final thoughts on norm-based studies.

3.1. The Study of Norms in Translation Studies

3.1.1. Defining the Concept of Norms

Attempts to define the concept of norms have resulted in several definitions that provide either synonyms or describe aspects of their role, nature, and function (Toury, 1995; Van Dijk, 1998; Hermans, 1999; Schäffner, 1999; Tarvi, 2006). To begin with, norms are defined as patterns of behaviour, and are connected closely with the concepts of appropriateness and correctness, i.e. what is appropriate and correct (Toury, 1995). Norms are believed to regulate expectations and are conceived to be a socio-cultural issue (Hermans, 1999). In the context of TS, particularly, norms are related to the key concept of decision-making, as they are said to determine the suitability of translation behaviours in a given culture in relation to a particular text (Baker, 1998; Hermans, 1999; Schäffner, 1999; Toury, 1999, 2000). They are, consequently, related to the concept of ideology, as they are integrally linked to individual beliefs and values (Van Dijk, 1998), and how these incline a translator. In what follows, attempts will be made to define norms in general and in the context of TS in more specific terms.

3.1.1.1. Norms in General

Tarvi (2006) provides a number of synonyms for norms which go some way towards better understanding the construct: e.g., criteria, benchmarks, patterns, yardsticks, and rules. Norms are

therefore ways of behaving in a particular society, and they constitute official standards, or levels, which organisations and individuals are expected to reach (Tarvi, 2006).

Toury (1999) defines norms as “the translation of general values or ideas shared by a group – as to what is conventionally right and wrong, adequate and inadequate – into performance instructions appropriate for and applicable to particular situations” (p. 14). According to him, all human beings have an inherent tendency toward socialising and social acceptability. Between members of every community there is a socially shared concept as to what is considered correct or appropriate behaviour. This concept exists in the form of norms, which serve consciously as a pattern of behaviour, and which control expectations. According to Schäffner (1999), norms “regulate expectations concerning both, behaviour itself and the products of this behaviour” (p. 5), and for Mukarovsky (1978) norms regulate principles. Under normal conditions, this results in people tending “to avoid behaviours which are prohibited or sanctioned as well as to adopt behaviours which are considered as being appropriate within the group they belong to” (Toury, 1999, pp. 15-19). This would imply that the individual’s freedom of action is somewhat limited, provided the individual agrees to abide by this constraint.

Norms, as defined by Toury (1999), seem to have much in common with the concept of ideology, which, in Van Dijk’s (1998) terms, is defined as “fundamental beliefs of a group and its members” (p. 7). He goes on to suggest that:

[n]orms and values organise our actions and evaluations. They basically define what is good and bad, permitted or prohibited. (...) Given the close relationship between ideologies and evaluative beliefs such as attitudes, it is not surprising that there is also a connection between ideologies and values. (Van Dijk, 1998, p. 15)

In other words, norms can be seen as enforcing ideological understandings of the concept of correctness and appropriateness, providing the framework for behaviours and decision-making. This integrates well with the overall aim of this study, which is to observe and report strategies, behaviours, and attitudes, in an attempt to identify the norms that organise and guide them. This study will attempt to prove that within the methodological framework of think-aloud studies, the translation strategies and approaches of translators, as they translate humour in ChL, can be investigated and reasoned, revealing their governing norms and personal ideology.

As stated in the beginning of this section, decision-making is a key concept in the discussion on norms. For norms exist: “only in situations which allow for alternative kinds of behaviour, involving the need to select among these, with the additional condition that selection be non-random” (Toury, 1999, p. 15). Certain norms are preferred over others, and different audiences may evaluate the same work in a different way, by preferring particular norms over others. Norms are subsequently informed by shared values in a community, and in turn, aesthetic, social, ideological, and other values are stabilised by norms (Hermans, 1999; Toury, 1999). Their existence and the wide range of situations to which they apply are the main factors ensuring the establishment and maintenance of social order, and clearly have a place in TS. In what follows, efforts are made to define norms in the TS setting.

3.1.1.2. Norms in the Context of Translation Studies

When defining the concept of norms in the context of TS, Baker (1998) asserts that norms are “regularities of translational behaviour within a specific socio-cultural situation” (p. 163), whereas Toury (in Schäffner, 1999) acknowledges that norms are what drive the strategies (p. 84). A translator’s decision-making process can therefore be said to be influenced by governing norms in any given situation.

Scholars studying translation norms (Hermans, 1999; Toury, 1999; Kruger, 2011; etc.) suggest that *norms are of a multifaceted nature* (emphasis added). As Kruger (2011) puts it, norms are linguistic or literary, but they also consist of varied domestic values, beliefs, and social representations, bearing ideological force in terms of serving the interests of certain groups. Furthermore, norms are of a social nature, as they are linked to social restrictions. Scholars studying literary translations, for instance, not only need to be aware of foreign and domestic literary traditions, but they should also be knowledgeable about sociological constraints inscribed in translations (Nord, 1991; Hermans, 1999; Schäffner, 1999; Toury, 1999, 2000).

Roussou (2003) notes that, in general, translators are guided, constrained, or helped by various norms, in order to translate in a certain fashion. The choices made by professional translators, in relation to, for example, how to translate or what to translate, are made according to personal preferences, or more often required by their employer. Apart from the reasons leading translators to make use of norms in whatever form, their mere existence reveals that the act of translation is not a simple process carried out by unsystematic actions.

Also interested in revealing the norms, values, and ideologies that contribute to better understanding specific features in translated texts, Saldanha (2005) comments in the concluding remarks of her PhD thesis that, one of the factors motivating translators' strategies is how they see their role as translators in relation to their audiences, thus identifying a governing norm.

Martin (2001), a professional translator, sees norms as a way of understanding the translator's working theory. Viewing the norms from a non-academic viewpoint, Martin notes that, norms are unwritten rules which translators see as personal, flexible, and intuitive. The interesting thing about norms, according to her, is that norms play a key role in the production of quality work, and therefore bring in more commissions, better wages, grants, prizes, and a good reputation. Noting that there is naturally "an agreement over many of these norms amongst the professional community" (ibid., p. 1), Martin argues that it is "hard to tell exactly which factors govern the individual translator's decisions in a particular situation" (ibid.). Making an effort to define norms from the point of view of the professional translator, Martin acknowledges that norms are principles obtained from communication with colleagues and employers, as well as generalisations and solutions worked out by trial and error from practical problems, which are applicable to a wide range of situations. All of this formulates the translator's experiences and knowledge and at the same time conveys his ideology:

[Translators] let their knowledge govern their behaviour. And that knowledge is ideological. It is controlled by ideological norms. If you want to become a translator, you must submit to the translator's submissive role, submit to being possessed by what ideological norms inform you. (Calzada Pérez, 2003, p. 7)

As seen above, the concepts of principles, rules, conventions, and constraints are closely related to concepts of value and ideology, all of which help to define the notion of translation norms. The view that norms underlie translation strategies is, we have seen, widely acknowledged, and therefore forms the basis of this thesis. Nonetheless, there is still some level of confusion as to what exactly constitutes norms. As Hermans (1999) puts it, "but while the literature on the subject [of norms] is substantial, there is no unanimity on terminology or on the exact distinctions as regards the cluster of concepts that includes norms, conventions, rules, constraints, and so on" (p. 80).

Hermans (1999) succeeds in making a thorough analysis of each of the terms linked to norms separately, and explains carefully the differences and similarities between them, in an attempt to

clarify terminological issues. Taking up the definition of conventions provided by David Lewis (1969), Hermans in Álvarez and Vidal (1996) notes that:

[c]onventions are regularities in behaviour which have emerged as arbitrary but effective solutions to recurrent problems of interpersonal coordination. Because they have proved effective, these solutions become the preferred course of action for individuals in a given type of situation. Conventions grow out of precedent and social habit. They do not have to be explicitly agreed, but they presuppose common knowledge and acceptance. They imply mutual expectations: the expectation of others that, in a given situation, I will adopt a certain course of action and my expectation that others expect me to do just that. (p. 29-30)

‘Conventions’ seem to appear quite akin to norms. However, interestingly, both Lewis (1969, p. 97) and Hjort (1990, p. 43) highlight that conventions are not norms, even though the distinction is not always made in the literature, and conventions are occasionally regarded as implicit norms, or ‘quasi-norms’. Lewes (in Fokkema, 1989) asserts that “conventions are regularities in action or in action and belief” (p. 4). However, Hermans in Álvarez and Vidal (1996) stresses that when conventions are successful, they can become norms:

If a convention has served its purpose sufficiently well for long enough, the expectation, on all sides, that a certain course of action will be adopted in a certain type of situation, may grow beyond a mere preference and acquire a binding character. At that point we can begin to speak of norms. (p. 30)

Norms are thus presented as “stronger” and “perspective versions of social conventions” (Hermans, 1999, p. 8), but what holds for conventions with regards to the fact that “they derive their legitimacy from shared knowledge, mutual expectation and acceptance, and the fact that, on the individual level, they are largely internalised” holds for norms as well (ibid.). This implies that hierarchically, in terms of power, norms are stronger than any convention, although they share some common features. Besides the aspect of power, certain features of norms distinguish them from conventions. In his attempt to further clarify the notions of norms, conventions, rules, and so forth, Hermans (1999) also indicates that as soon as norms become part of an individual’s routine, “they are internalised as dispositions, propensities to act in certain ways. In the actual occurrence of norm-governed behaviour, structure and act correlate” (p. 82). Hermans suggests that norms are then maintained when “external pressures are interiorised, and the individual’s practices which are adjusted to them keep the social system of norms in place” (ibid.). Therefore, it would seem that norms have a power to guide individuals’ acts – a fact that links back to the

assumption of this study that translators' behaviours and strategies are guided by norms. To add to these definitions, Hermans's (1999) attempts to define rules and goes on to say that the previous transformation and development then brings about the creation of rules. Indeed, when describing these, he contends that:

[a]s the prescriptive force of norms increases from permissive to the mandatory, they move away from conventions in relying less on mutual expectations and internalised acceptance, and more on codified rules in the form of explicit obligations and prohibitions. The term 'rule' is used here as meaning strong, institutionalised norm, often issued by an identifiable authority armed with the power to impose sanctions for non-compliance. (Hermans, 1999, p. 82)

Through this discussion and clarification of concepts, the hierarchy with regards to conventions, norms, and rules becomes clearer, leading to a comprehensible illustration of the terms below:

Figure 3.1
Hierarchy of Regulatory Actions, Behaviours, and Attitudes

Conventions/constraints < Norms < Rules < Laws

According to Figure 3.1, conventions are regulators similar to constraints, norms are stronger than conventions, and rules are stronger than norms. What comes to be the strongest in terms of power are laws (see Toury's typology of norms, section 3.1.5.2., p. 86, below). All three function as regulators of actions, behaviours, and attitudes. In the following section, further aspects of the nature of norms are discussed, so as to shed further light on the concept itself.

3.1.2. The Nature of Norms

In the realm of TS, it can be said that the nature of norms is established by their interdisciplinary nature. The fact that norms are encountered in every aspect of life and all disciplines helps to clarify easily their nature as well as their function and role in the translation process. As stated by Hermans (1999):

Fortunately theoretical reflection on the nature of norms in the context of translation and translation studies has not been lacking (see Chesterman, 1993 and 1997; Frank & Schultze, 2003; Hermans, 1991 and 1996a; Nord, 1991). It has an interdisciplinary aspect to it in that norm concepts are widely used in the social sciences, from law and ethics to social psychology and international relations. (p. 80)

Despite their importance in TS literature, norms are of a complex nature as can be seen from the attempts to define them (see section 3.1.1., above). They are socio-culturally-bound and time-specific, and aspects of interdisciplinarity, directivity, variation, and instability, also come into play, thereby influencing their nature and precise context.

As discussed above, norms are of a directive character and nature. They signal to the members of a community how everyone else expects them to behave in a given context (Chesterman, 2000), how they must behave, and how things have to be. A specific course of action amongst several other options is strongly influenced by norms because, based on the community's beliefs, this is 'proper', 'correct', or 'appropriate'. It can be said that "norms imply a degree of social and psychological pressure" (Hermans, 1999, p. 82) and are therefore quite prescriptive.

This is consistent with the notion that societies and social systems are non-value-free. Polysystem theory (see Chapter 2, section 2.1.4.1., p. 50) highlights that social systems are norm-governed. As they vary in nature, there can be norms that dominate the centre of the system, norms that are remnants of previous sets of norms and are placed alongside, and/or norms that are the rudiments of new ones, placed in the periphery. This explains why, in the context of translation, a translation can be characterised as 'trendy', 'old-fashioned', or 'progressive', based on the behavioural domain of the translator. Quoting Toury (as cited in Venuti, 2000):

One's status as a translator may of course be contemporary, especially if one fails to adjust to the changing requirements, or does so to an extent which is deemed insufficient. Thus, as changes of norms occur, formerly "progressive" translators may soon find themselves just "trendy", or on occasion as even downright "passé". (p. 205)

The previous statement indicates that norms are therefore of unstable in nature, ephemeral, and unapparent. Toury further points out that "substantial changes, in translational norms [...] quite often occur within one's life-time" (Toury as cited in Venuti, 2000, p. 204). Norms break from time to time under certain conditions. In Hermans's (1999) words, "which norms are broken by whom will depend on the occasion, on the nature and strength of the norm, and on the individual's position and motivation" (p. 82). It is interesting to note that despite their power over the translation process, translators are often in a position to break norms.

This discussion on the nature of norms highlights more specifically some of the constraints under which translators have to work. In the following section, methodologies in norm-based studies are reviewed in an attempt to identify and study translation norms.

3.1.3. Detecting and Identifying Norms

Scholars indicate that evidence of norms can be collected from numerous sources (e.g., Nord, 1991; Toury, 1995; Hermans, 1999). Translations can be a possible source to begin with. Other sources can be paratexts (i.e. prefaces, footnotes, and so forth), and metatexts (i.e. texts that are presented independently but are related to other texts), as well as translation commentaries and “statements or comments from editors, publishers, readers, and collectives such as translators’ associations or unions (their ‘codes of conduct’ make fascinating reading)” (Hermans, 1999, p. 85). Furthermore, “reviews and appraisals of translations” as well as “other reception documents” along with “theoretical and programmatic statements” (ibid.) can be added to the list. According to Nord (1991), further examples of research sources that can provide valuable data on translation norms can be encountered in “language teaching in schools” (p. 65), and Hermans (1999) adds, translation training textbooks, copyright law texts, and translation prizes. Toury (1995) suggests that the work of a translator or ‘school’ of translators is another possible source for this data (p. 105). More or less explicitly, norms can therefore be found in various places.

In the academic world, it is acknowledged that norms cannot be easily studied; their ephemeral and unapparent nature renders them as generally neither “directly observable” (Malmkjaer in Anderman & Rogers, 1999, p. 50), nor “explicitly verbalised” (ibid.). The ability to gauge from reading the text what the underlying norms are remains a matter of interpretation and inference. Methodologies that are significant for investigating and observing translation norms in terms of research and pedagogy, due to their impact in the field, are corpus-based methodologies and TAPs – the latter being the principal methodology used in the present study.

Corpus-based methodologies are acknowledged nowadays as a major paradigm informing a wide array of studies in TS (Baker, 1993, 1995, 1996; Laviosa, 1998; Kenny, 2005; Kruger, 2011). In her work on corpus linguistics and TS, Mona Baker (1993, 1995, 1996) observes that corpus-based methodology is particularly useful for discovering certain translation norms, as it allows the analysis of “sufficiently large corpora” (Baker 1993, p. 246), and thus “increases the reliability and generalisability of the findings” (ibid.). Corpora of authentic translations are introduced as a means of identifying regular instances of translation behaviour which are represented in that corpus by the translator, and, thus, for identifying translation norms (Baker, 1993, 1995, 1996; Laviosa, 1998; Kenny, 2005; Kruger, 2011).

The methodology employed in the present thesis, TAPs, has often been used to investigate the translation process (e.g., Kussmaul, 1995; Jääskeläinen, 1995, 1996; Bernardini, 1999). Indeed, TAPs involve subjects verbalising their thoughts during the translation process and are a window through which norms can be inferred. But not without caution:

[T]here is no necessary identity between norms themselves and any formulation of them in language. Verbal formulations of course reflect awareness of the existence of norms as well as of their respective significance. However, they also imply other interests, particularly a desire to control behaviour, i.e., to dictate norms rather than merely account for them. Normative formulations tend to be slanted, then, and should always be taken with a grain of salt. (Toury, as cited in Venuti, 2000, p. 200)

In addition to this caveat, however, Toury asserts that what is in fact gleaned through data such as TAPs are “not so much the norms themselves, but rather norm-governed instances of behaviour or the products of such behaviour” (ibid.). Thus, even when translation norms are supposed to be studied directly – as in the case with the use of TAPs – it is only the products which are available. This implies that norms are not directly visible, necessitating further research or methods to investigate them, in an attempt to account for translation behaviour.

In this respect, Toury (2000) identifies two major sources for a reconstruction of translational norms: textual and extra-textual. The first refers to the translated text itself. The second concerns “semi-theoretical or critical formulations” (ibid., p. 207), such as the theories of translation, statements made by translators, editors, publishers, and other individuals involved in or connected with the activity, critical appraisals of individual translations, or the activity of a translator or ‘school’ of translators, and so forth. In the present study, norms will be reconstructed from both, translators’ formulations and textual sources.

Malmkjaer (2005) in her article ‘Norms and Nature in Translation Studies’ sees the aspect of visibility of norms in contrast to Toury (2000). As she stresses: “norms are not directly observable, but they can be learnt and also studied through observation of patterns, recurrent behaviour, for example in think-aloud protocol studies, or through observation of the immediate results of translations and texts” (Malmkjaer, 2005, pp. 13-14). This point of view is in line with the research questions and aims of this study which seeks to glean data from TAPs yet augmented by other methods. For the purposes of the study, the translators’ verbalisations were triangulated with their pre- and post-experiment questionnaires and the researchers’ diary, which enabled the researcher to further explore and identify with greater surety the translators’ norms. Indeed, in the

context of TAPs, beginner, competent, and professional translators were asked to speak out loud the translation strategies they employed to translate two humorous texts for children and YA, and they were requested to justify and reason them in the hope that their norms for HT in ChL would become observable. As Malmkjaer (2005) suggests, norms are therefore indirectly observed via verbalised behaviours.

An additional aspect that should be taken into account when studying translation norms is that the nature of translation is multi-dimensional. The multiple phenomena it presents are closely linked and do not allow for easy isolation, not even for methodological purposes. Investigating norms as a task can be characterised as an attempt to establish the relations that exist between norms. This can be achievable by correlating individual findings and weighting them against each other. Apparently, “the thicker the network of relations thus established, the more justified one would be in speaking in terms of a normative structure” (cf. Jackson, 1960, pp. 149-260). In the course of this study, findings on the translation strategies, approaches, and governing norms of three groups of translators will be correlated and compared, taking into account the multidimensional nature of the issues under research.

In addition, it should be noted that a translator’s behaviour cannot be expected to be fully systematic. Consistency in translational behaviour is neither totally absent, nor is it at levels of absolute regularity (Venuti, 2000). This makes the investigation of norms a difficult task, as this study accepts that norms regulate the translator’s behaviour and are at least partially observed through that behaviour. If this behaviour is not completely regular, then the research challenge becomes more complex.

Undertaking the task to conduct norm-based studies entails risk-taking, as revealed in this section. This fact is what makes the study of norms a challenging research task, and relevant results are therefore a major contribution to the field of TS. In what follows, the contributions of norm-based studies to TS will be developed. The significant role that norms play as *a focal point for translation theory*, *a key concept in translation pedagogy*, and *a translator’s compass in action* (emphasis added) will be presented.

3.1.4. The Contribution of Norms to Translation Studies

Following an attempt to define the concept of norms and to uncover their nature and ways to study them, this section will address the following questions with regards to the contribution of norm-based studies in the arena of TS: What is the contribution of norms to the field of TS? Why

is the study of norms important for TS research? Which areas of TS benefit from the study of norms?

According to Hermans (1999), the concept of norms has become “both a key concept and a handy instrument in descriptive TS. Although it has proved its durability and usefulness, it has remained a rather more difficult and fuzzier notion than it may appear” (p. 73). However fuzzy the notion is, the idea that strategies and behavioural patterns are all governed by principles and norms is one of the underlying tenets of this thesis where HT strategies, approaches, and governing norms in the context of ChLT are presented, analysed (Chapter 9), and discussed (Chapter 10).

As noted in earlier parts of this chapter, norms are partly socio-cultural. They enable humans to regulate their lives so as to “develop a sustainable form of coexistence” (Hermans, 1999, p. 72). In particular, they can solve coordination problems amongst members of a group and help them to find solutions which can be effective.

In the context of TS, as seen in polysystem theory (see Chapter 2, section, 2.1.4.1., p. 50), “norms govern translation behaviours” (Hermans as cited in Gentzler, 1993, p. 136) and thus guide and facilitate decision-making. Numerous studies on the notion of norms (e.g., Lewes, 1969; Shavit, 1986; Fokkema, 1989; Nord, 1991; Toury, 1995; Chesterman, 1997; Hermans, 1999; Schäffner, 1999) have provided important insights into their role in TS. For Hermans (in Gentzler, 1993), “only when the researchers know the preliminary and operational norms can they see the principles that shape the subsequent text...” (p. 136); whereas, according to Lambert (1996), by focusing on norms and models, translation scholars might discover the grounds for comparison that they are seeking.

In the realm of translation pedagogy, learning to translate “involves a socialisation process: it means learning to operate – and perhaps manipulate – the norms of translation” (Hermans, 1999, p. 83). This is of a major pedagogical significance, as Hermans writes that “the translator training institute continually anticipates and reproduces – and may work to change – the dominant norms of translation, ensuring their canonisation and continuity” (ibid.). This underlines the influence of descriptive TS training and suggests that it should be a ‘must’ in translation pedagogy classes.

The contribution of norms as a vital didactic tool in the framework of translation pedagogy is further discussed by Snel-Trampus (2002). Taking Hermans’s (1999, p. 8) definitions of norms

and conventions as a starting point for her suggestion that an empirical norm-based approach should be applied to translator training, Snel Trampus (2002) argues that norms give an explanatory hypothesis, and are confirmed to be a valuable didactic tool. Norms, as well as conventions, mainly depend on shared knowledge and acceptance, and make behaviour more predictable, as they generalise from past experience and make projections referring to situations in the future. From Snel-Trampus' perspective, being aware of the social and psychological aspects of translation decisions governed by norms, may result in a positive effect on students' attitudes towards different theoretical approaches. Moreover, being better aware of the relativity and changeability of norms should affect the translators' behaviour.

The notion of norms is of equal importance to the translation profession as it is to TS theory and translation pedagogy. In fact, it will be revealed below that norms that are vital in the context of this study are presented as *a compass* (emphasis added) for the translator's choices and decision-making regulating his judgments.

Toury (2000) indicates that norms govern every level of the translator's decision-making in the translating process, from the choice of the text to translate to the very final choices of translation strategies. When applying this concept of norms to TS, Toury argues that translating involves playing a socially mediating role subject to several types of socio-cultural constraints of varying degrees. He consequently suggests that the acquisition of a set of norms for "determining the suitability of translational behaviour, and for maneuvering between all factors which may constrain it, is a precondition for becoming a translator within a cultural environment" (Toury, 2000, p. 198). Thus, as derives from the previous statement, the adoption of norms for a translator is an essential requirement for the profession.

In her research, during which she observed translators in action in their own environment while translating, Roussou (2003) revealed that, as a rule, translators follow (either consciously or unconsciously) some specific conventions, norms, or rules which guide them, constrain them, or help them to translate in a certain way. This observation is very relevant in terms of the first research question and aim of the present study, and thus, a reference to this point will be made in the presentation and analysis of the main findings of the study (see Chapter 9).

The *qualities of facilitating, assistantship, and guidance*, as norms' *good qualities* in the context of TS and the translation profession, are the most often-quoted *qualities* in the literature on this topic (emphasis added). The following example from a non-academic context is both representative

and interesting, as it is an indication of the agreement of the two worlds – the academic and non-academic – on the role of norms in TS as the translator's *compass* (emphasis added):

Keeping certain norms in mind, means that, a translator does not have to consider every conceivable possibility in his or her choice of strategies. The constraints one has to work under can be seen as help. Instead of seeking an answer randomly, in every direction, the translator's choice is directed. (Martin, 2001, p. 4)

It could be argued that the integration of norms somehow alleviates the translator's cognitive load, as it helps him to process information more or less automatically. Having seen how norms are defined, and having explored aspects of their multifaceted nature, this section discussed the role and contribution of norms in three contexts: translation theory, translation pedagogy, and the translation profession. In what follows, the different types of norms are explored as encountered in TS in general and in the arena of ChLT in particular.

3.1.5. Typology of Translation Norms

In the previous section, it was suggested that many of the procedures involved in translation occur as a result of the translator's loyalty to norms and principles that suggests a conscious awareness from the translator's point of view. Adherence to translation norms has an impact on the translator's decision-making process, giving norms much power in the context of translation. This section will study the norms that come into play in ChLT. Typologies and categories of ChLT norms in the academic (scholar) and non-academic (professional) world will be discussed in the lines below. Types of norms as seen in the work of translation scholars and professionals working in the field of literary translation will be critically reviewed below.

3.1.5.1. Jay Jackson's Typology of Norms

Considering norms as a social element, the American sociologist Jay Jackson (1960), who was one of the first to discuss norms, suggests the following distinction:

- Basic (primary) norms: norms that are more or less mandatory for all instance of a certain behaviour
- Secondary norms or tendencies: norms that may be predominant in certain parts of the group and thus common enough, but not mandatory
- Tolerated (permitted) behaviour: norms that are generally acceptable

Although not specifically applied to translation, the three types of norms Jackson (1960) describes are revealing. Based on the above distinction, the more frequently a TT phenomenon is encountered, the more likely it is to reflect a more permitted (i.e. tolerated) activity, a stronger tendency and a more obligatory norm. Put more simply, the more translation problems the translator faces, the more he struggles to find a solution, and in that decision-making process he turns to and leans on his norms to find the best solution. This links back to the influential role of norms that function as a compass for a translator in the translation process (see section 3.1.4. above).

3.1.5.2. Gideon Toury's Typology of Norms

Gideon Toury is a TS scholar whose entrance into the debate of norms marked a significant era for the field. Toury was the first scholar in TS to discuss norms in detail, and he pinpointed a number of translation 'norms' that influence translation decisions, inserting these factors in the larger framework of a comprehensive theory of translation, published in his work *In Search for a Theory of Translation* (1980). These ideas were not entirely new, but were based upon work done by late Russian formalists and grew from a decade of work by scholars at Tel Aviv University, who had undertaken the ambitious project of describing the entire *History of Literary Translation into Hebrew* (Glentzer, 1993, p. 105). Toury viewing language as a social institution, places norms between 'rules' and 'idiosyncrasies' (Toury, 1980, p. 50), indicating that their unstable nature and position in the social system is subject to change, disappearance, and appearance over time. Based on Jackson's division (1960), he distinguishes three types of norms applicable to translation: the initial norms, preliminary norms, and operational norms.

- **Initial norm**

The initial norm rules and governs the translator's general decision. As Toury suggests, between two polar alternatives regarding the translation's overall orientation, one leans towards the original text ('adequacy') and the other subscribes to usage in the receptor culture ('acceptability'). The translator's choice adheres "either to the original text, with the norms it has realised, or to the norms active in the target culture, or in that section of it which would host the end product" (Toury, 2000, p. 201). The scholar, however, disagrees with the necessity of full conventionality between an overall decision made and every single decision made in the lower-levels of the translation process, and, as a consequence, he disagrees with the existence of "absolute regularity" in translational behaviours (ibid.). This means that Toury believes that a translator's behaviour is not always influenced and affected by norms, a belief that is against what is

highlighted in the course of this study, which supports the influential role of norms for the translator's behaviour(s).

- **Preliminary norms**

Preliminary norms as defined by Toury (1980, p. 50) govern the decisions to be made with regards to translation policy and straightforwardness. Thus, decisions such as: the choice of a text to translate, the decision to work directly from the original language or from an existing translation, and to translate into a second or third, rather than one's native language, etc., are all part of preliminary norms.

- **Operational norms**

Operational norms direct the actual decisions made during the act of translation and are subdivided into matricial and textual-linguistic norms (Toury, 2000). Matricial norms determine "the text's macro-structure", thus governing "the segmentation and distribution of textual materials in the target text" (ibid., pp. 202-203). Textual-linguistic norms affect the text's micro-level, and thus govern "the selection of material to formulate the target text in, or replace the original textual and linguistic material with" (ibid.). According to Toury (2000), textual-linguistic norms are the type of norms governing the selection of material to create the target-text, or to replace its original textual and linguistic material with. They may either be general "and hence apply to translation qua translation" (Toury, 2000, p. 203), or particular/specific, in which case they would be relevant to a particular text type and/or mode of translation only.

With his typology of norms, Toury (2000) showed a keen interest in formulating laws of translation (which are stronger than norms in terms of power, and thus of importance), thus leading the scientific area of translation universals. He proposes two laws:

- The law of growing standardisation, where textual relations of the original are ignored in favour of the options offered by the TT
- The law of interference, referring to the ST linguistic features being copied in the TT. This happens understandably when the translation is from a prestigious language or culture and the target language or culture is minor

Toury's critics, though, claim that he illustrated the accounts of translation norms given by the translators who followed (or violated) them, and that he wished to conceptualise TS and control the behaviour of translation scholars (Pym, Shlesinger, & Simeoni, 2008). However, it was argued

earlier that keeping certain norms in mind can still be useful, as it means that a translator does not have to consider every conceivable possibility in his choice of strategies. Indeed, adopting a norm entails a more restricted decision-making process for the translator. The constraints one has to work under can be seen as helpful. Instead of seeking an answer randomly the translator's choice is, at least partly, directed.

3.1.5.3. Andrew Chesterman's Typology of Norms

Adding to Toury's typology, Chesterman (1997, pp. 64-70 and pp. 175-186) proposes social, ethical and technical norms, saying that "all norms exert a prescriptive pressure". Social and ethical norms govern and control social interaction in a broad sense and are, therefore, not translation specific. For instance, according to Chesterman (*ibid.*), ethical norms involve the wish to uphold the values of truth, clarity, trust, and understanding. However, he also relates these values to 'technical' norms which are in fact translation-specific. These technical norms include both product norms and process norms.

Product or expectancy norms reflect "the expectations of readers of a translation (of a given type) concerning what a translation (of this type) should be like" (Chesterman, 1997, p. 64). They determine what 'counts' as a translation, taking into account what a community will accept. As we have seen, this tends to be fairly specific to ChLT.

Process or production norms regulate the translation process. They typically have their origins in the world of professional translators, so Chesterman (1997, pp. 64-70 and pp. 175-186) also calls them professional norms. There are three such norms:

- an (ethical) accountability norm: translators should act in good faith towards all individuals concerned (original writer, commissioner, client, prospective readers, fellow translators, etc.)
- a (social) communication norm: translators should optimise communication, in line with Grice's cooperative principle and its maxims (be truthful, be clear, be relevant, etc.)
- a (textual) relation norm: a linguistic norm that deals with the relation between the ST and the TT

Process norms are particularly relevant for the present study, this being process-oriented. A typology of ChLT norms in the context of HT that derives from this study will be presented and analysed in Chapter 9 of this thesis.

3.1.5.4. Christiane Nord's Work with Norms

Christiane Nord is another key scholar whose name is linked to the study of norms. Nord (1991) discusses norms and principles but places more emphasis on conventions, which are either constitutive or regulative. Constitutive conventions stand for conventions determining what a particular culture community accepts as a translation, i.e. "what the users of translations expect from a text which is pragmatically marked as a translation" (ibid., p. 100). Regulative conventions, on the other hand, stand for "the generally accepted forms of handling certain translation problems below the text rank" (Nord, 1991, p. 100). According to Nord, both types consist of features of norms as presented above and in Toury's and Chesterman's typology. They are social-specific and regulative.

When reviewing how scholars conceptualise and distinguish norms, it seems that Chesterman and Nord go one step beyond Toury, by bringing other perspectives into the picture. They allow us to conceptualise a translation area, or a translation tradition, in terms of constitutive norms and conventions, and to think about ways of describing its boundaries, how they are kept in place or challenged, how they change internally, etc. Toury (2000) does not stress the role of the readership and their feedback in norm construction. Chesterman (1993), however, distinguishes between 'expectancy norms' (p. 8), which are the expectations of the target-readership and the client, and the 'professional norms', which explain the translators' tendency to observe these expectancy norms. This normative behaviour of showing concern for reader expectations is well integrated with the first research question of this study, as it aims to investigate the norms of translating humour in literature for children and YA. Thus, a reference to this point will be made in the analysis of the findings of the study (see Chapter 9), where links to what was discussed in this section will be made.

3.1.5.5. Theo Hermans's Work with Norms

The next major contribution to the field of norms in TS was Hermans's (1999) work, which added further features to the nature of norms. For Hermans, norms can be either weak or strong with regards to duration, and thus can be more or less long-lasting. The scholar argues that norms can be narrow or broad in terms of scope, and be positive or negative in terms of "prescriptions,

proscriptions, preferences, and permissions” (Merton, 1973, pp. 168-169 as cited in Hermans, 1999, p. 83). Clearly the concept has been shown to be multifaceted.

As seen in this section, the typology of norms is a stimulating topic in norm-based studies in general and in TS in particular. In the above discussion, categories of norms have been explored and reviewed from a presentation of key academic works, in an attempt to address the basis of the first research question and aim of this study, i.e. investigating the norms that govern the translation strategies and translation approaches of translators as they translate humour in ChLT. In what follows, attention will be paid to ChLT norms more specifically.

3.2. The Study of Norms in Children’s Literature Translation

The study of norm typology has had a significant impact on TS. As Schäffner (1998b) points out, “the debate about norms has shifted from linguistic norms to translation norms” (p. 2). Gaining its independence reification as an academic discipline in TS. Indeed, “when a more systematic study of translation began in the second half of the twentieth century, it was very much influenced by (applied) linguistics” (ibid.). Nowadays, TS is not only acknowledged as an autonomous scientific field, but it is also the case that its branches are gaining independent attention.

In this section, one of its branches that is of particular concern to this study, ChLT, will be visited. Having already critically reviewed scholarly work on translation norms in general in the previous section, typologies of ChLT norms as suggested by prominent TS scholars and professionals working in the field will be critically reviewed below.

3.2.1. The Academic World’s Typology of Norms: A Review

In the context of this study, the work of Shavit (cf. Shavit, 1986) will be regarded as representative for the literature on the study of ChLT due to its diachronic nature. In her book *Poetics of Children’s Literature*, Shavit (1986) speaks of constraints imposed on a text that enters the children’s literary system, which are the result of a thorough study of norms in ChLT. As it will be demonstrated in this section, the constraints which are linked to norms governing the translator’s mind in the process of translating are the following (cf. Shavit, 1986):

- The original text must conform to a model that already exists in the target literature
- The text must ‘agree’ with whatever the target culture deems forbidden or permitted to children

- The complexity of the text must be brought down to or adjusted to the appropriate comprehension level of the child, simplifying it in general and making it unambiguous
- The text must be didactic (that is to say, contain a moral message) and advocate a system of values or a certain ideology
- The text must be written in a style that is valued by the target culture, often with little or no regard for the original author's style

The constraints above, are all culture-dependent in nature; they are linked to polysystem theory (cf. Even Zohar, 1971; Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998; etc.) and they are in line with Klingberg's (1986) work on ChLT norms, which will be also discussed in this section. Drawing from a thorough and critical review of the literature concerning translation norms in the academic world, the following list of ChLT norms has been devised to outline the translator's decision-making:

Figure 3.2.
The Academic World's ChLT Norms

The Norms of Didacticising, Morality and Ethics
 The Norms of Appropriateness and Suitability
 The Norm of Comprehensibility (Readability/Speakability)
 The Norm of Simplicity
 The Norms of Faithfulness/Fidelity, Equivalence and Accuracy

As will be seen later in this chapter, some of these norms, recurrent in the literature on ChLT, are highlighted in the literature review as prevalent in the non-academic world as well. In the ensuing discussion, the norms that are derived from Shavit's work in ChLT (cf. Shavit, 1986), but taken up and developed by many other scholars, will be separately explored due to their relevance for the present study.

- **The Norm of Didacticising, Morality, and Ethics**

As Shavit (1986) explains, a translator should aim at "an adjustment of the text to make it appropriate and useful to the child, in accordance with what society regards (at a certain point in time) as educationally good for the child" (p. 113). Most of the time translators are criticised for inaccuracies, a lack of imagination, and inserting/adding moralising elements, which refers to the common idea of adults knowing best what children ought to read, and what they ought to get out of their reading (ibid.). This is known as the concept of 'didacticising' (Klingberg, 1978) or didacticism, and it has been a dominant characteristic in past years (see Chapter 2, section

2.1.3.1., p. 47). Moralising and didacticising represent the idea of a translation that should be moral and ethical, 'teaching' the child reader how to behave, think, act, etc. As Stolze (2003) affirms:

As translators faced with a task of writing a translation from a given text, we have to ask ourselves and decide in which way we will present that message understood. In translating for children there is also the question about pedagogics as an overall goal of text production. What kind of world view do we want to impose on children responsibly? Is it a given question of ethics whether one will simply represent a given text by a faithful translation? (p. 218)

Despite a laudable intention to be ethical, Stolze's question of 'imposing' a worldview suggests a relationship of power and an adult who takes decisions in an almost dictatorial fashion. As Shavit (1986) underlines, these norms dictate the decisions that a translator should make regarding the textual selection procedure, i.e. decisions regarding which texts or parts of texts shall be chosen for translation, in order for the texts to be acceptable for entry into the target literary system, so as to benefit the child-reader. The latter is also closely related to the norms of appropriation and suitability and will be discussed below.

As mentioned above, Shavit (1986) highlights that a prevalent social-specific ChLT norm is that the production of a text should be educational or didactic. Interestingly, the pilot study conducted for the purposes of this study revealed a tendency to tone down the subject or language of taboo topics for a young audience, thus also highlighting the presence of this ChLT norm. According to a previous study conducted by Slatter (2001), translations of children's bibles into English and French also tone down taboo subjects, such as murder, as well as words involving violence, and this is a common practice in terms of translation strategies. Issues possibly regarded as too violent and macabre, and thus harmful for the child's inner wellbeing, are either described with toned-down words, or, as mentioned earlier, are omitted altogether. Although the texts in this study do not contain translation problems such as taboo subjects, it will be interesting to investigate the translators' strategies in managing humour, a culture-bound and thus problematic area in TS.

- **The Norms of Appropriation and Suitability**

The previous norms are related to the norms of appropriation and suitability, which are also addressed by Stolze (2003, p. 214). The adult-translator is expected to apply appropriate solutions that 'teach' the child reader how to properly behave, think, and act, as the child-reader identifies with the protagonists in similar situations he is currently facing or might face in the future.

According to Shavit (1986), with so many constraints to take into account, ChLT is a complex task. Besides taking into account the limitations already discussed, in order for a text to enter successfully the children's literary system, the TT must gain the appeal of not just one audience, but two (see Chapter 2, section 2.1.5.5., p. 62) for more details with regards to the dual readership). Firstly, it is filtered by adults for its suitability and secondly – and perhaps more importantly – it has to appeal to children. Echoing Chesterman (2000), who talks about expectancy norms, Shavit (1986, p. 37) emphasises that the need to respond to the expectations of both audiences is not a simple one, because the tastes of children and adults are different and incompatible. Thus, the process can become much more complex. In terms of this study's research questions, it will be interesting to see if the translators will pay attention to this issue of ambivalence and dual audience, and how they will go about handling it in case they choose to work in the context of appropriation and suitability.

- **The Norm of Comprehensibility – Speakability/Readability**

Although several translators argue that translating for children is not that different from translating for adults (Slatyer, 2002), for a long time it was believed that the former was inferior to the latter, and that children as an audience are different from adults in terms of reading, listening to, and understanding a text. This can be understood as the norm of comprehensibility, which consists of the issues of speakability and readability. It was believed that due to the child's limited comprehension abilities in the context of ChLT, several adjustments in language, style, context, and structure had to be applied for a text to be readable or speakable for the child-reader, or for the adult-reader to choose it.

As Shavit (1986) explains, a translator should aim at “an adjustment of the plot, characterisation, and language to prevailing society's perceptions of the child's ability to read and comprehend” (p. 113). Shavit highlights that the second principle of adjusting the text to the child's level of comprehension was more prevalent in the 1980s, whereas the first principle became more dominant when the acceptance of the concept of didacticism in ChL prevailed.

- **The Norm of Simplification**

Closely related to the previous norm, the norm of simplification versus complexity (Shavit, 1986, p. 125) addresses the issue of “simplistic language” or “simplified language” (Stolze 2003, p. 209), or language of a “lower register” (Cámara Aguilera, 2008, p. 5). It can even relate to simplicity in

theme, style, context, and structure, as stated before (e.g., Chapter 1, section 1.2.2.3., p. 40). Shavit's (1986) statement below outlines the context of simplification in ChLT:

In contrast to adult canonised literature, in which the norms of complexity is the most prevalent today, the norms of simple and simplified models is still a prominent in most children's literature (canonised non canonised), as it is also the case with the non-canonised adult system. This norm rooted in the self-image of children's literature, tends to determine not only the thematics and characterisation of the text, but also its options concerning permissible structures. (p. 125)

It could be argued that this simplification, therefore, results in a more uniform and bland text, which might resemble any other ChLT text. Referring to simplification, Bordet (as cited in Fernández López, 2000), recalls that in cases where for commercial reasons, what was intended to be literature for adults only, is then also addressed to child-readers, then a less sophisticated text or a simpler text should be created. As she notes:

A common phenomenon in children's literature translation, that of super-explicit textual amplification (which can be considered part of the normal use of simplified models), is found extensively in the French translations of Blyton's work. The use of textual models that are less sophisticated than the originals is due to an attempt by the editors to target markets younger than those for whom the originals were written. (p. 30)

However, a loss of sophistication and complexity might be considered detrimental to the child. Indeed, exposure to complexity could be said to aid a child's intellectual development. The norm of simplification is, nevertheless, in line with the norm of comprehensibility discussed above, and it implies that children's texts should be simplified at all levels, so that children, a group of limited ability, experience, and comprehensibility, can understand it. This norm takes us back to the concepts of childhood through the years (see Chapter 1) and recalls the years when ChL and ChLT were undervalued and considered inferior to AdL, because inferior was a child-reader in comparison to the adult-reader in terms of receptive, reading, and comprehension skills.

- **The Norms of Faithfulness/Fidelity, Equivalence, and Accuracy**

The issue of faithfulness has been long-standing in TS ever since its dawn as a scientific discipline (Lathey, 2006). In line with the above, the norm of faithfulness is one of the prevalent ones in norm typology in the context of ChLT. Stolt (in Lathey, 2006, p. 7) names certain sources that, she feels, may affect the faithfulness of the translator to the original text: educational intentions

and the pre-conceived opinion of adults about what children value, understand and want to read. The last source links back to the issue of underestimating the child-reader, and the childish attitude, that results in a sentimentalisation or prettification of matter-of-fact texts (see Chapter 1, section 1.1.6., p. 26 and Chapter 4, section 4.1.4.4., p. 124, for a clarification of these strategies).

As seen from Stolt's statements (in Lathey, 2006) pedagogical issues occupy the most prominent position in the sources affecting the tradition of faithfulness, accuracy, and equivalent impact. The norm of faithfulness is also discussed by Fernández López, who underlines that "in the translation of children's literature, the Spanish norm of fidelity to the original text, is only displaced by other norms of greater force, such as the primacy of pedagogic and didactic considerations" (in Lathey, 2006, p. 49). With this statement, Fernández López stresses the issue of power in the context of norms and although the norm in question is strong in the context of ChLT – and that was always the case for faithfulness in TS – the norm of didacticising is much stronger and powerful, because the idea is that the child-reader needs to be educated for what is appropriate and useful to him.

Many scholars have been presented as committed adherents to the norm of faithfulness/fidelity, equivalence, and accuracy. Jirí Levý (1967) believed that the problem of faithfulness was closely related to the concept of equivalence and was "the cardinal problem in theory and practice of TS" (p. 84). Free translations, modifications, and changes seemed to be out of the picture for many. Stolt (in Lathey, 2006) criticises the taking of liberties with the original text as a behaviour that is totally against fidelity and an "unhealthy tradition" (p. 70) for ChLT. Quoting Stolt:

Without any scruples, cuts, additions and changes were made, the style was altered and the book [*Robinson Crusoe*] re-edited in accordance with the aims of the particular publisher in question. These were primarily didactic in nature and merely set a different accent according to whether the person responsible was most concerned with moral, religious or educational intentions. One looks in vain here for the concept of faithfulness and consideration for the author's copyright. (in Lathey, 2006, p. 70)

This issue of the author's copyright or ownership of the text is interesting here, in terms of what this means for translation. Indeed, it could be argued that the translator is (re)creating a text in translation and thus might have some right to effect changes to that text. As Stolt goes on criticising the "unhealthy tradition" (in Lathey, 2006, p. 70) such translation behaviours result in, she offers some representative examples from *Robinson Crusoe* again:

I do not need to go into greater detail here as regards the adaptation of the Robinson Crusoe text. It is well known that not only the length of the book varied greatly but the main character was now from Britain, now from Hamburg; the domestic animals now llamas, now goats; the narrative now in the first, now in the third person, even Friday's father was sometimes given a name, once being called Thursday, once Sunday. (in Lathey, 2006, p. 70)

Clearly, the scholar is not pleased with those extreme alternations in translation and would have preferred a more subtle translation approach. Similarly to Stolt, Grimm (in Lathey, 2006) defends faithfulness with a metaphor of the translator and the sailor, comparing the two. Quoting Grimm,

The latter [sailor, i.e. translator] mans a ship, directs it with full sails to the opposing shore, but then has to land 'where there is different earth and where different air plays.' It is this different earth and the alien air that constitute the problem on which the greater part of the debate turns and which gave rise to the above mentioned puns: the problem of faithfulness to the original. (in Lathey, 2006, p. 67)

Following a thorough review of relevant literature, didacticising, morality and ethics, appropriateness and suitability, comprehensibility, simplicity and faithfulness, accuracy, fidelity, and equivalence were listed as prevalent ChLT norms from the perspective of the academic world. This list will guide the analysis of the data collected (see Chapter 9), as it will be useful to model norms governing the strategies of the participants in the study.

In what follows, non-academic norms in ChLT will be presented and discussed after reviewing relevant literature. A reference to these norms will be made in the analysis of the data collected (Chapter 9), as it will be interesting to compare them with the norms governing the decision-making of the third focus group (professionals) while translating humour in ChL.

3.2.2. The Non-Academic World's Typology of Norms: A Review of the Norms of Professional Translators

In the review of the literature for the purposes of this study, Oittinen's (1993), Martin's (2001), and Desmidt's (2006) typologies of norms were found to be thorough, systematic, and diachronic. These are the main reasons for which the work of these professional translators has influenced this study greatly and are thus regarded hereby as representative for the non-academic world.

To begin with, Martin (2001) identifies six translation norms that come into play in the problem-solving process influencing the translator's mind during the ChLT process:

- The norm of understanding
- The norm of faithfulness and loyalty (accuracy/exactness and reliability)
- The norm of TL quality (readability and speakability)
- The norm of rhythm
- The norm of quotability
- The norm of harmony between translation and illustration

At first glance, Martin's list seems to share similar norms with the list of the academic world. This view will be discussed below while Martin's norms are explored.

• **The Norm of Understanding**

From Martin's (2001) perspective, understanding refers to the translator's ability to develop a professional way of reading the text, in order to analyse it in as much detail and depth as possible. For a translator, understanding – or at least not misunderstanding – is vital, and counts as a priority. At the same time, understanding refers to the child-reader's literacy skills, so as to manage language, theme, content, and plot.

• **The Norm of Faithfulness and Loyalty**

The semantic content of the text as well as its form and style, accuracy and reliability, are of equal importance in Martin's (ibid.) opinion. This refers to looking for expressions of the same register and frequency, and avoiding anachronisms and idiosyncrasies. As Martin (2001) stresses: "for me, and as far as I understand, to the translator community at large, it is entirely natural to aim at exactness (...)" (p. 1). And he goes on to say that:

[I]oyalty to the ST author, to the source culture, to the ST itself, to the receiving community and the target culture, to the quality of the TL, to the translator's self [is important]. All of these are important, and I would not say that being more loyal to readers, means there is a need to be less so to the author. There is no *less*: there is only *more*. Keeping all the strands together to produce a satisfying piece of work is the translator's right and duty. It does mean that translation is a demanding job, perhaps more so than in earlier times, but remembering the various loyalties can be a help, not an encumbrance. (Martin, 2001, p. 1)

It is noteworthy that the issue of faithfulness has developed to go beyond loyalty to the ST and now encompasses a number of stakeholders whose needs require careful consideration. This norm, presented as prevalent in the professionals' eyes, seems to be of similar significance to the

academic world, where norms of faithfulness/fidelity, equivalence and accuracy share the same fate, as they are considered highly important in the field of ChLT (Lathey, 2006).

- **The Norm of TL Quality**

Quality, the way Martin (2001) discusses it, is the translator's need to be a good writer so as to facilitate and enhance children's readability. This involves issues such as the use of language resources and the excellence of language (naturalness, proper register, correct grammar, carefulness with the tone, etc.). Along with language quality, naturalness, and flow, clarity is also at stake. This norm can be said to share similar features with the academic-world norm of comprehensibility, where emphasis is placed on making sure that the translation reads naturally in order for children to be able to comprehend the text. Secondly, it is related to the norms of appropriation and suitability, in terms of providing a translation with appropriate language choices.

- **The Norm of Rhythm**

According to Martin (2001), rhythm is an element that some translators consider the most important of all in ChLT. Achieving naturalness in the rhythm of the TL should be the translator's aim. For that, a translator can either preserve the ST rhythms or produce effective TT ones. Although this specific norm is not found in the list drawn from the academic literature, it can be said that it could be incorporated in the professional translators' norm of faithfulness and loyalty discussed above, and thus be linked to the academic norms of faithfulness, accuracy, fidelity, and equivalence.

- **The Norm of Quotability**

By quotability, it is meant that any ST can be found to be represented by a TT resembling it in as many ways as possible, so that the translated text can be used with the same function as the original (Martin, 2001). Linking this to Shavit's discussion on dual readership, it can be said that the norm of quotability makes sure that a book '*passes the exam*' (emphasis added) in the AdL system, since it resembles an already existing one that has been already approved by that system.

Providing an example, Martin illustrates that, in ChLT, the problem of translating allusions and quotations is a problem the editor encounters more often than the individual translator. There is a generally accepted norm that if a quoted text already exists in translation, this translation should be used, or at least sought out and considered. It can be said that his norm could be linked to

equivalence, as it refers to issues of resemblance. Thus, it can be encompassed in the professional translators' norm of faithfulness and loyalty, as suggested above by Martin (2001), and thus be related with the academic norms of faithfulness, accuracy, fidelity, and equivalence.

- **The Norm of Harmony Between Translation and Illustration**

As Martin (2001) contends, translation and illustration must have a harmonic relation. Riitta Oittinen (cf. 1993) has written much on the effect of illustration on translation in the context of ChL. Being an element of the original that can and does change in translation, illustration forces the text to accommodate. In children's picture books, it is important to keep the text and illustrations in harmony, as child-readers easily note discrepancies. To Martin (2001), even when a book is not illustrated, there may be relevant pictorial material to consider. Similarly to the norm of rhythm above, this norm could be encompassed in the professional translators' norm of faithfulness and loyalty, as presented above, and thus be related to the academic norms of faithfulness, accuracy, fidelity, and equivalence.

In sum, Martin's (2001) typology of norms – which this study takes as representative of the non-academic world – demonstrates that the first three norms (understanding, faithfulness, TL quality) cover a wide range of translation issues at various levels. As indicated above, these are norms which can be encountered in both the academic and non-academic contexts. The remaining norms (rhythm, quotability, harmony of translation, and illustration) could be incorporated in the already existing norm of faithfulness, as they can all be seen as aspects of accuracy and equivalence, and thus be linked to the academic norms of faithfulness, accuracy, fidelity, and equivalence. Thus, Martin's (2001) typology of ChLT norms can be schematically represented as follows:

Figure 3.3.
Martin's Typology of ChLT Norms

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. The Norm of Understanding2. The Norm of Faithfulness and Loyalty (Accuracy/Exactness and Reliability)3. The Norm of TL Quality (Readability, Speakability) |
|---|

Along with Martin's (2001) list of ChLT norms, Desmidt's (2006) contribution to professional ChLT norms also needs to be acknowledged. Certain norms Desmidt suggests (in Van Coillie & Verschueren, 2006) add to the list of ChLT norms for the non-academic world. Acknowledging the specificity of ChLT, Desmidt (2006, p. 86) describes two basic types of norms: general

translation norms and norms specific for ChL. For Desmidt, general translation norms are further divided into source text oriented norms (i.e. adherence to the original text and author, norm of adequacy), literary norms (i.e. norm of acceptability, aesthetic translation), and business norms (i.e. commercial nature of the editing, publishing, and distribution process). The norms which are specific for ChL have three further sub-categories: didactic norms that are focused on the intellectual and emotional development of the child and setting good examples, pedagogical norms that require the adjustment to the language skills and the conceptual knowledge of the child, and technical norms that refer to decision-making concerning illustrations, layouts, etc. Desmidt's (2006) typology of translation norms is shown schematically below:

Table 3.1.
Desmidt's Typology of ChLT Norms

General Norms			Norms Specific for Children's Literature		
source text oriented norms	literary norms	business norms	didactic norms	pedagogical norms	technical norms
norms of equivalency, adherence to the original text, adequacy	norms concerning the aesthetic aspect, acceptability	norms of a commercial nature, editing, publishing, distribution	norms focused on the intellectual and emotional development of the child, setting good examples	norms that concern adjustments of language and the conceptual knowledge of the child	norms that refer to design-making, illustrations, layouts, etc.

This is a very clear and organised view of norms, both general ones and those specific to ChLT. If one looks closely at Desmidt's list, it can be observed that Martin's list can be incorporated smoothly into this, as the norms of faithfulness and TL quality can be included with the source text norms and pedagogical norms respectively. The norm of understanding, which is absent here, can also be merged with the pedagogical norms, as adjustments are made for the child to be able to understand knowledge and information better. Thus, the attempt to merge the lists of ChLT norms of the non-academic world results into the following list:

Table 3.2.
Non-Academic ChLT Norms

General Norms			Norms Specific for Children's Literature		
source text oriented norms	literary norms	business norms	didactic norms	pedagogical norms	technical norms
norms of equivalency, adherence to the original text, adequacy	norms concerning the aesthetic aspect, acceptability	norms of a commercial nature, editing, publishing, distribution	norms focused on the intellectual and emotional development of the child, setting good examples	norms that concern adjustments of language and the conceptual knowledge of the child (readability/speakability) norm of understanding	norms that refer to design-making, illustrations, layouts, etc.

The above list is a combination of Oittinen's (1996), Martin's (2001), and – mainly – Desmidt's (2006) ChLT norms, all professional translators, who have been exceptionally influential throughout this study, for reasons explained in the beginning of this section (p. 110). It should be underlined, that the suggested list incorporates not only the specific norms for ChLT that Desmidt (2006) proposes, but also her general norms, as it is believed that, in the context of this study, these norms offer a wider range of ChLT norms for the professional translators. Thus, this list will be conceived as the most systematic list of professional translators' ChLT norms. A reference to this list will be made below, when attempting to provide a list of prevalent ChLT norms for both academic and non-academic contexts. In the presentation and analysis of the findings of the study, a link back to Desmidt's list will be made (see Chapter 9).

3.2.3. Norms Governing Process-Oriented Translation Strategies in the Context of Children's Literature Translation

From what is presented in this section, it seems that both arenas of practice – the academic and non-academic – address the issue of norms in the process of ChLT in fairly similar ways. In fact, because Table 3.2. includes both general and specific norms, it constitutes an attempt to merge academic/non-academic norms so as to provide a general list of norms concerning both 'worlds'; its design and content is mainly inspired by Desmidt's (2006) proposal (see Table 3.1. above). It can be seen that these ChLT norms refer to the ST, the TT, the child-reader, the adult-reader, the translator, the publisher, etc. What is interesting to observe is that old and long-standing concepts and aspects in TS (e.g., didactic, pedagogical), and norms in TS in general and ChLT in particular (fidelity, equivalency, faithfulness, accuracy, appropriateness, readability, speakability, acceptability, etc.) co-exist harmoniously with newer ones (i.e. aesthetic, business, technical), providing a concrete list of ChLT norms, which still has the potential to expand in future. The model is of great importance for the purposes of this study. The fact that older concepts and norms can still be encountered as prevalent in the ChLT context reveals their diachronic, multiple, and fluid nature, developing this area of study since their proposition into the field of TS.

What is also believed in the context of this study is that these norms are of a prescriptive nature and they regulate the translator's strategies and practices. In this study, norms found to govern the process of ChLT will be categorised as suggested in the previous table (Table 3.2.). Thus a reference to this list of norms will be made at a later point in this thesis (see Chapter 9). As already mentioned, the study aims to investigate the norms that come to play a role in the process of translating humour in ChL. In the context of this study it is believed that since it is not usually

possible to read translators' minds as they translate, as if it were a 'window' to their norms, then in the realm of think-aloud studies the TAPs methodology is a suitably reliable means to gauge their norms through their verbalisations. Asking the translators to speak out their translation strategies and reason them, will thus be the main method of this study, but augmented by other methods (see Chapter 9).

3.3. Final Thoughts

Being conceived as principles, rules, and/or conventions, and being closely related to values and ideologies, norms are said to be of a multifaceted nature (see section 3.1.1.2., this chapter, p. 75), fluid, unstable, value-laden, ideological, and difficult to capture. Presented either as directing, dictating, and regulating translators' behaviour, or as elements assisting, guiding, and facilitating the translator's decision-making, norms were explored in this section in the context of TS.

Yet norms are acknowledged as a focal point for translation theory, a key concept in translation pedagogy, and a translator's 'compass' in action. Their contribution to TS theory, research, practice, and pedagogy, is highly significant. This is one of the main reasons why the present study and its findings are pertinent to the field of TS.

However, limitations are always present in norm-based research. Findings will always remain context-bound and results will be difficult to generalise. This is not to say that scholars and researchers focusing on norm-based studies should not aim for reliability with their methodology. On the contrary, much energy should still be directed towards the crystallisation of systematic research methods, including qualitative ones, especially if there is an aim to go beyond the study of norms, which are usually limited to one social group at a time, and to formulate general laws of translational behaviour, which would unavoidably be probabilistic in nature, as shown in the previous section.

The present thesis, aims to contribute to norm-based studies (cf. Schäffner, 1999) which, until now, have mainly dealt with either one group of participants or two. The results of the study will also test the validity of the combined norms' model designed in Table 3.2., and the methodological tool used.

Clearly, the achievements of studies can themselves supply researchers with indications of necessary and possible methodological improvements. As Toury (as cited in Venuti, 2000) notes,

“if we hold up research until the most systematic methods have been found, we might never get any research done” (pp. 108-110). This statement gave the researcher of the present study strength to keep up her endeavours to study the translation norms that govern the translators’ decision-making in the process of translating humour for ChL.

In offering avenues for further research in the study of norms Martin (2001) suggests investigating norms while taking into account both groups: practising translators (non-academic world) and TS students and/or scholars (academic-world), instead of focusing on the viewpoints of each group at a time. Furthermore, she suggests that attempts should be made to model these norms, and thus study the generalisations in the framework of practical applications in translation pedagogy. An innovative step discussed is for applications to focus not only on higher education, but to concentrate on secondary education or even primary and pre-primary education as well. Although the last suggestion is not something that is directly linked to the methodological framework of this study, it can be an avenue for further research.

In terms of the English-Greek language combination, very few studies have been conducted, let alone norm-based ones, and thus the scope for future research is immense. Notably, a recent research study on audiovisual translating in the Greek context completed by Roussou (2003) conceived of norms as patterns of translational behaviour. The ideology behind this behaviour, though, was not analysed, as according to the researcher this was not one of the objectives of the study. Items analysed included, amongst others: typography, songs, titles, and phraseology. A list of translation techniques for each item was compiled, including reduction and omission as the two more recurrent techniques. Due to the characteristics of the corpus, all conclusions were context-bound, but it could be of interest to begin a more ambitious study on norms in audiovisual translation in Greece.

This would add to and complement the more contextual and macro-textual studies published so far in the Greek-speaking scholar-world by Karamitroglou (2000), for example. In his work, Karamitroglou attempted to analyse the norms revealed in the translation of three Spanish films by Pedro Almodóvar into Greek, and to examine the regularities of the translator’s behaviour when confronted with certain translation problems. The choice of the film was made so as to create a homogeneous corpus (same author and director). The methodology followed Goris (1993), who analysed the French translations of certain American films. In order to analyse the examples, a model of analysis proposed by Chaume (2004) was followed. The problems appeared in flash cards (a tool taken from the model), and as soon as they were organised, it was attempted

to define the translation norm of all examples belonging to the same category, according to the meaning codes of audiovisual texts defined by Chaume (2004) and the methodology of descriptive TS. These two studies by Roussou and Karamitroglou are, at the time of writing this thesis, the first efforts to focus on translation norms in Greek norm-based studies, which the present study aims to build on.

Translators, through their activity, help shape the process, in the same way that translation criticism, translation ideology, and various norm-setting activities can do through training. It is to be hoped that a more detailed discussion of translation norms will arise, one that can make use of both the experience of practicing translators, and the theoretical viewpoints of translation scholars.

In this section Table 3.2. illustrated the norms that come into play in the translator's mind as he translates ChL. The list of prevalent ChLT norms provided was drafted after a thorough review of the literature underlining norms that have been proposed by the academic and non-academic worlds. A reference back to this list will be made in Chapter 9 when the norms found to govern translators' strategies and approaches in the present study will be presented and analysed, addressing the first research question and aim set.

Following translators' norms, translators' strategies will also be considered as they relate to the second research question and aim. In the next chapter, attempts to define the concept of strategies and to explore their role, the ways to identify strategies and typologies of strategies in the context of TS and ChLT will be discussed, so as to further contextualise the study. Chapter 4 will conclude with some final thoughts on the future study of translation strategies in general and in the context of ChLT in particular.

Chapter 4

Chapter 4

Strategies in Children's Literature Translation

“We are in need for strategies for translating (...).
If subjects have been provided with translation strategies,
there is a greater chance that they will arrive at good solutions”
(Kussmaul, 1995, p. 9)

4.0. Introductory Note

In this chapter, strategies will be defined and their role in TS will be discussed, and how these have informed this study. The two types of strategies that play a major role in the field of TS – i.e. product-oriented strategies and process-oriented strategies – will be presented, and ways of detecting and investigating them will be discussed.

This study pays particular attention to process-oriented strategies, as throughout there is an attempt to capture and problematise what happens in the translator's mind during the translation process and to investigate strategies employed by the three focus groups (FGs) (beginners, competent, and expert translators) while translating humorous words, phrases, or longer extracts from the given novel for children and YA. This study aims to detect translators' governing norms underlying strategies with regards to humour in ChLT, as expressed in the second research question and aim of the present study.

4.1. The Study of Strategies in Children's Literature Translation

4.1.1. Attempts to Define the Concept of Strategies

According to the Collins Cobuild English Dictionary (1998) 'strategy' is “a general plan or set of plans intended to achieve something, especially over a long period”, and “the art of planning the best way to gain an advantage or achieve success...” (p. 1648). In the framework of TS, strategies are also known as plans, rules, principles, steps, as well as shifts, procedures or techniques, many of which translators will use intuitively for any given text (Fawcett, 1997).

Krings (1986) defines translation strategies as the “translator’s potentially conscious plans for solving concrete translation problems in the framework of a concrete translation task” (p. 18). Similarly, Lörcher (1991) claims that a translation strategy is “a potentially conscious procedure for solving a problem faced in translating a text or any segment of it” (p. 8). As stated in these definitions, the notion of consciousness is significant in distinguishing strategies that are used by learners or translators. To put it simply, when a translator applies a strategy, he does this consciously, and thus is fully aware of it. In this regard, Cohen (1998) asserts that “the element of consciousness is what distinguishes strategies from processes that are not strategic” (p. 4). This assertion leads to the assumption that a strategy is an intended process, and a process that requires thought. It is not a spontaneous practice, but a planned one. In this sense, investigation into strategies should not be problematic, as the translator could easily talk about the strategies he applies while translating, in full consciousness. Thus, strategies are not as difficult to observe or visualise as norms. Lörcher’s (1991, p. 8) definition presents the notion of strategies even more clearly, as he highlights a further aspect of strategies, stressing that a strategy is a procedure – a conscious one – associated with translation problems. In this respect, strategies are termed as plans and procedures associated with the notion of consciousness and problem-solving. Although seemingly straightforward to understand, attempts to define strategies by key scholars in the field often muddle the issue, and have led to confusion and vagueness.

According to early work by Jääskeläinen (1993), translation strategies are a set of “loosely formulated rules or principles” (p. 116), which a translator uses to reach the goals determined by the translating situation. Such a definition of strategy involves not just a problem-solving act, but a plan to achieve something, and the art of planning the best way to do so. In later years, Jääskeläinen (1999) considers strategies to be “series of competencies, a set of steps or processes that favour the acquisition, storage, and/or utilisation of information” (p. 71). She maintains that strategies are “heuristic and flexible in nature, and their adoption implies a decision influenced by amendments in the translator’s objectives” (Jääskeläinen, 1999, p. 71). However, attempts to provide a concrete definition of strategies in the context of TS have often led to vague and confusing definitions. Terms, such as plans, rules, principles, steps, or shifts, procedures, and techniques have all been used to define strategies. Implications of the confusion that takes place in this context will be addressed in the next sections.

4.1.2. Detecting and Identifying Strategies

Orozco and Hurtado Albir (2002) contend that translation strategies are difficult to observe directly, but yet are essential to the translation competence model, which is the theoretical basis

for research on Translation Competence Acquisition (see Chapter 6). However, according to Krings (1986), although a difficult task, translation strategies can be detected. Having analysed translation processes in relation to translation problems and the strategies used to solve them, he assumed that “strategies emerge as soon as the translation cannot be carried out automatically” (p. 268). For Krings the absence of a translation problem equates to the absence of translation strategies. In other words, a translation strategy exists only in the presence of one or more translation problems (Bell, 1998), whereas it does not tend to be externalised in process research when the translator is unaware of having encountered a problem. Simply put, in the process of translation, when a translator encounters a problem and is aware of doing so, i.e. faces and deals the problem in full consciousness, he then reacts by working out – and eventually finding – a strategy to solve it. Thus, strategy is associated with problem-detecting/solving and consciousness (Lörscher, 1991; Bell, 1998; etc.).

Of course, it could be argued that some translation problems are resolved automatically (and unconsciously) by translators, and that this entails the use of automated strategies. However, these would be very difficult to perceive and analyse for a researcher.

In the context of this study, as it is presumed that strategies are linked to self-awareness and consciousness, as well as reactions or choices for problem-solving, only conscious strategies will be explored. It is also assumed that these can be detected in studies observing translators’ behavioural patterns, as in the present study.

Nowadays, translation strategies can be detected and investigated in the framework of empirical process-oriented TS research (Lörscher, 1992). This type of research increases the potential for describing and explaining translation processes. The study of strategies serves pedagogical purposes as well; translation strategies observed through TAPs in the context of this study are seen as “a central skill that needs to be learned”²⁴, and may serve as good practice for successful translation work (Krings, 1986; Lörscher, 1992; Jääskeläinen, 1993; Kussmaul, 1995; etc.).

In what follows, translation strategies discussed by leading researchers will be reviewed, in an attempt to select an appropriate tool/model that will be used to recognise and analyse the strategies participants employed when translating humour for the purposes of this study (see Chapter 9).

²⁴ Available at: <http://www.hum.utu.fi/oppiaineet/englantilainenfilologia/exam/Bergen.pdf>: 220 – last accessed 30/07/2011

4.1.3. Classification of Strategies

When investigating early classifications of strategies in the current body of work on this issue, Nida, and Vinay and Darbelnet are amongst many who provide extensive lists of strategies (Venuti, 1998) from a mainly product-oriented tradition. Process-oriented TS has gained interest only recently. Nida mentions changes of order, omission, structure, addition, and Vinay and Darbelnet, although they acknowledge that different methods/procedures seem to be countless, finally place them in seven categories, each one corresponding to a higher degree of complexity (cf. Venuti, 1998). These seven methods can be applied to different degrees at the three levels of expression, i.e. lexis, syntactic structure, and message (cf. Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995): Loan, Calque, Literal Translation, Transposition, Modulation, Equivalence, and Adaptation.

In the introduction to the second edition of Vinay and Darbelnet's *Comparative Stylistics of French and English: A Methodology for Translation*, Sager (1993) it is highlighted that when the book was first written, comparative studies was an innovative subject and practical aspects of translation were a ground-breaking initiative in the few courses that taught translation skills back then. The editor finds it remarkable that Vinay and Darbelnet's classification is still used widely several years after. This diachronic nature of the seven methods mentioned – which in the context of this study are seen as strategies – is due to their wide application, an aspect that justifies to a great extent the level of their contribution to TS.

Similarly to Vinay and Darbelnet's diachronic set of strategies, Chesterman (cf. 1997) also discusses the types of textual changes that translators make, giving a summary list of some frequent strategies in three categories: syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic:

- Syntactic strategies: literal translation, loan, calque, transposition, unit change, structural change, cohesion change, rhetorical scheme change (e.g., alliteration)
- Semantic strategies: synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, a hyperonym or condensation, expansion modulation (e.g., concrete, abstract) or even rhetorical trope change (e.g., metaphor, irony, and so forth)
- Pragmatic changes: addition, omission, explicitation, implicitation, domestication, foreignisation, formality change, speech act change, transenditing

Contrary to the previous classifications, Chesterman's pays attention to a greater number of linguistic aspects, as can be seen above, and provides a more tangible list. Although still relatively narrow, this set of strategies is still of much significance, as they build on the linguistic aspects of Vinay and Darbelnet's model.

What is interesting to note, in the context of TS, is that although product-oriented strategies have more frequently been under investigation in comparison to process-oriented strategies, a systematic model has not yet been constructed (Naudé, 2002). A reason for this can be the terminological confusion the term *strategy/strategies* create, which is discussed below. Process-oriented translation strategies and decision-making were less investigated, as the process/black box was identified as hard to uncover (Jakobsen, 2002) and more light was shed on activities focusing on the end product. The lack of both interest and equipment resulted in limited research activity not only regarding strategies, but on norms regulating translation strategies as well. In this study, process-oriented translation decisions and the norms underlying them will be investigated in the empirical context of think-aloud studies, contributing to the research activity in this field. Key scholars in process research have attempted to list translation process strategies more specifically, and, due to their relevance for this study, these are reviewed below.

Jääskeläinen (2005) was one of those whose classification of translation strategies is of a comprehensive orientation, as she takes into account both types of strategies: product and process-oriented. These are explained below:

i. Strategies related to what happens to texts (product-oriented strategies): Strategies of translation involve the basic tasks of choosing the foreign text to be translated and developing a method to translate it. Both these tasks are determined by various factors: cultural, economic, and political. Quoting Korhonen (2008), "the aim of this type of strategy is to reach the goals set for the product and its function, i.e. the target text is fulfilling the [translation brief/skopos]" (pp. 24-26). According to Chesterman (1997), Künzli (2003), and Englund Dimitrova (2005) changes or shifts in the TT, when compared to its ST, can take place during a product-oriented translation.

ii. Strategies related to what happens in processes (process-oriented strategies): Krings (1986) and Englund Dimitrova (2005) assert that, process-oriented strategies are a translator's potentially conscious plan for solving translation problems in the framework of a concrete translation task. Such strategies can either be global or local (Séguinot, 1989; Tirkkonen-Condit, 1989;

Jääskeläinen, 1993), and they can be either macrostrategies or microstrategies (Hönig, 1991). In more analytical terms:

- Global strategies: As suggested, according to Séguinot (1989, p. 36), process-oriented strategies can be global. Such strategies include: a tendency to translate without interruption as long as possible, a tendency to correct surface errors immediately but leave errors involving meaning until a natural break, and a tendency to leave monitoring for qualitative errors in the text to the re-reading stages. Séguinot's suggestions avoid narrow descriptions, so as to achieve generalisations and cover all possible translator behaviours that can take place in the course of translating.
- Local strategies: In process-oriented strategies, local strategies can also be encountered. These refer to specific activities in relation to the translator's problem-solving and decision-making (Jääskeläinen, 1993, p. 116). Process-oriented strategies are task-independent, while product-oriented strategies depend on the brief (i.e. whether to domesticate, foreignise, simplify, etc.).

In Jääskeläinen's view (1993, p. 116), global strategies refer to the translator's general principles and modes of action, leading to different translation choices that might appear to be best at a given time. Korhonen (2008, p. 24) comments that in process-oriented strategies, the translation is undertaken in a way that is beneficial for the goals of the translator's text production, i.e. the process progresses in a way that is fluent and suitable for the translator and the translation is performed quickly. Echoing Jääskeläinen (1993), Bell (1998, p. 188) distinguishes between 'global' and 'local' strategies. The former are strategies dealing with whole texts, whereas the latter are strategies dealing with text segments. What derives from all classification attempts seen above is that, in the course of the years, scholars have acknowledged the complexity of the translation process and all aspects involved (such as strategies), and they have attempted to list features as clearly as possible in order to understand them better, and, at the same time, to engage in the multifaceted nature of the process of translation.

Analysing data collected from translation process investigations, Krings (1986, p. 268) discovered five prevalent sets of strategies in managing translation problems: Strategies of comprehension, strategies of equivalent retrieval, strategies of equivalent monitoring, strategies of decision-making, and strategies of reduction. Lörscher (1986, p. 282) provided his own classification of

strategies: Monitoring of SL segments, rephrasing of SL text segments, monitoring of SL text segments, rephrasing of TL segments, leaving a problem aside, setting up and testing of hypothesis, and verbalising of a problem to focus on problem solving strategies. Also exploring the concept of strategies, Sager (1993, pp. 246-247) provided a model of problem-solving in the translation process, where the process from spotting a problem to arriving at a solution, consists of the following stages: SL linguistic decomposition, problem identification at the SL linguistic and cognitive level, problem solution at the cognitive and TL linguistic level with reference to a knowledge base, and TL linguistic re-composition. What becomes clear through such a review is that over the years understanding the processes of translation and its constituent strategies have become the main foci of TS researchers.

As previously mentioned, the concept of strategies is so ambiguous that attempts to define them often lead to confusion. Mixing up strategies with procedures is, as will be revealed in what follows, an example of this confusion. While scholars mentioned in the lines above talk about translation strategies, Nida (1964, pp. 241-245 and pp. 247-249) refers to translation procedures in the same way; he classifies two procedures taking place in the course of translation – i.e. technical procedures and organisational procedures:

- i. Technical procedures: These involve an analysis of the source and target languages, a thorough study of the source language text before making attempts to translate it and lastly making judgments about the semantic and syntactic approximations.
- ii. Organisational procedures: These involve constant re-evaluation of the attempt made, contrasting it with the existing available translations of the same text done by other translators, and checking the text's communicative effectiveness by asking the TL readers to evaluate its accuracy and effectiveness and studying their reactions.

In this context of terminological confusion, Newmark makes a contrast between translation *methods* and translation *procedures* (1988b, p. 81). He writes that, while “translation methods relate to whole texts, translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language” (ibid.). It could be argued that Newmark's translation methods are akin to Jääskeläinen's ‘global’ strategies, while translation procedures greatly resemble the ‘local’ strategies. Newmark (1988b, pp. 45-47) goes on to describe the following methods of translation:

- Word-for-word translation: in which the SL word order is preserved and the words are translated individually by their most common meanings, out of context
- Literal translation: in which the SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents, but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context.
- Faithful translation: which attempts to produce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures
- Semantic translation: which differs from 'faithful translation' only in as far as it must take more account of the aesthetic value of the SL text
- Adaptation: which is the freest form of translation, and is used mainly for plays (comedies) and poetry; the themes, characters, and plots are usually preserved, the SL culture is converted to the TL culture and the text is rewritten
- Free translation: which produces the TL text without the style, form, or content of the original
- Idiomatic translation: which reproduces the 'message' of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms, where these do not exist in the original
- Communicative translation: which attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original, in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership

Despite their influence, Nida's procedures and Newmark's methods have done little to shed light on what exactly constitutes a translation strategy. To add to the terminological confusion, Fawcett (1997, pp. 34-41) refers to certain procedures that he calls techniques, i.e. 'decisions' taken regarding the translation of a particular problem. Such techniques include:

- Equation (literal translation/transference), where a literal equivalent is chosen
- Selection, where various potential TL equivalents are chosen
- Concretisation (differentiation), where a general/class term is translated by a more specific item
- Antonymic translation, where a negative expression is translated by a positive one, or vice versa
- Borrowing (transference), where the ST expression is used untranslated in the TT

- Calque (loan translation), where an expression is translated by literally translating its individual parts
- Transposition, where the grammar class changes
- Reordering, where the order of elements changes
- Logical modulation, where one aspect of process/situation is replaced by another aspect
- Compensation (improvisation), where a similar effect is either given elsewhere (e.g., a pun) or by using a different means
- Equivalence (dynamic equivalence), where a ST idiom, etc. is replaced by a TL idiom with different propositional content (literal meaning) but a similar illocutionary force (interpersonal meaning)
- Adaptation, where a source-culture item is replaced by a target-culture equivalent
- Amplification, where a source-culture item is replaced by a target-culture of a more intense meaning
- Reduction, where information is omitted
- Diffusion, where the same information is given, but the TT is longer than the ST
- Concentration (condensation), where the same information is given but the TT is shorter than the ST
- Abandonment, where the translator decided to drop some of the ST items or features (e.g., miss out an expression, or translate the sense but not the rhyme of a poem)

Terminologically, Fawcett's techniques are not that dissimilar to strategies presented in earlier parts of this section, as some of them link back to other scholars' suggested strategies, and especially those providing classifications of a diachronic value (cf. Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995; Chesterman, 1997).

What is considered here to be a systematic list of translation strategies is a list inspired by Séguinot's (2000) studies on expert translators. According to Séguinot's work, professional translators employ three main strategies as they translate: communication strategies, search strategies, and monitoring strategies. The first two are both internal (e.g., syntax and style) and external (e.g., use of dictionaries). They are apparent when translators comment on suggestions, or use tools to find the accurate term they are looking for. The third type of strategies included a re-reading of both texts. Table 4.1. below shows the model of process-oriented translation

strategies that this study will adopt for its purposes, as it is seen as the one that is the most functional, clear, comprehensive, and adapted to process research.

Table 4.1.
Process-Oriented Translation Strategies (Séguinot's Model, 2000)



Based on this model, when the translator employs additions, omissions, enlargements, shifts, adaptations, and exotification (i.e. exotic) in the translation process, he is employing a communication strategy. When he turns to a dictionary, the internet, a glossary, or a client to solve the translation problem, then he employs a search strategy. Lastly, when he observes or examines his work, commenting on, or evaluating it, he employs a monitoring strategy. This list of strategies provided in Séguinot's (2000) model of process-oriented translation strategies is clear and all-encompassing. It covers the strategies that a translator can apply to solve problems encountered in the translation process, and includes essential components of other existing lists of strategies reviewed above. This model will prove to be particularly useful for devising a functional model for strategies in the context of ChL and ChLT later on in this chapter (see Figure 4.1., p. 127). Due to its major impact, this model will serve as a basis for the analysis in Chapter 9.

Issues reviewed in this section are pertinent. To begin with, it is obvious that strategies are a complex aspect of the process of translation. It was revealed that there has been a lot of activity in classifying strategies in TS, and, although strategies are difficult to study, this is possible in the context of process-oriented TS research. It was astonishing, though, to detect the terminological confusion for the term *strategy/strategies*. The vagueness of the concept of strategies, often confused with procedures or techniques, unfortunately leads to terminological dissonance. In what follows, some potential implications of this confusion will be discussed, as this will shed light on the definition and classification of strategies needed for this study.

Newmark (1981, 1988) has blamed theory for this confusion. Seeing translation theory as a term referring to a specific attempt to explain in a systematic way phenomena related to translation, including strategies, the scholar argues that the chief concern of translation theory is to determine

“appropriate translation methods” (Newmark, 1988, p. 19) and to provide “a framework of principles, restricted rules and hints for translating texts and criticising translations” (ibid.). In her book *Stylistic Approaches to Translation*, Boase-Beier (2006) states that knowledge of theory can affect the way translators translate. Kautz (2000) is amongst the few scholars who explicitly mentioned ‘translation theory and methods’ as a key component in the translation process, implying that while translating, translators theorise. Kautz suggests that when translators employ strategies, make decisions, go through alternatives, etc., they do and should have theory in mind. Wakabayashi (2003) also noted that an understanding of translation theory offers students principles on which to base their decision-making. The ability to explain and justify one’s choices is also an essential skill when dealing with clients, and to this end students are required to accompany their translations with commentaries, discussing any comprehension or formulation difficulties and the steps taken to resolve these problems or the principles on which the decisions were based, as well as any reference sources used. Thus, theory has much to contribute to clarifying what a strategy is, and the role it has in the translation process.

As seen in the classification attempts above, the term ‘methodology’ is often invoked in definition attempts concerning ‘strategies’. Because classifying strategies is a method that can be employed to understand translator behaviour, if there is an issue with the methodology, then the classification will not be usable. The term methodology is formally defined as “a system of principles, practices, and procedures applied to a specific branch of knowledge [representing] a package of practical ideas and proven practices for a given area of activity” (Kersten, 2000, p. 412). For Newmark (1988) and Hermans (1999), the methodology of TS is a product of the translation theory, whose “system of principles, practices, and procedures applied to translation studies represents a package of practical ideas in the particular scientific field” (Newmark, 1998, p. 18). In the context of this study, classifying strategies is a product of the theory or hypothesis that translators’ strategies can be detected, and applying the methodology effectively (i.e. the practical idea) is what will enable strategies (i.e. the theory) to be uncovered. This highlights the importance of a good system of procedures (or classification model) to be applied. If the latter is vague, or confusing, or includes vague and confusing elements, then it is unlikely that clear and useful results will be obtained.

Unfortunately, another term adding to the terminological confusion is *procedures*. Like other terms, it has been included in some methodological tools/classification models to study strategies. In defining procedures, Mailhac (in Hoffman, 1996) argues that we should avoid confusing strategies with procedures (i.e. the tools at the disposal of the translators) and must

consider strategies as “statements specifying the condition under which a particular procedure (tool) is to be used” (Mailhac in Hoffman, 1996, p. 148).

As a final remark, it can be underlined once more that theory seems to be responsible for this terminological confusion (Newmark, 1988). A lack of a clear and comprehensive theory inspired methodology leads to such terminological dissonance. A lack of useful theory-driven methodology also leads to insufficient teaching and poor textbooks (Newmark, 1988). If we accept that “strategies are teachable skills” (Fornalczyk, 2007, p. 94), then TS scholars and practitioners should insist on removing the confusion causing problems in the field and join efforts to enhance TS research, practice and pedagogy in general. Quoting Kussmaul (1995), “we are in need for strategies for translating (...). If subjects have been provided with translation strategies, there is a greater chance that they will arrive at good solutions” (p. 9). Greater effort, therefore, needs to be made to refine models and methods that can be used to study translation strategies.

In what follows, strategies in the specific context of ChLT will be studied in an attempt to arrive at a usable model to apply to the study of strategies in this study, and to prepare the grounds for investigating the translation strategies translators employ when translating ChL. This has implications for translation quality and pedagogy, thus studies such as this one have much to contribute towards this direction.

4.1.4. Strategies in Children’s Literature Translation

Among the strategies explored below are: alterations, modifications, and changes (Fernández López in Lathey, 2006; Pinsent, 2006), adaptation (Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998; O’Sullivan, 2005; Stolt in Lathey, 2006), and cultural context adaptation (Klingberg, 1986), localisation versus foreignisation (Venuti, 1998), sentimentalisation and prettification (Stolt in Lathey, 2006), modernisation (Klingberg, 1978; Oittinen, 1993; Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998), and purification (Klingberg, 1986; Pinsent, 1997; Fernández López in Lathey, 2006). They are the strategies that are the most frequently referred to and applied in ChLT, according to a literature review undertaken for this study.

4.1.4.1. Alterations, Modifications, and Changes

Alterations, modifications, or changes are translation strategies frequently applied by the translator in the context of ChLT. Quoting Lathey (2006), “original works are modified in subsequent editions to conform to the social standards prevailing at a given time and thus to

satisfy the specific demands of the market” (p. 41). Reasons for alterations, modifications and changes can vary. To begin with, taboo subjects, such as violence, sex, death, religion, and politics, have traditionally been avoided by translators and, when encountered, then changes are liable to be made (Lathey, 2006; Pinsent, 2006). Commercial reasons also come into play as such changes may increase sales (Lathey, 2006). As Fernández López (in Lathey, 2006), writes:

Series such as the Bobbsey Twins, Nancy Drew, and the Happy Hillisters, which appeared in the first third of the century, were systematically changed in later editions in order to render them acceptable to customers whose lifestyles and social customs were changing rapidly- especially, though not uniquely, with respect to food, fashion, and means of transport (Hildick, 1974, p. 191). (p. 46)

Whereas social customs have often been subject to change, in recent years, changes have been applied to texts that are considered “racist or socio-politically incorrect” (Fernández López in Lathey, 2006, p. 42), whereas sexual and vulgar expressions are regarded to a lesser extent as censorship issues.

The issue of changes, modifications and alterations in the context of ChLT is of much importance in terms of comparative studies. The existence of an original text that, over time, undergoes modifications even in its native language because of the low status of ChL and its perceived moral and didactic function causes difficulties when seeking to compare the translation with its source. Issues of fidelity, faithfulness, equivalence, and adherence to the original version (Lathey, 2006; Pinsent, 2006) are all pertinent.

According to Stolt (in Lathey, 2006), the prejudices and a priori assumptions of publishers regarding child-readers “help to make the translation paler and tamer, less effective, [and] quite simply more insipid than the original” (p. 73). She further illustrates that:

[t]he French Pippi Longstocking, for example, is not allowed to pick up a horse, only a pony! In this case the correspondence of the author with the publishers was without success. She had to swallow the reply that perhaps little – and, as was clear from reading between the lines, stupid – Swedish children could be persuaded that Pippi was strong enough to lift a whole horse. But French children, who had just been through a World War, were much too realistic to be taken in by something like that. (Stolt in Lathey, 2006, p. 73)

The intended impact of the original in this case is greatly diminished. It is widely agreed that changes, modifications, and alterations are the most recurrent strategies that can be encountered

in the course of ChLT. In the same context, adaptation, and cultural context adaptation discussed below are also regularly found.

4.1.4.2. Adaptation – Cultural Context Adaptation

- **Adaptation**

According to Bastin (1997), a successful translation is one adapting the text to the “presumptive readers” (p. 7). This, of course, may lead to suppressing parts of the original which, in the case of ChL and ChLT, is often done for comprehensibility purposes.

Translation theorists distinguish two methods of adaptation: a) global adaptation, determined by a total change in the function of the ST, and b) local adaptation that is limited to certain parts and sections (Bastin, 1997, p. 7). In the academic context of ChLT, two further distinctions of adaptations are encountered: permissible and non-permissible (Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998, p. 52). In the case where the theme or the image of the book “features universal aspects” (Jingu, 1988, p. 12), and emphasis is given to issues that children are familiar with, then that could be a “permissible adaptation” (Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998, p. 52). On the contrary, if the originality of a culture is a feature of the original, adaptation diminishes the first product (ibid.). Stolt (in Lathey, 2006) sees adaptation only with instances of a religious or political nature, and McElderry (1962), adding to this, mentions that details of dress, furniture, measurements, and sometimes national habits can also be adapted. Burns (1962) underlines further instances where adaptation might be required, such as, erring adults, bad manners in children, and national pride.

Jung (1996) classifies four types of adaptation. The first two are concerned with inattentiveness and lack of respect on the part of the translator, and the last two are concerned with didactic and moralistic purposes: change in the communication role of the characters, simplification through deletion, sentimentalisation through embellishment, and moralistic adjustments through embellishment (Jung, 1996, p. 14). While the former seems to be translators’ own fault, the latter appears norm-related.

According to Thomson-Wolgemuth (1998), adaptation comes into play in ChL and ChLT so as to bring the child-reader and the text closer. In this framework, two types of adaptation are identified: a) assimilation, i.e. adaptation of the text to the knowledge and abilities of the children, especially for the case of young children-readers (object adapted to subject), and b) accommodation, i.e. adaptation of the child to the text acknowledging the child-reader’s flexibility and their ability to cope with alien and incomprehensible factors (subject adapted to

object) (p. 8). In a way, this is reminiscent of Schleiermacher (1813), in the sense that either the text is brought to the child-reader (assimilations) or the child-reader makes the journey to the text (accommodation).

Also supporting adaptation in this context is O'Sullivan (2005), who advocates the use of free translations and localisations underlying that, major or minor changes should come into play, when translating for children under the umbrella of the child-reader's comprehensibility. The issue of localisation is revisited in a subsequent section.

However, there are those who do not agree with the need for adaptation (e.g., Painter in Huus, 1968; Rosenheim, 1969; Klingberg, 1978; and Shavit, 1981). Painter (in Huus, 1968) disagrees with too many changes and localisations and says that, most of the time, alterations are pointless. Painter (in Lathey, 2006) also points out that she prefers seeing the element of the exotic in the TT, as it serves educational purposes. She highlights the following:

aids to comprehension notes, aids to pronunciation, explanations of important foreign words and terms, and maps in the case of travelogues, also information about the author, and an explanation of the often difficult foreign names, their pronunciation and mention of the fact that, for instance, Tove Jansson and Gunnel Linde are women. All this introductory information should be inside the book and not on the dust-cover blurb, as jackets very quickly get torn and lost. Short explanations in the text itself are recommended, too. With these aids to reading as much as possible of the foreign milieu could be saved and kept in the translated text. The charm of what is new, strange, the broadening of the reader's horizons would be lost if everything were made too effortless and palatable and adapted to one's milieu. (Painter in Lathey, 2006, p. 74)

Before Painter, Rosenheim (1969) had already asserted that adaptation causes the loss of suspense and charm, which to him are vital elements for the child-reader's enjoyment and imagination. Considering appropriateness as an additional element in this discussion, Shavit (1981) disapproves of the option of changing the text as, to her, this is a sign of non-appreciation. She only agrees with "evaluative adaptations" (Shavit, 1981, p. 174) whereby, for ideological reasons, the TT might result into a new, autonomous one. Klingberg (1986) makes reference to a degree of adaptation, underlying issues of the extent to which characteristics of the child-readers are taken into account. Some level of adaptation may be therefore required by the translator in certain circumstances. Quoting Thomson-Wolgemuth (1998):

The degree of adaptation should ideally be retained in the translation, so that the text does not change in terms of its level of difficulty or interest. However, TT readers have a different cultural background from that of the ST readers, so that the translator will have to alter the text to maintain the degree of adaptation in the translation. This change by the translator is called cultural context adaptation. (pp. 55-56)

The statement above introduces the notion of cultural context adaptation, which is discussed next.

- **Cultural Context Adaptation**

Cultural context adaptation appears when the translator applies alterations, modifications, or changes, so as to give the TT the ST context, in cases where the TT has a different cultural background from that of the ST readers.

Regarding the ST as the priority element in the process of translation, Klingberg (1986) sees cultural context adaptation as a procedure that should not be frequently applied, even though Lathey (2010) acknowledges that “contextual adaptation has, nevertheless, been a common practice throughout the history of translating for children” (p. 7). This difference of opinion further highlights the wide range of practices and lack of agreement on ChLT strategies.

Identifying various categories of cultural context adaptations, i.e. foreign languages, building and home furnishings, food, customs and practices, play and games, flora and fauna, names, weights and measuring, Klingberg (1986, p. 18) classifies nine forms of cultural context adaptation: added explanation, rewording, explanatory translation, explanation outside the text, substitution of an equivalent in the culture of the text, substitution of a rough equivalent in the culture of the TL, simplification, deletion, and localisation. Similarly to Klingberg (1978), Bell (in Lathey, 2006) is in favour of the idea that foreign aspects stand in the way of the child-reader and argues that the translator of ChL should preserve the original atmosphere, if not culture-specific elements. Likewise, Yamasaki (2002, p. 58) admits that foreign elements in a story are distracting or confusing for children. However, he underlines that knowledge about a different culture is necessary in order to accept the culture. Yamasaki highlights the danger in children never learning to acknowledge another culture. He stresses that if foreign elements discourage children from reading, and they do not appear in books, then they remain foreign for good, and children never learn to accept another culture. Therefore, it might be pedagogically valid to identify and maintain foreign elements in ChLT.

Nadelmann (1989) for example, recommends that names should be preserved as a signal to remind the readers of their entrance into a different system that requires a different mode of reading. In the case of problems regarding pronunciation, Bell (in Lathey, 2006) suggests the use of notes or aids. To Stolt (in Lathey, 2006), overusing cultural context adaptation reveals a disrespect for children, children's books and their authors, since faithfulness to the author or the text does not enable them to think for themselves. The change of names is a result of the view of adults about what children want to read, value, and understand. In Klingberg's (1978) words, this is "an underestimation of the child reader" (p. 134), as many children "are more flexible than adults and the possibility of change lies to them" (Yamasaki, 2002, p. 60). Quoting Yamasaki:

There is no reason to discard foreign names from translation for children. On the contrary, it is important to leave them as they are. It is an unalterable fact that there are many different kinds of people and many different ways of doing things, and books can be a great help to cope with that reality, if they are translated properly. Even though they are cannot be the perfect solution for all intercultural problems, they can at least introduce children to the idea of diversity. If only a small number of books are translated in English-speaking countries, it is all the more important they are faithfully translated. (ibid.)

4.1.4.3. Domestication versus Foreignisation

Issues of adaptation and changes in ChLT bring to the surface another major issue that also generates ongoing discussions: domesticating versus foreignising. The idea of these opposite strategies originates from Venuti (1998), who was influenced by Schleiermacher (1813), who contends that in the course of translation, the translator either "leaves the writer alone as much as possible and moves the reader toward the writer, or he leaves the reader alone as much as possible and moves the writer toward the reader" (Venuti, 1998, p. 42). In Venuti's terms, therefore, domestication implies a strategy where the translator adjusts the text to suit the receiving community, taking into account local expectations to a great extent, whereas foreignisation is a strategy where the translator retains in the TT the otherness experienced in the original.

Positioning himself against domestication, Klingberg (1986), echoing Painter (1968), Rosenheim (1969), and Shavit (1981) – who were arguing against adaptation – emphasises the importance of providing opportunities for children to get to know other cultures, and for the translator to stress the fact that the story occurs in another place. Disapproving of domestication in the context of ChLT, throughout his work, Klingberg (1986) underscores that one of the aims of ChLT is:

to further the international outlook and understanding of the young readers. This aim will lead to the same adherence to the original. Removal of peculiarities of the foreign culture or change of cultural elements for such elements which belong to the culture of the target language will not further the readers' knowledge of and interest in the foreign culture. (pp. 9-10)

Clearly, the debate is closely related to the one regarding adaptation. Klingberg (*ibid.*), echoing the dominant paradigm of his time (c.f. Painter, 1968; Rosenheim, 1969; and Shavit, 1981), stresses the importance of ChLT from an aesthetic point of view, but also from the reader's personal and intellectual point of view. Klingberg (1986) also takes into account aspects of children's developmental psychology, emphasising children's needs for the 'exotic' (see Chapter 1, section 1.1.2. on children's needs met in ChLT, p. 16) and links this to pedagogical aspects, which can motivate children to read (see Chapter 1, section 1.2.1.3., p. 34). Although the familiar entertains child-readers and gives them confidence and safety, the exotic tends to fascinate them, as exotic locations, objects, and names can be very attractive and preferable in the stories they read, watch, or create themselves (Klingberg, 1986; Xeni, 2000). It could be argued that a mixture of the familiar and the exotic is beneficial for a child's development. According to Nord (2003), exoticism is a common issue in ChLT. As she puts it, "a story set in the receiver's own cultural world allows for identification, whereas a story set in a strange, possibly exotic world may induce the reader to stay 'at a distance'" (Mizani, 2008)²⁵. In line with Nord (2003), Bell (in Lathey, 2006) asserts that, "an impenetrable-looking set of foreign names on the first pages of a book might alienate young readers, so that the translator has to gauge the precise degree of foreignness and how far it is acceptable and can be preserved" (p. 7). Like adaptation, the issue of exoticism/domestication is therefore one of degree of change, and of circumstance. As Sas (2010) puts it, "there is no doubt that foreign names and exotic places could appeal to children" (pp. 6-7). This is also supported by Goldstein (2005), who speaks of the exotic in the translations of the Harry Potter books. According to him, this is an example of a recent ChL groundbreaking success:

Translators have several options, including de-Anglicising the text, leaving names and concepts as they are (but including explanations of particularly difficult notions, such as Christmas crackers, Halloween, and Cornflakes – the latter having earned a footnote in the Chinese translation, to indicate that these are consumed immersed in milk for breakfast), or some combination of the two." I'd be curious to know if any readers of the Harry Potter books in other languages have noticed any particular strategies for cultural topics. Some people think that domestication (the term for when a translator removes the foreign elements from a text and adapts the work to his or her own culture) might be

²⁵ Available at: <http://translationjournal.net/journal//45proper.htm> – last accessed 30/07/2011

more common in texts for children, because of the idea that children will find “exotic” items, such as kinds of cereal or holidays, confusing. It is so, however, that exposing people – whether children or adults – to new things is generally beneficial. (Goldstein, 2005, p. 1)

Despite the beneficiary role of the exotic, Cámara Aguilera (2008), from the AVANTI group²⁶ speaks with caution of the child-reader’s lack of understanding. To her, some level of domestication could be useful for understanding, and thus the translator should remove the foreign elements from a text and should adapt the work to his own culture. As she states:

We have seen before authors such as Klingberg or Shavit that consider domesticating as a negative process for author and receptor. We think that the receptor’s lack of understanding does not allow the fulfillment of the communicative function of the text initiated by the author, as it alienates the new addressee, leaving him/her out of the communicative process. Thus, we think that in this case the translator stops being a bridge between two languages and cultures, minimising his/her mediator function. (Cámara Aguilera, 2008, p. 6)

This quote highlights the impact of a chosen strategy on the translator’s role. It is interesting to note that the translator can either facilitate or impair communication through his choice of strategy. Puurtinen (1994) explains that “special characteristics of the child-readers, their comprehension and reading abilities, experience of life, and knowledge of the world must be borne in mind so as not to present them with overly difficult, uninteresting books that may alienate them from reading” (p. 83). Thomson-Wolgemuth (1998) regarded domestication in the ChLT context as “the most radical form of cultural context adaptation as the whole scene is moved” (p. 58) and paid more attention to foreignisation, which to Venuti (1998) was the most prevalent politically correct tendency. Quoting Venuti (1998) “the very function of translating is assimilation, the inscription of a foreign text with domestic intelligibilities and interests” (p. 11). This dichotomy is present throughout TS history but seems particularly obvious in ChLT.

As Wilhelm Von Humboldt asserts, “the reader of a translation should be facilitated to feel the foreign but not foreignness itself” (in Biguenet & Schulte 1992, p. 58), whereas Paloposki and Oittinen (in Chesterman, Gallardo San Salvador, & Gambier, 2000) attempt to resolve the debate and say that “maybe foreignising is an illusion which does not really exist. (...) we should only

²⁶ The Advances in Translation and Interpretation group (AVANTI group) based in Granada, Spain, was created in 2000 with the aim of developing research projects with a markedly innovative, creative and multidisciplinary focus in the field of Translation and Interpretation. Further information can be found at the official AVANTI group webpage: <http://www.ugr.es/~avanti/> – last accessed 30/07/2011

speak of different levels and dimensions of domestication” (p. 386). Perhaps viewing this as more of a continuum, rather than a dichotomy, is more useful here.

Nonetheless, in Epstein’s (2010) recent studies on ChL, translators were inclined to domesticate or apply changes for the child-reader more than they would for the adult-reader. For Epstein this creates a dissimilar, and perhaps even manipulative, reading experience for the target audience. Epstein expresses her surprise that based on the findings of her study translators for children manipulate texts, leading the target audience to have a different reading experience than the source audience. Clearly, the issues are far from being resolved and have far-reaching implications.

4.1.4.4. Sentimentalisation and Prettification

Sentimentalisation and prettification both refer to stylistic strategies of the translator to make things more beautiful, nicer, and prettier for the prospective readers. In the context of this study, this behaviour is often seen in relation to the translator’s belief that a “nicer” or “prettier” text should be more appreciated by the child-reader (and the adult-reader), and is thus related to the norms of suitability-appropriateness-comprehensibility discussed previously. According to Stolt, (in Lathey, 2006), this is acknowledged by the translator consciously as: “the translator’s own style may prove stronger than the will to reproduce the style of the author to be translated” (p. 75), or unconsciously: “but a translator can also unconsciously colour style in a personal manner by allowing adult perceptions arising while reading the text to be carried over into the translation” (ibid.). Sentimentalisation and prettification can subsequently take the form of extra adjectives, different register, etc.

In other words, (pre-)conceptions (and misconceptions) that adults often have about childhood and child-readers (see Chapter 10, section 10.4.4., p. 339) have the potential to expose translators’ own ambitions to be an author (Koller, 1972, p. 126), thus challenging the notion of authorship and of the translator and his role.

4.1.4.5. Modernisation

As Klingberg (1978) writes, “modernisations are attempts to make TT of more immediate interest to the presumptive readers by moving the time nearer to the present time or by exchanging details in the setting for more recent ones” (p. 86). Commercial reasons are given as an additional purpose by Thomson-Wolgemuth (1998): “[w]hen a date is given in the original, translators might be tempted to shift it closer to the publication date of the translated book, so as

to make the book appear newer and, thus, more appealing” (p. 61). The reasons for modernisation bear a resemblance to the reasons for simplification (or, for that matter, prettification). Both happen on account of the children-readers’ understanding and comprehensibility, e.g., changes such as updating language that is old-fashioned, simplifying the text etc., thus rendering it more reader-friendly.

Speaking of modernisation in fairytales, Oittinen (1993, p. 99) states that, many translators insist that fairytales are frequently too cruel for today’s young people and therefore, apply modernisations while translating. For instance, in some versions of *Little Red Riding Hood*, the wolf does not eat the grandmother and the protagonist, but is frightened by the rattle and escapes from the house, or becomes a friend of the grandmother and Little Red Riding Hood. Another example of modernisation according to Thomson-Wolgemuth (1998, p. 61) is when *Snow White* is an ordinary little girl with no stepmother in her life.

The trend to modernise fairytales has existed for years. In connection to this, a great number of taboo subjects have been deleted. Oitinen (1993) affirms that Little Red Riding Hood was forbidden to take wine to her grandmother, and instead brings her fruit, honey and milk, whereas Snow White has cheeks that are “red as an apple” and not “red as blood” (p. 98). Another example in the English translations of Andersen’s fairytales the omission of religion, racial, or sexual references (Jones, 1992, pp. 18-19). Thus, ‘Heaven preserve us’, ‘Dear God’, or ‘Oh heavens’ were deleted and the colours ‘white’ and ‘black’ were treated carefully to adhere to our modern conceptions and ideologies.

4.1.4.6. Purification

Placed in the framework of children-readers’ understanding and comprehensibility as well as censorship, appropriation and alterations, purifications are “the eliminations of registers considered unacceptable for children and adolescents” (Klingberg, 1986, p. 58), or “textual modifications of topics [and] of speech registers considered inappropriate for certain ages” (Fernández López in Lathey, 2006, p. 45). Applied “to get the TT in correspondence with the values of the readers, or rather with the values, or the supposed values of adults” (Klingberg, 1978, p. 86), they result in deletions and/or additions of small or even larger units of a text. The term ‘purification’ is reminiscent of a dark era when foreign elements were considered unclean or polluted and needed to be eradicated (Klingberg, 1986).

For Fernández López (in Lathey, 2006), ideological reasons can result in altering and modifying a text addressed to a child-reader “through a process of purification that involves textual elimination” (p. 42). The case of popular literature is mostly affected by ideological purification. Based on Fernández López’s observations, the example of the works of Enid Blyton in the 1940s and Roald Dahl in the 1960s and 1970s represent cases where publishers modified texts in order to avoid problems.

Though a somewhat violent term, Thomson-Wolgemuth (1998) regards purifications as necessary as modernisations, whereas Reiss (1971) asserts that they have the status of falsifications of the original and points out that it should be indicated to the reader that the book has been revised or adapted. Pinsent (1997) also stresses that there is often no indication that purification had taken place, other than a small print informing the reader that what he has in hands is a ‘revised edition’. What is considered impure is effectively eradicated.

In terms of authenticity, i.e. presenting the reality to the child, purifications, modernisations, adaptations, etc., should be made known to the reader by means of in-text indications (e.g., information in a parenthesis), or out-of-text indications (e.g., footnotes, prologue, and translator’s commentary). The latter though, and especially footnotes, seem to have been traditionally avoided in ChL, as they were seen as characteristics of AdL, which might have been complicated for the child-reader to handle (Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998). In the course of this study, conducted in the realm of child-centred studies, authenticity is considered key, as it is a way for the child-reader to get to know reality.

4.2. Final Remarks

The above discussion highlights literature on the ongoing research of strategies in TS, with specific reference to definitions and classifications of strategies, ways to detect and study them, their relation to theories and methods, as well as their role and contribution to the field. As could be observed, the categories of strategies for ChLT discussed in the previous section do not have clear boundaries, and it can be argued that some translation decisions could be classified in two or more categories. Nonetheless, the categorisations discussed are a valuable attempt by scholars to bring order to the field and to facilitate the study of strategies in ChLT, so as to better understand the process of translation. Although it turned out to be difficult to create a representative model of process-oriented TS while reviewing the relevant literature above, for reasons already explained, the main strategies that were found to come into play in the context of ChLT are illustrated in the following figure:

Figure 4.1.
Strategies Employed in the Context of ChLT

1. Alterations, Modifications and Changes
2. Adaptation – Cultural Context Adaptation
3. Domestication vs. Foreignisation (Alienation/Exoticism)
4. Sentimentalisation and Prettification
5. Modernisation
6. Purification

The strategies above will feed into the analysis of the translators' protocols in this study (see Chapter 9). In section 4.1.3., in this chapter, Séguinot's (2000) process-oriented translation strategies' model was revealed to be a functional one for the purposes of this study (see Table 4.1., this chapter, p. 114). In Séguinot's terms, ChLT strategies that derive from the literature review in this section all belong to the 'communication strategies'. By incorporating the ChLT strategies above into Séguinot's list of strategies, a more concrete list of strategies employed in the context of ChLT is created. The sequence number the strategy had in Figure 4.1. is shown in brackets:

Table 4.2.
Strategies Employed in the Context of ChLT

Communication
alterations [1] modifications [1] changes [1] additions omissions enlargements shifts adaptations [2] domestication [3] vs. foreignisation [3] (alienation/exoticism) sentimentalisation and prettification [4] modernisation [5] purification [6]
Search
Internet glossary client etc.
Monitoring
observing their work examining their work

By combining both lists of strategies, the communication strategy element is greatly increased. In this way, a large number of possible strategies that a translator can apply in the context of ChL can be noted, making the list a systematic attempt to fill in a gap in the literature in the field. In the context of this study, an attempt will also be made to devise a systematic list of humour translation (HT) strategies in the context of ChLT. The result will be presented in Chapter 9.

As supported in this study, strategies employed in the process of translation are governed by norms. The translation strategies that the three focus groups (FGs) applied in the TAPs experiments, as they translated humour in ChL, and the norms regulating them, are presented in Chapter 9, whereas implications of the study and final remarks are discussed in Chapter 11 and the Conclusion of the thesis.

In his dissertation on translation strategies, Geldhill (2001) presented the strategic approach as a new theory of translation, and asserted that there is no single strategy, but rather that each strategy can be appropriate for translating a particular kind of text, or have a particular purpose in the target language. This section saw strategies as purposeful in nature, as they come to the surface consciously, when the translator encounters a problem that cannot be automatically resolved.

This section also points out that process-oriented research can be a type of research that may allow the detection and analysis of translators' strategies. As seen previously, product-oriented strategies have more frequently been under investigation than process-oriented strategies. The lack of interest, equipment, and the belief that process-oriented research was a difficult area to explore, has resulted in limited research activity into the translation process. Many scholars call for translation theory to turn to the process of translation (Bell, 1991; Bernardini, 1999; Naudé, 2002). Quoting Naudé (2002):

Instead of making subjective and arbitrary judgments on the extent to which one translator is "better" than the other and insisting that "goodness" resides in the faithful adherence to a body of injunctions imposed, the orientation in translation theory must be towards the objective specification of the steps and stages through which the translator works as the source text in the original language is transformed into the target text and the strategies followed; the emphasis is on the process bringing about the translation rather than on the translation itself. (pp. 49-50)

The direct connection between strategies, process research, and translator training was also recently increasingly acknowledged. Chesterman's (2010)²⁷ following statement on translation strategies underlines their role and contribution to translation pedagogy:

[W]e are slowly discovering a lot about how translators actually interact with texts. We are also getting lists of ways in which professionals work differently from novices. Those lists should in turn become menus for "skills to be learned" and that should become the basis for all our translator training programmes. So I see a very direct connection between process and training.

One of the aims of this study is to detect strategies of three FGs of translators as they translate humorous ChL extracts from English into Greek. Supporting process-oriented research, this study accepts what Venuti (2000) stresses below:

The key concept in any translation research and commentary is what I shall call the relative autonomy of translation, the textual features and operations or strategies that distinguish it from the foreign text and from texts initially written in the translating language. These complicated features and strategies are what prevent translating from being unmediated or transparent communication; they both enable and set up obstacles to cross-cultural understanding by working over the foreign text. They substantiate the arguments for the impossibility of translation that recur throughout this century. Yet without some sense of distinctive features and strategies, translation never emerges as an object in its own right. (p. 5)

The focus on translation strategies advances not only TS as a discipline but acknowledges the translator as a key actor whose role is pertinent for analysis. As Fornalczyk (2007) declares: "by their (intentional or not) choice of strategies, translators seem to have a power of shaping the image of the source language culture among the readers of the translations" (p. 94) and he concludes by saying that "every book has an implied ideology and in the case of translated literature it is the translator who interprets (and potentially changes) the author's ideology" (ibid.). The translator therefore wields his power through his choice of strategies.

In the next chapter, humour translation (HT) will be discussed as it is another main field of ChLT studies and of this study.

²⁷ Available at: http://www.tinet.cat/~apym/on-line/research_methods/2010_interview.pdf – last accessed 30/07/2011

Chapter 5

Chapter 5

Humour in Children's Literature Translation

“...the sheer difficulty of humour as a concept
may discourage translation researchers...”

(Vandaele, 2002, p. 150)

5.0. Introductory Note

The main interest of this thesis lies in translators' strategies and approaches for translating humour in the process of children's literature translation (ChLT), and the implicit governing norms. Having already discussed norms and strategies in the previous chapters, this chapter will explore humour which, in the context of this study, is seen as a culture-specific concept (CSC) and thus a challenging translation task.

Gelotology (Attardo, 1994; Popa, 2005), also known as humourology, is the study of humour and is regarded as “one of the least understood, though thoroughly studied, phenomena” (Popa, 2005, p. 48). In the context of this study, humour translation (HT), therefore, is seen as a branch of the study of humour and a field that is also heavily under-researched. What is believed about humour in the research world, where it is often seen as a culture-bound element, is well articulated by Alexander (1977): “Humour does not travel well across national boundaries [and] does not always survive translation across languages” (p. 159). Or as Vandaele (2002) puts it, “...the sheer difficulty of humour as a concept may discourage translation researchers...” (p. 150) – a statement that explains the limited research in the field in many language combinations.

HT is a key area explored in this thesis, along with ChLT, translation process research, translation expertise, translators' norms, strategies and approaches. This is a vital step, as TS and humour studies are disciplines that have been long established but their intersections have seldom been explored (Chiaro, 2010), especially in such a way as this thesis proposes.

In what follows, key issues related to the study of humour will be discussed, such as: the definition of humour, theories of humour, typology of humour, and function of humour. These issues are of clear relevance to this study, however, due to the sheer extent of the field of HT and space constraints, only a brief overview can be provided here. In a subsequent section, HT will be discussed, along with prevalent theories, HT norms and strategies, and further long-standing issues. Lastly, the humorous book for children and YA that was chosen for the TAPs experiments in this study will be presented.

5.1. The Study of Humour

5.1.1. Definition(s) of Humour

Humour or 'jocular' (Pelsmaekers & Van Besien, 2002, p. 242) is a concept that has been difficult for scholars to define, regardless of the discipline they belong to. One of the problems in defining humour relates to the fact that the relevant terminology for its description is implicit. According to Collins Cobuild English Dictionary (CCED), (1988) humour can be defined as the "quality of being funny [or] the situations, speech or writings that are thought to be humorous" (p. 824). Focusing on successful humour, Holmes (2000) and Holmes and Marra (2002) indicate that instances of humour are "utterances which are identified by the analyst, on the basis of paralinguistic, prosodic and discoursal clues, as intended by the speaker(s) to be amusing and perceived to be amusing by at least some participants" (p. 69). Clearly, there is a strong element of subjectivity involved in these definitions.

As Kerbrat-Orecchioni (1981) notes, humour is whatever is intended to be funny, even if it might not always be perceived or interpreted as such. This definition is, however, problematic, since measuring intention is never easy; yet the definition remains useful, because it accounts for humour as a fundamentally social phenomenon, as well as one which can vary greatly in different cultures.

Some scholars (Kerbrat-Orecchioni, 1980, 1981; Attardo, 1994; Spanakaki, 2007) suggest that humour ultimately depends on the purpose for which it is used. As Attardo (1994) points out, in the field of literary criticism, for example, there is a need for a classification of humour, as "deconstructing it might help to better define it" (p. 4). The difficulty in defining the concept leads researchers to try and break it down in order to better understand it. However, it could be argued that humour is more than the sum of its parts, and that its components only work when put together.

Nonetheless, in linguistic contexts, broader (and somewhat clearer) definitions are found. Jaskannen (2001), for example, sees humour as “whatever evokes laughter or is felt to be funny” (p. 1), stressing that humour can be deduced from its effect. This is an observation which does not have much in common with Kerbrat-Orecchioni’s (1981) definition, which highlights the issue of intent and whether or not there is intention on the part of the author. This definition is also consistent with other notions of humour which see it as an effect elicited or triggered, its (con)textual causes, and a feeling or experience (e.g., Koestler, 1964; Ruch, 1993, 1998; Vandaele, 2002). This complexity highlights the difficulties inherent in defining such a concept.

Problems in defining what humour is are further discussed by Askildson (2005), who observes that “despite its extent and scope, humour is rarely discussed among language researchers” (p. 45), and by Vandaele (2002), who underlines the concept of humour “is so strong that it has never ceased to confuse humour scholars and challenge a scholarly definition of humour” (p. 153). Perhaps defining the concept is a fruitless attempt. According to Attardo (in Anolli et al., 2001b), humour suffers from “definitional impossibility” (p. 2), and Croce (1903) suggests that “humour is undefinable like all psychological states” (p. 208). Similarly to the situation with defining strategies, here again there is “terminological chaos” (Raskin, 1985, p. 8) in defining humour, mainly due to the numerous terms employed to refer to the concept: “humour, laughter, the comic, the ludicrous, the funny, joke, wit, etc.” (ibid.). One of the pioneers in the academic field of humour, Attardo (in Anolli et al., 2001b), notes that authors frequently tend to amplify and explain “complex terminological distinctions that are bound to crumble at the first close examination. The impossibility of defining the subcategories of a broad class of humorous phenomena has been established” (p. 2). This is notable, because humour is not a new field of study. The fact that, after several decades of scholarly research, clear definitions are still problematic, attests to the sheer difficulty in pinning down the concept.

Scholars have clearly struggled to reach an appropriate definition that would encompass all aspects of humour, and definitions found, more often than not, seem to focus on a certain aspect or combination of aspects. No definition of humour available in the literature encompasses every aspect of this concept, and overly general definitions do not offer much in the way of detailed or useful information (Attardo, 2002).

Nonetheless, some scholars have agreed to a broader, if somewhat vague, explanation/definition of humour. For example, Ruch (1993, 1998) suggests that when a person laughs, smiles, or has a more general experience of humour (i.e. the feeling of humour), then this can be defined as

humour. Whatever that humour feeling is, it creates part of our understanding of the world, and this can be reported by procedures. As a result, although the conceptual complexity of humour is a reality, it can still be analysed and appreciated in terms of its effect:

Humour is used in everyday parlance to refer simultaneously to an effect and its (con)textual causes, an occurrence so normal(ised) that we won't even notice it. This is a trivial issue for ordinary understanding but an annoying and confusing one in the scholarly debate on humour. (Vandaele, 2002, p. 153)

This way of approaching the concept has been criticised for its subjectivity and all-encompassing nature, as it anticipates that anything laughed at becomes humorous.

The British novelist and essayist Arthur Koestler (1964) offers a very general definition of humour as any type of stimulation that elicits the laughter reflex. Translation scholars and practitioners may incline to those definitions of humour which conceptualise it in terms of effect. Indeed, according to Chiaro (2008), the main goal of the translation of verbal humour is to “trigger the same emotional, physical and behavioural response, which means laughter, smiling and exhilaration” (p. 136). A tall order, if one bears in mind the sometimes vast cultural differences in this area.

Some scholars are actively against defining the concept of humour. According to Bergson (1899), “we shall not aim at imprisoning the comic spirit within a definition” (p. 61), because “humour will defy any definition and escape from any prison” (Raskin, 1985, p. 6). For the purposes of this study, the definition of humour as whatever seems to be funny and whatever evokes laughter (Jasnannen, 2001) is accepted as functional. In the following section, theories of humour will be discussed in order to arrive at a clearer understanding of the concept and its application in practice.

5.1.2. Functions of Humour

For Chapman and Foot (1977), humour plays a myriad of roles and serves a number of quite different functions. Being viewed as a cultural characteristic or element of humanity, humour has been studied world-wide for many years now (Holmes, 2005). The academic study of humour cuts across many disciplines: although it has mainly been studied within educational, sociological, psychological, and linguistic contexts, often addressing its entertaining and healing

role (Holmes, 2005), nowadays there is increasing motivation to conduct research on the communicative role of humour (Holmes, 2005; Xeni, 2006d).

In terms of humour and its functions, Nash (1985) points out that “together with the power of speech, the mathematical gift, the gripping thumb, the ability to make tools, humour is a specifying characteristic of humanity” (p. 1). It could be said that humour is an essential part of the human experience and a fundamental aspect of humanity’s unique capacity for language (Kruger, 1996). Humour is conceived as one of the few universals relevant to all peoples and all languages throughout the world (Trachtenberg, 1979; Nash, 1985; Kruger, 1996).

From a linguistic point of view, humour is a figurative language/speech element, or phenomenon, whereas from a socio-cultural perspective, humour is a culturally-shaped process (Xeni, 2000). It is also an act of communication, and, like all other communication acts, it is a culture-specific or culturally-bound phenomenon that may not have its desired effect outside of its specific context, thus it is context-bound (Holmes, 2005). It involves complex power relations and depends upon a specific social and situational context. For Ritchie (2005), “a really good joke expresses some deeper and at least partially suppressed social truth, so that the increase in relevance implicates changes to social and cultural domains” (p. 279). In fact, it is often said that every joke conceals an element of truth, something believed by the person who makes the joke. If it is linked to personal beliefs, and therefore subjective, then humour will change from one context to another, from one person to another. According to Critchley (2002), humour is “local and a sense of humour is usually highly-context specific” (p. 67). What derives from this is that, the main factor that comes into play in terms of successful humour (i.e. when laughter is evoked) is context. Missing parts of this context leads to unsuccessful humour (i.e. when intended laughter or amusement is not evoked).

Humour is a quality that people share. According to Kuiper and Martin (1998), a *sense of humour* (emphasis added) is the ability to experience humour, although the extent to which an individual may find something humorous depends on a variety of complete and relative variables, including geographical location, culture, maturity, level of education, and context. According to Sultanoff (in Schaefer, 2002), a sense of humour can be the ability to perceive one or more of the universal characteristics. Thus, one’s sense of humour involves the capacity to appreciate incongruity, absurdity, an unexpected future, a pleasant surprise, a startle, ‘getting it’, and/or emotional chaos remembered in tranquillity. When discussing the functions of humour, Holmes and Schnurr (2005) detail more fully the essential purposes of humour. According to them,

humour can occur due to mitigating purposes, politeness, relational practice, solidarity, power, and/or deprecation. These are discussed further in the next section.

5.1.3. Types of Humour

Over the years, different types of humour have been identified, classified, and discussed by humourology scholars. Various types of humour have been detected in humour sequences either written or conversational, amongst which repressive, congestive, and supportive humour were found to be particularly significant types by researchers. Priego-Valvere (2005) talks about sick humour, family humour, black humour, death humour, and teasing humour, whereas Farber (2007) mainly talks about derisive humour, emphatic humour, counter-restriction humour, aggressive humour, sexual humour, and nonsense humour. For the purposes of this study, attention will be paid to the following three types that are present in the texts selected for the TAPs sessions: self-effacing humour, unexpected humour, and sarcastic humour. These types of humour will be further explored in section 5.2.

5.1.4. Theories of Humour

Traditionally, the study of humour identifies three main theories of humour (Attardo, 1994; Berger, 1997; Krikmann, 2006). Superiority theory dates back to the Ancient Greek philosophers and suggests that we laugh at others whom we perceive as inferior to ourselves; incongruity theory, originates in philosophy and argues that humour arises when there is an incongruity between what is expected and what occurs; and relief theory, originates in the early psychoanalytic writings of Freud claiming that people joke in order to relieve pent up psychical energies that would otherwise be evident in more damaging ways (Attardo, 1994; Berger, 1997). These three traditional theories have been said to offer useful insights into certain instances of humour (Krikmann, 2006). The first can, for example, provide a good explanation for ethnic humour, the second is useful for explaining why puns and wordplays are funny, and the third can shed light on more political aspects of humour.

For many decades, philosophers and scholars have continued to attempt to classify and to identify strategies to explain humour, which has resulted in a number of reconceptualisations and forming of new theories (e.g., The Theory of Repressed Desires was suggested to replace The Relief Theory) (cf. Kuiper and Martin, 1998). One of the 'new' lines of theory to emerge in the 1980s/1990s was the one followed by a number of linguists who attempted to produce linguistic theories of humour. In his book *Linguistic Theories of Humour*, Attardo (1994) sheds some light on the various linguistic theories of humour that have been produced, dividing them into four main

categories: structuralist, semiotic, sociolinguistic, and script-based. These theories emerge from different standpoints but often cover a great deal of common ground. The most prominent amongst these were the sociolinguistic theories which study humour in context, and the Semantic Script Theory of Humour (SSTH) that provided the academic world with a tool for analysing jokes. Attardo and Raskin's (1991) endeavours to provide a tool that could be applied to the analysis of other genres, and from a global perspective, resulted in a revised edition of the SSTH called General Theory of Verbal Humour (GTVH) (cf. Attardo & Ruskin, 1991). The latter proposal is acknowledged in the academic world as a promising attempt to approach the topic from a global perspective.

A common problem detected in the attempts to theoretise humour is their powerlessness to explain humour in its entirety. Added to this, is their incapability to clarify sufficiently its myriad of forms and functions, or offer anything approaching a complete explanation. Yet, as Anthony Chapman and Hugh Foote (1977) note, although various theories of humour have been presented as all-embracing, none have gained widespread acceptance. For these scholars, it seems that no general theory will ever be successfully applied to the human race as a whole as long as its members display such vast differences with respect to their humour receptiveness (Chapman & Hugh Foote, 1977). In the same vein, Krikmann (2006) highlights that many contemporary researchers regard humour in its totality as too huge and multifaceted a phenomenon to be sufficiently captured in a single integrated theory.

What is frequently underlined is the contemporary researchers' belief that, until now, no general theory has managed to theoretise humour successfully as it is seen as a multifaceted phenomenon. As humour is mostly culture-bound, this adds a level of difficulty for researchers. However, this may also open pathways for context-bound theories of humour that might be able to approach the subject more effectively. In the following section, further aspects of the study of humour as a multifaceted phenomenon will be presented, whereas the translation of humour as a possible connector of humourology and TS will be discussed.

5.1.5. Humour Translation

As a result of the difficulties inherent in understanding and defining the concept of humour outlined above, the process of translating humour is not made any easier (Laurian, 1992; Hutcheon, 1994; Martinez-Bartolomé, 1995; Chiaro, 2006; Spanakaki, 2007). Humour is a problematic area in TS, and it thus needs to be studied as a specific problem (Spanakaki, 2007). In

the context of this study, humour is seen as a culture-bound concept, is explored as such in the following section.

5.1.5.1. Humour Translation Theories

In TS theoretical approaches humour is considered as a CSC (Vandaele, 2002; Asimakoulas, 2004). The functional approach to translation is one that has gained much ground in the context of HT, with emphasis placed on the effect on target readers, which is seen as the *skopos* of the humorous text (cf. Reiss & Vermeer, 1984). In the framework of a functional approach, the translated text is intended to influence the target recipient in a similar way as the ST influences the source recipient. This is consistent with Vandaele's (2002) effect approach, which focuses on the final effect, indicating that a humorous text should be amusing for the target recipient in a corresponding way to how it is for the source recipient. Moreover, the culture turn in TS marked a new era in HT theories (Muñoz-Calvo et al., 2008). This emphasised a view of humour as a CSC and thus encouraged its handling carefully in the process of translation, now also considered to be a complex cultural enterprise. Humour as a CSC will be explored in the discussion below.

5.1.5.2. Translating Humour as Culture-Specific Concept (CSC)

In different cultures, people laugh about different things. There is a gap between recipients from various cultural systems, which “manifests itself in different objects of jokes” (Vandaele, 2002, pp. 163-165). Crafting a translation of humour from one language to another is already a challenge, but to translate that humour for a totally different/far removed culture is a most difficult task (Jankowska, 2009). In this section, issues arising in the process of translating CSCs, such as humour, will be critically reviewed.

Even though the world of translation experienced a ‘culture turn’, there is still very little consensus on how to define, translate, and teach culture (i.e. cultural awareness, cultural competence) in translation pedagogy and other environments. A brief review of the published work reveals concerns regarding how to incorporate cultural issues in the translation classroom. Quoting Bassnet (1993), “the translator must tackle the SL text in such a way that the TL version will correspond to the SL version (...). To attempt to impose the value system of the SL culture onto the TL culture, is dangerous ground” (p. 23). Thus, when translating, it is important to consider not only the lexical impact on the TL reader, but also the manner in which cultural aspects may be perceived, and make translating decisions accordingly. Undertaking the task to translate CSCs is not easy, and theories do not seem to provide solutions on how to include the component of cultural competence within translational competence (Newmark, 1980, 1988).

One of the first to emphasise the importance of cultural issues in both theory and practice, Newmark (1980) states that “translation theory attempts to give some insight into the relation between thought, meaning, and language; the universal, cultural and individual aspects of language and behaviour, the understanding of cultures (...)” (pp. 1-2).

Although there was a lack of theories in this particular area of TS for a long while (Newmark, 1981; Vandaele, 2002; Jankowska, 2009; etc.), much progress has now been made to include the cultural aspect in the training and theory of translation. Various methods, procedures, strategies, suggestions, and guidelines, the majority of which will be presented below, have made an essential contribution to this specific area of culture in translation, although these have not yet provided a rigorous methodology for the study of CSCs. Despite the fact that examples of theories referring to culture translation can be encountered, scholars and practitioners are in search of a valid and comprehensive theory (Newmark, 1981). Instead, suggested methodologies, approaches, and procedures are what this research finds to function as guidance for translating culture-specific and culture-bound texts. Culture itself is still often viewed as a monolithic aspect (which it is not) and essential aspects of translation pedagogy (i.e. theory versus methodology, strategy versus procedure) are still regarded as confusing, making things harder for translator trainers (see also Chapter 4, section 4.1., p. 105).

As suggested previously (see Chapter 4, section 4.1. p. 105), there is evidence that a lack of a theory, or theory-driven methodology, leads to inadequate teaching and poor textbooks (cf. Newmark, 1981). A lack of comprehensive translation theories tackling cultural concepts impacts on translation pedagogy, and therefore, on students, who are in need of strategies and guidance for translating cultural references. As Kussmaul (1995) stresses, if TS students/trainees are provided with translation strategies, there is a greater chance that they will arrive at successful solutions.

In the following section, suggestions on how to translate CSCs are critically presented. These will then lead to specific strategies on how to translate humour, the CSC explored in this study.

Defining culture-bound terms as those which “refer to concepts, institutions and personnel which are specific to the SL culture”, Harvey (2000, p. 2) puts forward the following four major techniques for their translation:

- **Functional Equivalence:** this means using a referent in the TL culture whose function is similar to that of the source language (SL) referent. As Harvey (2000) writes, authors “are divided over the merits of this technique” (p. 2). Weston (1991) describes it as “the ideal method of translation” (p. 23), while Sarcevic (1985) asserts that it is “misleading and should be avoided” (p. 131).
- **Formal Equivalence or ‘linguistic equivalence’:** this entails a ‘word-for-word’ translation. As a longstanding debated issue in translation practice, this comes second in Harvey’s hierarchy, as he argues that it is not always achievable.
- **Transcription or ‘borrowing’** (i.e. reproducing or, where necessary, transliterating the original term): this strategy stands at the far end of SL-oriented strategies. If the term is formally transparent, or is explained in the context, it may be used alone. In other cases, particularly where no knowledge of the SL by the reader is presumed, transcription is accompanied by an explanation or a translator’s note.
- **Descriptive or self-explanatory translation:** this method uses general terms to convey the meaning. It is appropriate in a wide variety of contexts where formal equivalence is considered insufficiently clear. In a text aimed at a specialised reader, it can help to add the original SL term to avoid ambiguity.

Graedler (2000) also suggests certain techniques for procedures of translating CSCs. These include: making up a new word, explaining the meaning of the SL expression in lieu of translating it, preserving the SL term intact, and opting for a word in the TL which seems similar to, or has the same “relevance”, as the SL term (ibid., p. 3). Graedler’s (2000) suggestions are not dissimilar to Harvey’s (2000), and also imply that CSCs can be translated with the help of specific techniques.

In line with Harvey (2000) and Graedler (2000), Newmark (1988) notes that:

[t]he central problem of translating has always been whether to translate literally or freely. The argument has been going on since at least the first century BC. Up to the beginning of the nineteenth century, many writers favoured some kind of ‘free’ translation: the spirit, not the letter; the sense not the words; the message rather than the form: the matter not the manner. This was often revolutionary slogan of writers who wanted the truth to be read and understood. (...). Then at

the turn of the eighteenth century, when the study of cultural anthropology suggested that the linguistic barriers were insuperable and that language was entirely the product of culture, the view that translation was impossible gained some currency, and with it that, if attempted at all, it must be as literal as possible. (p. 45)

Newmark did not keep his concerns at the level of theory but extended these ideas to a practical level, providing a list of methods for translating cultural references: 1. Word-for-word translation, 2. Literal Translation, 3. Faithful Translation, 4. Semantic Translation, 5. Adaptation, 6. Free Translation, 7. Idiomatic Translation, and 8. Communicative Translation.

What is important to note about this list is that it is the minimised version of a list of eleven possibilities he provided eight years before, for guiding the translator on how to translate culture bound elements and regulating his decision-making: 1. Transference; 2. Cultural Equivalent; 3. Neutralisation (i.e. functional or descriptive equivalent); 4. Literal Translation; 5. Label; 6. Naturalisation; 7. Componential analysis; 8. Deletion (or redundant stretches of language in non-authoritative texts, especially metaphors and intensifiers); 9. Couplet; 10. Accepted standard translation; and 11. Paraphrase, gloss, notes, etc.

Interestingly, Newmark is concerned with regulating the translator's decision-making, providing him with suggestions that are as specific as possible so as to manage the hard task of translating CSCs.

In 1988, Newmark (1988b, pp. 82-91 and p. 114) proposed slightly modified procedures to try to eliminate problems deriving from the translation of CSCs, and to thereby assist the translator at a practical level:

- Transference: this is the process of transferring a SL word to a TL text. It includes transliteration and is the same as what Harvey (2000, p. 5) dubs "transcription"
- Naturalisation: this procedure is to adapt the SL word first to the 'normal' pronunciation and then to the normal morphology of the TL
- Cultural equivalent: this implies replacing a cultural word in the SL with a TL one
- Functional equivalent: this entails the use of a culture-neutral word
- Descriptive equivalent: this is a procedure, where the meaning of the CBT is explained or explicated with several words

- Componential analysis: this means comparing an SL word with a TL word which has a similar meaning but is not an obvious one-to-one equivalent, by demonstrating first their common and then their differing sense components
- Synonymy: this is a procedure where a 'near TL equivalent' is found. Here economy trumps accuracy
- Through-translation: this is the literal translation of common collocations, names of organisations and components of compounds. It can also be called calque or loan translation.
- Shifts or transpositions: these methods involve a change in the grammar from SL to TL, for instance, change from singular to plural, the change required when a specific SL structure does not exist in the TL, change of an SL verb to a TL word, change of an SL noun group to a TL noun, and so forth
- Modulation: this occurs when the translator reproduces the message of the original text in the TL text in conformity with the current norms of the TL, since the SL and the TL may appear dissimilar in terms of perspective
- Recognised translation: this occurs when the translator normally uses the official or the generally accepted translation of any institutional term
- Compensation: this occurs when loss of meaning in one part of a sentence is compensated in another part
- Paraphrase: this is a procedure, where the meaning of the CBT is explained. Here the explanation is much more detailed than that of descriptive equivalent
- Couplets: these occur when the translator combines two different procedures
- Notes: these entail additional information in a translation. They can appear in the form of 'footnotes', although some consider a translation sprinkled with footnotes difficult to follow and aesthetically unpleasant; nonetheless, their use can assist the TT readers to better understand the ST. Nida (1964, pp. 237-239) advocates the use of footnotes to fulfill the two following functions: to provide supplementary information, and to call attention to the original's discrepancies

Clearly, the more Newmark provided suggestions on how to manage CSCs, the more practical (and prescriptive) his guidance became. Nonetheless it was criticised by Mailhac (in Hoffmann, 1996) due to its regulatory nature and constraints on the translator:

Newmark's presentation (1988) in the chapter on translation and culture is not satisfactory either in spite of its merits. Putting forward a list of twelve procedures (p.104), he gives out inadequate distinctions that if they would work better could lead to repetitions or substantial overlaps and thereby become counter-productive in operational terms. (pp. 137-38)

In a similar vein to Newmark (1988), but nearly a decade later, another list of translation techniques of a practical form outlined by Fawcett (1997) included the following: borrowing, calque, literal translation, transposition, modulation, reformulation (sometimes known as equivalence), adaptation, and compensation (cf. Fawcett, 1997, pp. 34-41). This list, although shorter, manages to include a range of aspects existing in most attempts to systematise translation strategies.

According to Klaudy (2003), translators usually develop their own individual strategies to overcome difficulties that result from the differences between the languages they work with. Challenged with the task of translating cultural references, the translator will have a number of options available to him: "procedures and parameters [in addition to his] strategies" (Mailhac in Hoffmann, 1996, p. 133).

Interestingly, Mailhac (in Hoffmann, 1996) speaks of strategies instead of guidelines, revealing directly the substantial difference between the two, as seen in Chapter 4 (see section 4.1., p. 105). Although guidelines are of a regulatory nature and they take many liberties away from the translator, the most important of which is the valuable opportunity to think and make conscious applications, strategies do provide this chance. As seen in Chapter 4 (see section 4.1., p. 105), a strategy involves critical and strategic thinking, approving and disapproving options, and making conscious choices. A strategy gives power to the translator, who is presented more as self-regulatory rather than guided by suggestions. Quoting Kussmaul (1995), "we are in need of strategies for translating cultural references (...) if subjects have been provided with translation strategies, there is a greater chance that they will arrive at good solutions" (p. 9). In the context of this study, the TAPs methodology will attempt to detect the strategies translators employ when translating humour in ChL, revealing aspects of the translation process that enrich the scientific field of translation process research and have implications for translation pedagogy and practice (Chapter 11). A precise model for detecting the presence of HT norms and strategies will be presented in sections 5.1.5.5. (see Table 5.1., p. 151) and 5.1.5.6. (see Table 5.3., p. 156) below, following a brief discussion of problems encountered in the process of translating humour.

5.1.5.3. Problems in the Process of Translating Humour as a Culture-Specific Concept

In the lines below, commonly acknowledged issues in the translation of CSCs will be discussed, such as comprehensibility, appreciation, decoding, (re-)production, and sense transfer. These are critically reviewed as long-standing problems arising in the process of translating humour as a CSC, so as to better understand what could be affecting translators at work in this study.

5.1.5.3.1. Comprehensibility

A first problem a translator encounters when translating humour is comprehensibility (Jaskannen, 1999; 2001). In terms of perception, the translator has to understand the joke (Jaskannen, 1999, 2001; Vandaele, 2002; Xeni, 2006e). Then, not only does he have to judge whether the target reader would understand the particular humourous situation in its current form in the TT, but he also needs to assess whether that humourous situation functions as humour in the target language (TL) and target culture (TC). Thus, as humour is presented as a social languacultural characteristic/element/tool, the translation of humour should follow the norms accepted in the target languaculture (Jaskannen, 1999, 2001). Balancing between source languaculture restrictions and target languaculture demands, the translator of humour is engaged in what could be compared with an exercise in tightrope walking, in that the immediacy of effect can easily be lost (Jaskannen, 2001).

5.1.5.3.2. Appreciation

Along with understanding humour, the issue of appreciation is seen as problematic in the context of HT. A number of scholars (e.g., Vandaele 2002; Chiaro, 2006; Spanakaki, 2007) have noted that the appreciation of humour varies from individual to individual. To Vandaele (2002), this “is very much dependent on the translator’s sense of humour; that is the translator’s recognition of a comic instance” (p. 150). Also, translators may appreciate humour and be sensitive to it, but for several reasons they may be unable to reproduce it (issues of production and reproduction as well as bicultural competence are discussed in sections 5.1.5.3.4. and 5.1.5.4.1. below). In some cases, even though they appreciate what is humourous, they may face certain dilemmas where they need to decide whether to translate a bad joke or just produce a funny effect (Spanakaki, 2007).

5.1.5.3.3. Decoding

When discussing the concept of decoding, Jaskannen (2001) names a further factor that makes the translation of humour one of the most difficult branches of translation. According to Jaskannen (1999, 2001), in the process of translating humour, the translator undertakes the complex task of

decoding the verbal humour in the ST and then recoding it into the TT. As humour can be subjective in terms of detection and perception, and thus can be interpreted differently by different people, the translator needs to act in such a way so as to avoid any aspect of influence. This will enable him to reach the main goal, which is, according to Chiaro (2008), “to trigger the same emotional, physical and behavioural response, which means laughter, smiling, and exhilaration” (p. 136). The element of decoding is related to issues of (re-)production.

5.1.5.3.4. Production and Reproduction

An additional problem linked to the translation of humour is that of production and reproduction (Vandaele, 2002; Spanakaki, 2007). When translating, translators should explore humorous effects, study their textual causes, and try to place their reproduction efforts in perspective in order to produce the same impact (Spanakaki, 2007). However, reproducing humour in translation has been identified as a tremendously difficult task to achieve (Attardo, 1997; Spanakaki, 2007; Chiaro, 2008, 2010). According to Vandaele (2002), there are cases when individuals may be very sensitive to humour but unable to (re-)produce it successfully. As he puts it: “translators may experience its compelling effect on themselves and others (laughter) but feel unable to reproduce it [as] humour reproduction is talent-related, not learnable (hence not teachable)” (p. 151). The idea that the translator may need to possess innate skills has recently been the topic of research studies (e.g., Hubscher-Davidson, 2009), and is an avenue for further research.

5.1.5.3.5. Sense-Transfer

Another problematic element linked to the translation of humour is sense and sense-transfer (Vandaele, 2002), which are closely related to issues of comprehensibility of humour. Usually, full understanding of a particular instance of humour, can be achieved *a posteriori*, that is, in order for the translator to understand the meaning of a humorous incident, he needs to look back to its causes, both linguistic and otherwise, and reflect on its implications, intended and unintended effects, so as to adequately transfer its sense (ibid.). As Vandaele (2002) points out, “this is possible in the case of researchers and translators [but] for interpreters, especially simultaneous interpreters it is difficult” (p. 155).

These problems result from attempts to translate humour as a CSC, and the subsequent comprehensibility, appreciation, decoding, (re-)production, and sense-transfer, can have deeply-rooted causes and important consequences for HT, some of which will be discussed below.

5.1.5.4. Long-Standing Issues Caused by Problems in Humour Translation

The aforementioned problems that can be encountered in the process of HT raise several issues relevant to this study due to their potential impact on translation behaviour. Competence (bicultural competence), translatability versus untranslatability and shifts of meaning are discussed below.

5.1.5.4.1. Issues of Competence: The Case of Bicultural Competence

In the context of HT, issues of competence are often encountered (Chiaro, 2008; 2010). As seen above, there are cases when translators, though sensitive to humour, are unable to (re-)produce it successfully (Vandaele, 2002; Chiaro, 2008, 2010). While Vandaele (2002) speaks about the unteachability of humour (re-)production, he acknowledges that: “the comprehension and appreciation of humour and humour production are two distinct skills” (p. 150). Seeing humour comprehension and appreciation as ‘skills’ directly provides possibilities for teaching them, as in the pedagogical context, skills are considered teachable and are indeed taught. This is also a viewpoint supported in this thesis: skills that translators need to acquire in order to be competent are, and should be, taught during training. Strategies play a major role in the teachability of these skills, as they are conceived as the means to transfer any knowledge, including skills. Detecting the application of HT strategies in ChLT is consistent with the second research question of this study. HT strategies are an issue discussed in 5.1.5.6. below (p. 151), whereas the findings of the study are presented, analysed and discussed in Chapters 9 and 10.

In the context of translating CSC, Niedzielski (1990) discusses the issue of competence, and the perceived need for bicultural competence, which he sees as a prerequisite to the retention of humour. As he remarks, “since humour is closely linked to a given sociocultural community, the basic challenge of translating humour consists in establishing this linkage between humour and socio-cultural knowledge in two linguistic communities” (Niedzielski, 1990, p. 387). Humour, being acknowledged as context-bound, it becomes a necessity for the translator to understand the socio-cultural context in which it is based. Bicultural competence is therefore a necessary condition for the successful translation of humour

5.1.5.4.2. Issues of Translatability versus Untranslatability of Humour

Bruździak (2009) underlines that linguistic and cultural differences between communities create: “the most serious problem that a translator of humour has to cope with. For the reason of these dissimilarities, a translator may find translating culture-oriented humour immensely complicated

or in some cases, even impossible” (p. 2). Echoing Bruzdziak, Catford (1965) distinguishes between two types of untranslatability: linguistic untranslatability that occurs when “there is no lexical or syntactical substitute in the TL for a SL item” and cultural untranslatability that is a result of “the absence in the TL culture of a relevant situation feature for the SL text” (Catford in Bassnet, 1980, p. 32).

Popović (as cited in Bassnett, 1980) highlights two types of untranslatability that are different from Bruzdziak’s and Catford’s. With the first type, he refers to “a situation in which the linguistic elements of the original cannot be replaced adequately in structural, linear, functional or semantic terms in consequence of a lack of denotation or connotation” (Popović as cited in Bassnett, 1980, p. 34). With the second type, he refers to “a situation where the relation between the creative subject and its linguistic expression in the original does not find an adequate linguistic expression in the translation” (ibid.). Both of Popović’s types are somehow akin to a linguistic untranslatability.

In keeping with scholars supporting the untranslatability of humour, Sierra-Martínez (2005) and Jankowska (2009) aptly notice that, once translated, humour – e.g., jokes – can suffer not only from quantitative but also qualitative losses or changes. Regardless of the language and translation method, the TTs tend to be less humorous than the source text in terms of containing fewer humorous elements or less funny ones. This shows that not all the elements are rendered on a one to one basis, thus giving some weight to the notion of untranslatability.

Commenting on the previous approaches, Attardo (2002) articulates that these difficulties make translation “impossible in principle” (p. 191), whereas Newmark (1988b), although he avoids speaking of absolute untranslatability of humour as a CSC, talks about a task that is not easy. Newmark (1988b) underlines that translation as a process and the translated text as a product cannot be “isolated from the concept of culture” (p. 32). According to him, “culture specific items can be recognised quickly, since they are removed from target language culture, they are peculiar to the source language and cannot be translated easily” (Newmark, 1988b, p. 32). As he comments, “cultural differences are more problematic than linguistic differences in the process of translation. It is possible to find equivalents for linguistic differences by means of clarification and explanation, but cultural differences are not easily translatable” (ibid.). Although Newmark leaves a window open for the translatability of CSCs in general, and humour in particular, he does clarify that the process of translating CSC is acknowledged as a difficult task.

From Eco's (2001) perspective, however, cultural differences enable translation. This is a conclusion Muhawi (2002, p. 363) also reached when discussing the significant role that interpretation plays in the act of translation. Quoting Eco (2001):

As a matter of fact [in translating] we bring into play not only two languages but also two cultures. In doing so – that is, by increasing the number of variables – we are not increasing but rather reducing the rate of indeterminacy and are helped in trying to reach a reasonable interpretative decision. (p. 61)

Therefore, it could be that through the translation of CSCs it becomes somewhat easier to interpret and render meanings clearly. In line with other scholars supporting the translatability of humour (e.g., Laurian, 1992; Popa, 2005; Spanakaki, 2007), Muhawi (2002) argues that one of the reasons humour can feasibly be translated is the fact that it is “saturated with culture” (p. 363). As he puts it: “[m]etalinguistic humour is itself a semiotic system whose rhetoric opens a door on to culture. That very openness, I think (following up on Eco's train of thought) leaves room for interpretation, and hence improves the prospects for translation” (Muhawi, 2002, p. 363).

The present study accepts the fact that humour is a challenging task for the translator to undertake, but as others have done (e.g., Laurian, 1992; Muhawi, 2002; Asimakoulas, 2004; Popa, 2005; Bell in Lathey, 2006; Spanakaki, 2007), it also acknowledges that humour can, more often than not, be translated effectively and successfully depending on the skill of the translator.

5.1.5.4.3. Issue of Shifts of Meaning

In addition to the above-mentioned translational difficulties connected with humour, the translation of a humorous text may involve shifts of meaning (Popovič, 1970; Bakker et al., 2000; Bruździak, 2009). The term ‘shifts’, refers to changes that may occur between ST and TT in the process of translation (Bakker et al., 2000, p. 226). According to Popovič (1970), in the framework of translation, a shift is everything that “appears as new with respect to the original, or fails to appear where it might have been expected (...)” (p. 79). The most common shifts are obligatory and optional shifts (Popovič, 1970; Bakker et al., 2000; Bruździak, 2009). Obligatory shifts are linked to the deviations existing between two linguistic systems, while the latter are related to ideological, stylistic, or cultural reasons. Shifts can also be considered in terms of a negative or a positive approach (Bakker et al., 2000). The former are unnecessary transformations of a ST that should be avoided by translators, whereas the latter are indispensable changes, constituting a way of dealing with systemic dissimilarities (ibid., pp. 226-230).

The issues mentioned in this section can be encountered in the process of HT. A reference back to issues that translators face when translating humour in ChL will be made in the analysis of the findings of the study (Chapter 9).

5.1.5.5. Humour Translation Norms

Humour translation (HT) norms are, along with strategies, issues generating ongoing discussions in the studies of HT and are linked to the research questions and aims of this study. Thus in the following lines an attempt will be made to explore the main aspects of both these issues. Starting with HT norms, it will be interesting to identify these and then discuss whether they differ from general translation norms.

Although one would expect that what arises as a big issue when discussing HT norms is the demanding and perhaps impossible nature of the task of translating humour, Vandaele (2002) states that it is not too difficult to “unearth a number of normative principles underlying translation choices when translating humour” (p. 298). When investigating HT norms underlying the use of strategies, Vandaele (2002) suggests that the most prevalent norm is that of ‘morality’, demanding for the translation outcome to be decent and “for norms to relate to the theories of humour” (p. 280), making sure that successful HT is based on norms.

According to Martinez-Bartolomé (1995), prevalent norms in the realm of HT are said to be the following: equivalency (typology, morphology, lexis, style, semantics, etc.), naturalness, and producing a translation that is logical and makes sense. Chiaro (1992) adds that the respect of both “style and form” (p. 85) seem to be the two prevalent norms in this area of TS.

This study aims to reveal key norms for HT in the context of ChLT and will attempt to highlight the close relation that the translator’s norms and strategies have in the process of translation (see Chapters 9 and 10).

An attempt to review critically HT norms presented in TS (Chiaro, 1992; Martinez-Bartolomé, 1995; Vandaele, 2002) reveals that norms necessitated particularly for HT do not differ from norms required for translation in general and ChLT in more specific terms (see Chapter 3, section 3.1., p. 73). The norm of morality is encountered in the discussion of general translation norms (cf. Chesterman, 1997) and ChLT in both the academic (cf. Klingberg, 1987; Shavit, 1986; Fernández López in Lathey, 2006; and Stolt in Lathey, 2006) and non-academic worlds (Martin, 2001). This

underlines its importance in the process of translation and in the context of TS in general. As the norm of morality/ethicity has been central in the discussions of TS, its diachronic nature is also underlined.

Speaking of norms in HT, Watson (2002) highlights another important norm-related issue in TS: the norm of amusement/entertainment. Watson notes that, since the purpose of a humorous book is to amuse, the skopos of the translator of humour is to elicit a similar reaction from the readers. Watson talks about two limiting parameters which reveal hidden norms: amusement, which should take priority over the form of the ST, and faithfulness to the ST. Equivalence is also a norm, since it is underlined that the ST and TT should resemble each other as closely as possible and have, as much as possible, the same humorous impact. As he concludes, “any translation has to strike a balance somewhere between these two imperatives of literal faithfulness and entertainment value”²⁸. Whereas in many cases, adherence to target-culture norms is considered to be another essential norm, so that it becomes possible to recreate “in the TL text those features of the SL text that are relevant for the text to function for a certain purpose; i.e. to elicit laughter” (Kusssmaul, 1995, p. 90). It is thus believed that the translator cannot be both entirely faithful and humorous but needs to compromise.

In discussing HT, some have stressed the need for the successful recreation of the humorous impact (Attardo, 1994; Jaskennen, 1999; Popa, 2005; Chiaro, 2008). With culture-specific elements, such as humour, translation becomes a challenging communication act (Chiaro, 2008). In order to achieve valid, effective and successful communication, translators should seriously take into consideration the thoughts, beliefs, attitudes and values of different cultures, avoiding in such a way a failure in creating the humorous impact. Such failure will lead to misunderstandings in cross-cultural communication, something that is a constant challenge for translation theorists, and for translators who are trying to bridge the gaps between SL texts and TL texts. As Candlin (1990) points out: “the translation process asks us to explore our ideologically and culturally-based assumptions about all those matters on which we utter, in speech or in writing, or in signs” (pp. vii-x). Concurring with Candlin (1990), Fangzahn (2005) affirms that:

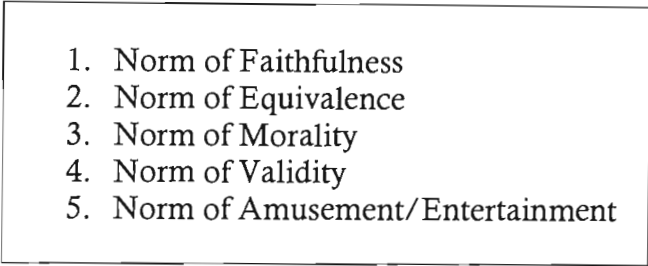
Cross cultural communication requires that translators should transfer the cultural message of the source language to the target readers, both faithfully and validly.

²⁸ Available at: http://www.ata-divisions.org/ILD/Tradurre_November_2002.PDF– last accessed 30/07/2011

And therefore, translators should not only respect the source culture, but also the target culture, and help bring about communication between the members of different linguistic and cultural communities. (p. 1)

The discussion on HT norms in this section, as they are presented in relevant literature in the field of TS, highlighted the following HT norms, which are visually represented in the figure below:

Figure 5.1.
Humour Translation Norms

- 
1. Norm of Faithfulness
 2. Norm of Equivalence
 3. Norm of Morality
 4. Norm of Validity
 5. Norm of Amusement/Entertainment

As the figure shows, the most obvious norms regulating HT in terms of adherence to the ST and recreating the same impact are faithfulness and equivalence. In terms of a 'decent' translation outcome that will adhere to TLC norms, the key translation norm is morality, and in terms of achieving effective and successful communication, as well as conforming to humour theories, the prominent translation norm is validity.

For the most part, these norms do not seem to be dissimilar to the list of translation norms inspired by Desmidt (2006) (see Chapter 3, Table 3.2., p. 100). Comparing Desmidt's list to the list devised after reviewing the relevant literature on HT norms (see Figure 5.1. above), it can be argued that while faithfulness, equivalency (in this study, equivalence), and validity can be incorporated in source-text norms, and morality can be encompassed with didactic norms, **amusement/entertainment** (emphasis added) is the only norm that does not immediately find a place in the list. This norm is linked to the specific concept of humour in ChL and ChLT that is seen as a CSC. In the context of ChL, one of the roles and purposes of humour is to amuse and entertain children. In the context of ChLT, the humorous source text has to create equivalent impact. Thus, it can be said that, due to its intended purpose, function, and need for adequacy in relation to the ST, the norm of amusement and entertainment can be included within the source text-oriented norms, alongside faithfulness, equivalence, and validity. With the addition of the amusement/entertainment norm in the source-oriented norms, the list on norms governing HT strategies in the context of ChLT can be said to be more comprehensive:

Table 5.1.
Humour Translation Norms in the Context of ChLT

Humour Translation Norms in the Context of Children's Literature Translation					
source-text oriented norms	literary norms	didactic norms	pedagogical norms	business norms	technical norms
norms of fidelity/faithfulness, equivalence, accuracy, exactness, adherence to the original text, adequacy, reliability, validity, amusement/entertainment	norms concerning the aesthetic aspect, acceptability	norms focused on the moral aspect	norms that concern adjustments of language, readability, speakability, appropriateness understanding	norms of commercial nature, editing, publishing, distribution	norms that refer to design making, illustrations, layouts, etc.

The key thing to note above is that the norm of amusement/entertainment is closely related to the nature and purpose of humour itself, as it is a CSC. As HT norms and strategies in the context of ChLT are the focus of this study, a reference to this list as a part of the framework for analysis will be made in Chapters 8, 9, and 10, where the study will be described and the results will be presented, analysed, and discussed.

In the following section, the strategies and the decision-making processes of translators as they translate humour will be discussed.

5.1.5.6. Humour Translation Strategies

Although humour can be considered problematic in terms of translation, the present study will aim to demonstrate that certain strategies that are governed by particular norms can be employed to successfully translate humour, and they can indicate ways to resolve issues encountered in this area. In this section, suggested strategies for managing the problematic task of HT as they derive from the existing literature will be presented.

In an earlier part of the thesis, drawing from Attardo (2002), translators' choices and how they are influenced by various factors, such as the nature of the text, culture, the target language (TL), and the source language (SL), etc., were discussed. With regards to translating humour effectively, Attardo (2002) suggests five main strategies: reproducing, substitution, domestication, omission and compensation. Reproducing is employed when the format of a joke that exists in the source culture (SC) cannot be found in the target culture (TC). In that case, the translator reproduces the joke (Attardo, 2002, p. 186). Reproducing links to domestication, which is applied so as to make a certain joke from the ST amusing for the target recipient. The aim of this strategy

is to produce a TT as similar to the non-translated text as possible. Substitution is the strategy employed when replacing a joke from the SL with a different one that will be comprehensible and amusing for the target recipient in the TC. This strategy is similar to reproducing, as it is applied due to cultural differences. According to Attardo (2002), substitution is, in other words, a free translation. As he puts it, while substitution is not a translation at the semantic level, it can be successful as long as it “elicits the laughter that the speaker was seeking” (Attardo, 2002, p. 189). The fourth strategy, omission, is used in the most intricate cases, when a translator cannot possibly manage to render a joke into the TL. Lastly, compensation, which is linked to omission, is employed when the translator compensates for the loss of a non-translated joke by introducing another joke, which does not exist in the ST, in a different part of the text. According to Bruździak (2009), omission and compensation can be seen as ‘gain and loss’ in the process of translation. A non-translated joke in the TT is conceived as a loss in translation, whereas a joke introduced in another part of the TT serves to “compensate for the previous loss” (Gottlieb, 1997, p. 222).

Raphaelson-West (1989) argues that no rule exists on the handling of a translation area such as HT. Although she states that HT decisions are made on a case-by-case basis, and knowing that literature on HT strategies is limited. She consequently suggests that the translator has three main options when it comes to the transfer of humour: omissions, literal translation, and adaptation. Omission is something that might affect the meaning and cause textual changes. So in the case of literal translation, which can entail a loss of humour when words are retained, she suggests adding a footnote to explain the meaning of the joke in the source language, especially if humour is important to the text and to the reader’s understanding. For the last option, she recommends adaptation of humour, creating in this way a similar atmosphere or sense.

Along with these three strategies, Raphaelson-West (1989) made some important remarks. To her, a translator needs to be aware that there are times when the translation might not always be as humorous as the original. It is true that awareness of this may go some way to alleviate the uncertainty or guilt felt by a translator. According to her, it is essential to keep the cultural context in mind so as to locate the humorous aspect of the text and provide explanations on this aspect. Raphaelson-West not only suggests the use of explanatory translation as a strategy to translate humour to retain as much cultural information as possible, but she also supports free translation. As she underlines, if the humorous incident is amusing in one language but not in the TL it may be easier to write a new TL-based joke, instead of trying to translate the original. Therefore, already in the 1980s, some fairly practical advice was being given to translators of humour.

Nearly two decades later, the strategies proposed by scholars have remained very similar. Leppihalme (1996b) advises the translator to either choose an equivalent translation, a translation different in form, or a free translation. For her, when translating humour, the translator has essentially three options available: produce a TT with the same cultural element (e.g., keep the wordplay), create some other rhetorical device (e.g., irony), or omit the cultural element altogether (cf. Leppihalme 1996b).

Adding his own reflections to the debate, Vandaele (2002) proposes that humour can be kept, changed (i.e. replaced), or deleted, either because it is considered immoral (subversion) or amoral (inappropriate tone). According to Vandaele, aggressive humour can be changed or preserved depending on the specific identity of the target reader. Although providing a taxonomy of possible situations along with translation reactions is not his aim, elaborating on possible explanations, Vandaele (2002) makes an attempt to provide the following four categories of humour translation strategies with the help of a text corpus:

1. Humour is changed or deleted because of immorality of incongruity-superiority: incongruity is not seen as innocent, but it is moralised and brought into the field of superiority
2. Humour is replaced by morality because of amorality of incongruity: innocent incongruity is not acceptable as such in moral circumstances
3. Humour is changed (or kept) because of wrong (or right) targets of superiority
4. Humour is kept because the incongruities are perceived as completely innocent (p. 280)

So, as can be seen, Vandaele's categorisation and analysis goes one step further than that of previous scholars, because he provides a thorough list where he not only highlights prominent strategies for HT, but he also accounts for these strategies. Vandaele provides systematically what this study also aims to do: detect strategies translators employ when translating HT, and the reasons for these strategies, revealing in this way the translation norms governing translators' decisions.

Another scholar, who provided a longer list of explicit strategies, is Martinez-Bartolomé (1995). Inspired by Grice's applications to the study of translated humour, she presents eleven humour translation strategies:

1. Same effect
2. Different or no effect
3. Nonsense plus footnote
4. An equivalent
5. A rendering of content at the expense of the effect
6. Changing the contents to preserve the same type of humour
7. Reduction
8. Equivalent semantic effect but no rendering of the play on syntax or style
9. Eliminating the effect in order to conform to naturalness and target language grammar
10. Substituting ST incongruence for something more logical
11. Complete omission (pp. 125-166)

In an attempt to enrich her already thorough categorisation with more specific strategies, Martinez-Bartolomé (1995), drawing from several proposals from Nash (1985) and Muecke (1973), she proposes thirteen translation strategies more specifically in relation to irony. This list is important for the purposes of this study, as it involves sarcasm which, as seen earlier, is linked to the type of humour encountered in the texts selected for this study (see discussion on sarcastic humour in this chapter, p. 182). Taking into account the fact that irony is a component of humour, it is not surprising to suggest for the purposes of this study that they may share translation strategies. Based on Martinez-Bartolomé's (1995) suggestions, a translator can employ the following strategies in the process of HT:

1. [Humour] for same [humour] by literal translation
2. [Humour] for [same type of humour] with equivalent effect
3. [Humour] for irony by using a different code system
4. [Humour] is highlighted in the translation by a word or expression
5. [Humorous] insinuation becomes more explicit and restricted
6. [Humour] becomes overt sarcasm
7. The unstated meaning of humour is brought to the surface, thus eliminating humour
8. Source text humorous ambiguity is rendered as unambiguous phrase
9. Substitution of humour for a synonym that does not allow a double interpretation
10. ST humour is explained in a TT footnote
11. Literal translation with no humour
12. Omission
13. TT humour has no corresponding pair in the ST (p. 71)

From what was presented above, it is clear that there is a certain level of consensus in relation to common strategies for HT, which is helpful for the categorisation of the data of this study (see Chapter 9). The key strategies translators employ for HT, as agreed upon by scholars in the field and revealed in the above-mentioned literature review, are listed below:

Figure 5.2.
Humour Translation Strategies

1.	Reproducing
2.	Substitution/Replacement
3.	Domestication
4.	Adaptation
5.	Literal Translation
6.	Free Translation
7.	Reduction
8.	Omission

Creating the same humorous impact is the prevalent aim in the course of HT, as revealed from the literature review in this study. This is achievable by either keeping humour and reproducing it with an equivalent translation, a word-for-word translation, or a free translation, or by employing other translation strategies, such as adaptation, domestication, and substitution/replacement. Reduction and omission can also be applied in HT, which, in the context of ChL and ChLT (and therefore this study), is seen as a particularly relevant strategy.

In an attempt to devise a systematic and comprehensive list of HT strategies in the context of ChLT, that can be used to analyse data in this study, the following list can be compiled (Table 5.2.). This is inspired by Séguinot's (cf. 2000) model of process-oriented translation strategies (see Chapter 4, Table 4.1., p. 114), but now also includes the six HT strategies derived from the literature review in this study. The number they had before is shown in bold:

Table 5.2.
Humour Translation Strategies in the Context of ChLT

Communication	Search	Monitoring
alterations modifications changes reproducing [1] substitution/replacement [2] additions omissions [8] enlargements/ reductions [7] shifts adaptation/cultural context adaptation [4] domestication [3] vs. foreignisation(alienation/exoticism) sentimentalisation and prettification modernisation purification literal translation [6] free translation [5]	internet glossary client etc.	observing and examining their work

This list of strategies will be particularly useful in order to analyse (Chapter 9) and discuss (Chapter 10) the data collected with regards to HT strategies that participants of all three FGs applied while translating ChL texts in the course of TAPs sessions. Taking a closer look at the list, in an attempt to provide a more comprehensive model, it can be observed that further encompassing can be made:

Table 5.3.
Model of Process-Oriented Translation Strategies
For Translating Humour in ChLT

Communication	Search	Monitoring
Alterations, modifications, changes (additions, omissions, shifts, reductions, enlargements, substitution, replacement)	Dictionary	Observing work
Reproducing	Internet	Examining work
Adaptation/Cultural Context Adaptation	Glossary	
Domestication vs. Foreignisation (Alienation/ Exotication)	Client	
Literal translation	etc.	
Free translation		
Sentimentalisation & Prettification		
Modernisation		
Purification		

This model of process-oriented translation strategies for translating humour in ChL is inspired by Séguinot's (cf. 2000) model of process-oriented translation strategies (see Chapter 4, Table 4.1., p. 114) and encompasses ChLT strategies and HT strategies as revealed in the literature review in the context of this study. This model will serve the basis for the analysis of the data collected from the participants' protocol transcriptions, pre and post-experiment questionnaires and researcher's diary (see Chapter 9).

5.2. Humour in *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾*

In the sections below, the book and the extracts selected for this particular study are discussed. The criteria for the selection of texts are explained and the types of humour encountered in the book are discussed.

5.2.1. *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾*

5.2.1.1. The Book

The humorous book selected for the purposes of this study is *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾*, written by the British writer, Sue Townsend, in 1982. It is a fictional novel written in the format of a diary, and it is addressed to the third age group division of ChL (see Chapter 1, section 1.1.2., p. 16). It is thus aimed at teenagers and young adults, without strictly excluding other age-groups.

This humorous diary is about an adolescent boy growing up in England in the 1980s, who keeps a diary with vivid details of the events of his everyday life, expectations, and ambitions, in a humorous manner. *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾*, was selected for the purposes of this study due to its universal appeal (Thomson, 1999). It was popular all over the world and sold more than a million copies. It was translated into a number of European languages, and, in 1982, it was broadcasted on Radio 4 in the UK (ibid.). The main reason for its selection was its humour, which is linked to the theme of this study.

5.2.1.2 The Hero

Adrian lives with his mum, his dad, and his dog in a house in England near London. His life is chaotic: he is an intellectual, but nobody understands him, he is in love with an evasive schoolmate (Pandora) who harbours feminist inclinations, his parents split up, his father is left with no job, his mother is leaving the family for the neighbour, and so on. What keeps him sane, besides his love for Pandora, is keeping a diary with amusing details on his everyday life and small world, from his own perspectives. In this diary, universal themes are touched upon with a humouristic tone: everyday problems about growing up, family life, school life, and society.

The readers join Mole's diary on the first day of the year where he decides on his New Year resolutions. The next few months find the hero getting into several humorous events at school and at home, peppered with humorous comments on life (back) in the 1980s.

5.2.1.3 The Author

Sue Townsend, the British novel writer, began writing the book after joining the Writer's Group at Leicester Art Center in 1978. In an interview she gave in 1999, "refreshingly unchanged after her success" (Thomson, 1999, p. 1), she was acknowledged as a national writer, who, by creating this remarkable book about an adolescent male growing up in England in the eighties, managed to catch "the mood of Thatcherism's early years" and outlined the national tension of those times like few authors in the modern age (ibid.).

Trying to guess the reason of Adrian Moles' success, Townsend admits: "He is me. He is all of us, to a greater or lesser degree" (Thomson, 1999, p. 1), while Hatherall (1997) similarly comments that "after all, we all have been there (or somewhere close) already..." (p. 30).

5.2.2. Criteria for Choosing the Texts

The criteria for choosing this novel derived from the interest of this investigation. Given the fact that the participants had to be at ease to reveal aspects relevant to the research questions and aims of the present study – i.e. translators' strategies, approaches, and norms in translating humour for ChL – the following criteria were taken into account: element of humour, length, authenticity, and level of lexical and syntactical difficulty.

5.2.2.1 Criterion 1: Humour

Choosing the text was, therefore, not without difficulty. On the one hand, it was necessary for the text to be humorous, causing the participants in the study to reveal certain attitudes, and behave in a certain way when translating, that would reveal their translation strategies and norms as they translated humour for children and YA. The texts' specific humour was based on three types of humour: self-effacing humour, unexpected humour, and sarcastic humour. The three types are elaborated below:

- **Self-Effacing Humour**

Self-effacing humour occurs when an individual makes fun of himself. To Antion (2007)²⁹, this is a powerful type of humour, where the individual's weaknesses are highlighted in a way that is amusing for the individual himself and those who listen to him. As Antion explains, to use self-effacing humour, an individual does not necessarily have to joke about himself. He can make fun of his family background, profession, or anything else that directly relates to him.

²⁹ Available at: <http://greatpublicspeaking.blogspot.com/2007/01/public-speaking-self-effacing-humor.html> – last accessed 26/05/2013

In the texts selected – as occurs in the whole book and Adrian book series – the diarist hero makes much use of self-effacing humour, either making fun of himself or of his family members and family daily life. Incidents of Adrian making fun of himself include the following: “I put my nose to the undercarriage and sniffed for five seconds, nothing spiritual happened but my nose stuck to the plane!” (text two, p. 187), and “Love is the only thing that keeps me sane ...” (ibid.) Incidents where Adrian makes fun of his family life and family members are the following: “Me and my father cleaned the house up today. We had no choice: my grandma is coming for tea tomorrow” (text one, p. 60), “My father chose a trolley that it was impossible to steer. It also squeaked as if somebody was torturing mice. I was ashamed to be heard with it” (ibid.) and “My father took me to Casualty to have it removed, how I endured the laughing and sniggering I don’t know” (text two, p. 187).

It seems that the humourous diary selected for the purposes of this study is rich in self-effacing humour. Unexpected humour and sarcastic humour are, as will be discussed below, further types of humour encountered, meeting therefore the first criterion for choosing a text that was humourous.

- **Unexpected Humour**

The second type of humour encountered in the texts chosen is unexpected humour that derives from incongruity theory which arises when there is an incongruity between what is expected and what occurs. Unexpected incidents evoking laughter in both texts are presented below: in the first text, the father’s Sainsbury’s trolley, which was impossible to steer, associates with unexpected humour: “My father chose a trolley that it was impossible to steer. It also squeaked as if somebody was torturing mice” (text one, p. 60). Another example of unexpected humour is the fact that the father chooses unhealthy food: “My father chose food that it is bad for you. I had to put my foot down and insist that he bought some fresh food and salad” (ibid.). In the second text, the whole description of the first part of the text links to unexpected humour: “I have just had the most humiliating experience of my life. It started when I began to assemble my model aeroplane. I had nearly finished it when I thought I would try an experimental sniff of glue. I put my nose to the undercarriage and sniffed for five seconds, nothing spiritual happened but my nose stuck to the plane!” (text two, p. 187). The reader, picturing Adrian assembling his model aeroplane, expects to be told that Adrian made it. What the reader does not expect is the funny idea Adrian had to smell the glue and what is more – which is funnier – the result of his action, which was for his nose to stick to the model aeroplane, and for his father to drive him to the casualty, where the doctor called him a ‘glue-sniffer’ (text two, p. 187).

- **Sarcastic Humour**

Sarcastic humour is the third type of specific humour encountered in the texts that derive from *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾*, the novel selected for the purposes of the TAPs sessions in the course of this study.

To many, sarcasm is closely related to irony (Muecke, 1969, Gibbs & O'Brien, 1991; Kreuz & Roberts, 1993; Attardo, 1997). From Attardo's (1997) point of view, "there is no agreement on whether sarcasm and irony are essentially the same thing, with superficial difference, or if they differ significantly" (p. 137). This is in line with several scholars' belief (Muecke, 1969; Gibbs & O'Brien, 1991; Kreuz & Roberts, 1993; etc.). According to Rundguist (1991, p. 26, in Gibbs & Colston, 2007), "there does not appear to be a consensus on how to determine whether an utterance is ironic or sarcastic" (p. 137). Some scholars maintain that sarcasm is different from irony, pointing out different factors to support their claim. Haiman (1990, 1998), for instance, asserts that sarcasm requires the intention of the speaker whereas irony does not. The same scholar further notes that irony may be situational, whereas sarcasm may not (Haiman, 1998, p. 20). For scholars such as Montgomery (2007), the issue is clear, as sarcasm is seen as a variety of verbal irony in which, typically, an exaggerated tone of voice communicates the attitude of disbelief (p. 133). In line with this approach, Attardo (1997) states that "sarcasm is an overtly aggressive type of irony, with clearer markers or cues and a clear target" (p. 137).

Sarcasm is one of the most popular forms of humour in literature that is hailed to be a sharp, bitter or cutting remark on something or someone (Attardo, 1994). The intensity of ridicule or mockery is often a bit harsh and terse in sarcasm. In the first text, Adrian's comment on the vicar can be conceived as a sarcastic humorous incident: "He must have money to burn! He could have bought some shiny white and given the difference to the poor. What a hypocrite!" (text one, p. 61).

5.2.2.2. Criterion 2: Length of Text

Another criterion was the length of the texts. As HT is considered to be a difficult translation task (Martinez-Bartolomé, 1995; Vandaele, 2002; Han, 2011), short texts were chosen, as opting for ones that were too long might have increased the level of difficulty in the course of the TAPs experiment, resulting in making the participants too tired to be involved in and to complete the task.

5.2.2.3. Criterion 3: Authenticity of Context

Along with the factor of length, the authenticity of the texts was also taken into account. The pilot study revealed that the choice of single words and phrases was not an authentic context for participants, who revealed that it would have been better if their tasks could link to real translation contexts when longer texts are given for translation. Thus, in the main study, two texts were selected for translation, supporting both the need for coherence and authenticity. Both extracts are taken in their authentic forms without any changes made.

5.2.2.4. Criterion 4: Level of Lexical and Syntactical Difficulty

The level of lexical and syntactic difficulty was an additional factor to take into account. Much of the original humorous book is culture-bound and culture-specific. This is a challenging element for the translator aiming to maintain the identity and integrity of the original text and at the same time bridging the cultural gaps, as well as various linguistic differences arising when translating humorous extracts from English into Greek (Xeni, 2000). In the course of this study, where translation is seen as a problem-solving process, the level of difficulty is a factor that links to the existence of strategies that appear in the course of a problem. It is thus expected that participants will apply several approaches and employ a number of strategies, so as to provide a good quality translation for children and YA.

Although complicated sentences, structures, and syntax would be an ideal challenge for the interest of this study, this, in addition to the element of humorous text that is culture-bound, might have discouraged participants to think aloud and reveal their strategies and reasoning, leading to their translation norms. Thus, although the two humorous texts – the first describing the incident where the hero went shopping at Sainsbury's with his father, and the second when the hero had to visit first aid after his model aeroplane got stuck to his nose – consisted of general and specific problematic areas, their translation was feasible in the course of the TAPs experiment.

As noted earlier, translating the humorous British novel *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾*, from English into Greek, raises a number of issues of a general and more specific nature. In the two texts chosen for the purposes of this study, there are problems regarding the text type, style, and register of the original text.

5.2.3. Text-Analysis

In the proceeding lines, the text type, style, and register of the texts selected for the purposes of this study will be discussed.

5.2.3.1. Text-Type

Newmark (1998), adapting Nida's (1964) classification of texts, distinguishes four types of text: narrative, description, discussion, and dialogue. Based on this distinction, it can be said that the humorous novel is of a multidimensional text-type as the narrative is combined with description ("shopping in Sainsbury's") and dialogues that put an emphasis on colloquialism and figurative language ("fixed expressions"). Thus, the texts selected for the TAPs sessions of the study are of a multidimensional type, as they contain narrative-descriptions, discussions, and dialogues putting emphasis on colloquialism and figurative language ("fixed expressions"), which are two of the main sources of humour in the book.

5.2.3.2. Style and Register

Style and register are "among the rhetorical features of the original to which the translator cannot remain indifferent" (Rener, 1989, p. 193). Written in the form of a diary, the original is of an informal style and fairly low register. As mentioned above, main elements that evoke laughter are colloquial speech and figurative language. The latter is an element the hero makes frequent use of either in the form of idioms (e.g., 'I take my hat off' (text one, p. 61), 'It shared the fate of', 'He must have money to burn' (text one, p. 61), 'I had to put my foot down' (text one, p. 60), or in the form of fixed expressions [e.g., 'Just my luck,' (p. 11) and 'worse luck' (p. 15)].

5.2.3.3. Colloquial Language or Speech

According to Leighton (1991), colloquial language or speech is "the signification of non-literary form and phraseology of spoken language (...) which covers every verbal manifestation or irregular speech, including slang, argot, jargon, dialects, vulgarism, the vernacular, curse words, swearing language, etc." (p. 207). It is the most extreme form of language and a phenomenon of time and place, social class, level of education, cultural conditions, and individual speech. It is a property of every language, and is typically used in normal conversation between friends and family members (Kakousis, 2001). It is frequently found in teenagers' language which departs from the norms of spoken literacy and, although peculiar, it is unique and attractive in terms of translation, as for teenagers it is vital to be "in step with other relevant adolescents" (Hudson, 1985, p. 15) and to share a common attitude at a time when they are trying to establish their own identity. Unlike children and adults, teenagers wish to be different from others, even all previous

teenagers. Every teenage generation tends to use different ways of expressing terms (Xeni, 2000, 2007d). As a result, teenagers' language is constantly evolving over time, in line with more general changes occurring in language use (ibid.).

In terms of translation, colloquial language or speech is a challenging task. Quoting Villassante (in Klingberg et al., 1978) "it is the most extreme form of language that presents the most challenge regarding the concept of equivalency" (p. 207). Various scholars (Leighton, 1991; Newmark, 1998; Kakousis, 2001) have made suggestions and provided strategies for how to translate colloquial language or speech. Kakousis (2001) indicates that colloquial speech is a weapon that cuts both ways so sharply that, in those instances where it is impossible to find a fully adequate equivalent, it is sometimes better to make the TT somewhat less colloquial than the original. Others, support the idea that colloquial speech must be used in the translation in approximately the same measure as the original author and in accordance with the artistic or commercial functions it fulfills. According to Villassante (in Klingberg et al., 1978), even though it might be challenging to find corresponding expressions, "if the language is colloquial it should be left as such" (p. 49). It is of great interest to the researcher to see how participants in the study will therefore handle colloquial language in translation.

Commenting on aspects of the translation of colloquial language or speech, Leighton (1991) indicates that if a standard method or solution is not possible, perhaps "the only key for translation problem solving is the translator's taste, tact, impact, instinct, talent, judgment and moderation" (p. 217), always with the support of a good academic background. The previous statement places emphasis on a number of issues raised in the context of the translation of CSCs in general and HT in particular. These issues were discussed in section 5.1.5.

5.2.3.4. Figurative Language

When talking about figurative language or speech, we are referring to proverbs, metaphors, irony, idioms, fixed expressions and similes. Quoting Ulrich (1992), "figurative language refers to that large part of language whose meaning is not literal but based on images of things seen and actions experienced" (p. 119). Although figurative language is attractive from a linguistic point of view, it can be "difficult to translate, due to the meaning it conveys and its association with culture specific contexts" (Baker, 1992, p. 68).

Figurative language is a tool that an author employs to help the reader visualise what is happening in a story. Some common types of figurative language are: simile, metaphor,

alliteration, onomatopoeia, idiom, and puns. In the texts selected for the purposes of this study figurative language is used to evoke laughter. The elements creating the humorous impact are mainly idioms and fixed expressions.

5.2.3.5. Idioms and Fixed Expressions

Traditionally, literary texts are full of idioms and fixed expressions. As opposed to collocations, which are more ‘flexible patterns of language’, idioms and fixed expressions “allow little or no variation in form” (Baker, 1992, p. 63). Although there is a difference between idioms and fixed expressions, for the purposes of this study, they are placed in the same category, because they present the same degree of difficulty in trying to cope with them in the process of translation (Baker, 1992). Additionally, strategies suggested by translation scholars in overcoming dilemmas while translating the particular elements are of a similar nature (Xeni 2000, 2006f). Both idioms and fixed expressions violate the true condition of sentences and make no sense when interpreted literally. However, the difficulty in dealing with idioms is much more pronounced since their meaning cannot be deduced from their individual components, whereas the meaning of fixed expressions is usually more transparent.

In the context of TS, Baker’s (1992, pp. 71-78) suggestions for translating idioms and fixed expressions, corresponding to three strategies have proved the most popular:

1. Finding an idiom/fixed expression of the same meaning and form
2. Finding an idiom/fixed expression of the same meaning but different form
3. Finding an idiom/fixed expression of similar meaning but dissimilar form

Text analysis was the last section of a critical overview of HT as a main TS specialised area that this study focuses on. In what follows, some concluding remarks are made.

5.3. Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, humour, a culture-bound element and a problematic area of TS (Martinez-Bartolomé, 1995; Vandaele, 2002; Han, 2011), was discussed, as it relates to HT strategies and norms in ChL. Aspects of the study of humour were explored and issues with regards to its translation were discussed.

As illustrated, the translation of humour is not a straightforward process. Nonetheless, it remains achievable, depending on the translator’s capability and experience. Existing literature on norms

and strategies presented in this study, in addition to the outcomes of the fieldwork undertaken (presented in Chapter 9), go some way towards demonstrating that adequate solutions can be found when translating humour, thus disputing the ongoing argument on the untranslatability of humour, and opening new avenues for investigating the study of humour from a translation perspective.

Being interdisciplinary, the study of humour could well play an important role in empirically grounded cross-cultural research within the field of TS. While much cross-cultural research so far has dealt with descriptions of national styles of humour (Davies, 1988), there is no research that investigates humour as an individual difference variable across more cultures (Ruch, 1991). In other words, the question that we might ask now is how far a positive humour response to translated literature is dependent on cultural differences, individual differences, or on the translation itself.

Asimakoulas (2004) calls for further investigation of translation problems linked to humour. Specifically, he stresses that the functions of humour need to be explored with regard to various genres and media constraints. What should also be investigated in the future is the translator's creativity, which is put to the test in the process of HT. Additionally, external factors affecting creativity, have to be investigated. Some directions highlighted by Asimakoulas are: a) the investigation of the sense of humour of individual translators; b) the ways in which individual translators' sense of humour surfaces in their work; and c) the conditions under which talent and efficiency can be improved, possibly in training programmes for translators which will address HT and broader creativity issues. He finally contends that "whatever the angle adopted, there is great potential in this underresearched area for a wide variety of studies enriched by interdisciplinary cross-fertilisation" (*ibid.*, p. 840).

Various questions remain unanswered in the fieldwork of humourology and TS. What do different cultures find humorous and why? What is understood as humour and why? How does humour travel in today's global market? Is it possible to translate a joke that is both funny and consistent with the original's intent? Do these translations violate the texts? Is it possible to somehow explain the joke and still be funny?

To many scholars, links with other disciplines (e.g., psychology, sociology, etc.) could create new grounds for research leading to laudable steps that might shed light on under-researched areas (Asimakoulas, 2004; Chiaro, 2008; Jankowska, 2009).

As seen in this chapter, humour is widely regarded as a universal human trait, one that all cultures value. To Ruch (1991), all humans are capable of producing laughter, and cross-cultural studies to date reveal the existence of several transcultural common denominators. This might mean that context-bound theories of humour could possibly be a more useful way to approach the subject, as they would provide a clearer understanding of the way it works and of the humour translation process, thus contributing to both TS and other disciplines.

Chapter 6

Chapter 6

Development of Translation Competence

“It is well known that good language graduates
do not necessarily make good translators (...)
Translators need far more than just linguistic competence:
they need translation competence.”

(Smith, 2004, p. 1)

6.0. Introductory Note

This chapter addresses specific areas relevant to the investigation of beginner, competent, and expert translators' norms, strategies, and approaches while translating humour in literature for children and YA. In the following sections, translation competence issues, such as attempts to define and model it and the gap phenomenon that is encountered in the making of a translator, are addressed.

6.1. Issues of Translation Competence

According to Riccardi (2002), the study of translation is constantly expanding in a world that is experiencing massive increases in translation work unparalleled in human history. Quoting Baker (2001): “[translation] has experienced a tremendous growth in the past few decades and this trend seems to exceed all expectations in the new millennium” (p. 5). There has been increasing demand in both translation and interpreting studies as globalisation pushes the need for translation to historic heights. Statistics indicate that demand for translation is continuously increasing by 10-25% per year and doubling every three to seven years (Thelen, 2005).

At a time when the market is always on the lookout for ‘the best translator’ in terms of speed, cost, and quality, attempts to define a ‘competent’ translator in light of theoretical models has become a lacuna in academic research literature. Enabling students to achieve a high-quality task performance is also one of the main aims of translation pedagogy. Quoting Pym (2003), “the general trend among theorists has been to expand the multicomponential (translational

competence) model, so as to bring new skills and proficiencies into the field of translation training” (p. 1). This trend is expected to continue in the years to come, especially with the increasing use of electronic tools, and other factors beyond the scope of this discussion. Translator trainers attempt to convey the whole range of skills required by the labour market, but it is suggested that institutions will always remain one or two steps behind market demands (Thelen, 2005).

So, although trainers attempt to adapt to market demands by applying new models in the classroom, there still seems to be a gap between academic and non-academic environments. What constitutes this gap will be discussed in the third section of this chapter (section 6.1.3., p. 173). As for the study in question, gap phenomenon issues are discussed in Chapter 9 and 10, where aspects of competences of the three FGs are presented, analysed, and discussed in relation to their norms, strategies, and approaches when translating humour in ChL.

In the following sub-sections, attempts will be made to define translation competence before reviewing the attempts to build an ideal translation competence model.

6.1.1. Defining Translation Competence

In the context of TS, there is no widespread agreement on a definition of translation competence. Over time, the concept has been called “translation skill” (Lowe 1987, p. 57), “translation performance” (Wilss, 1989, p. 129), “transfer competence” (Nord, 1991, p. 161), “translation ability” (Nord, 1991, p. 161; Pym, 1992, p. 26), “translational competence” (Toury, 1995, pp. 250-251; Chesterman, 1997, p. 147; Hansen 1997, p. 205), “translator competence” (Király, 1995, p. 108), and “translation expertise” (Shreve, 1997; p. 120; Király 2000, p. 4).

Orozco and Hurtado Albir (2002) argue that “the problems of definition with translation competence do not seem to end with its denomination” (p. 375), as many authors have discussed translation competence, but do not offer an explicit definition nor reached a consensus regarding it. For instance, Krings (1986, pp. 501, 522 in Fraser 1996a, p. 72), Nord (1991, pp. 150, 152, 155, 1996, p. 101), Lörcher (1991, p. 41), Toury (1991, p. 62, 1995, pp. 250-51), Király (1995, p. 13-9), Fraser (1996b, p. 87), and Hansen (1997, p. 205) seem to have a definition of translation competence in mind, but do not make it explicit in their writings. Some, however, have attempted to define translation competence more explicitly.

Among those who have attempted an explicit definition of translation competence is Bell (1991), who outlines it as “the knowledge and skills the translator must possess in order to carry out a translation” (p. 43). Hurtado Albir (1996) defines translation competence as “the ability of knowing how to translate” (p. 48), and the PACTE research group (2000) terms it as “the underlying system of knowledge and skills needed to be able to translate” (p. 376). It would seem that competence, therefore, entails knowledge, skills, and abilities, but Schäffner and Adab (2000) suggest that ‘competence’ involves any number of other terms. To them, translation competence is “a cover term and summative concept for the overall performance ability which seems so difficult to define” (Schäffner and Adab, 2000, p. x).

Despite this difficulty to define the concept, these definitions seem to converge on two key terms: ability and skills, underlining that for a translator to be competent he has to acquire a number of abilities and skills. This study, therefore, accepts that translation competence is made up of a number of abilities and skills. In the context of translation pedagogy, these skills and abilities are considered to be teachable, as one of the main philosophical strands of the science of pedagogy is concerned with the best strategies, to enable learning efficacy. In the context of this study, it is believed that one of the best practices to detect translation competence, or abilities, and skills to translate, is to observe the translators in situ. In Chapter 8, it will be explained how TAPs augmented by questionnaires and the researcher’s diary enabled the detection of translation strategies and norms of participants in an attempt to investigate the differences in approaches – which ultimately underpin the gap phenomenon – in terms of competence levels in the context of translation both generally and in ChLT particularly.

Several scholars discuss the characteristic features of translation competence. Orozco and Hurtado Albir (2002b) acknowledge that translation competence “consists basically of operative knowledge” (p. 376). In their discussion, “operative knowledge” (ibid.) is to be understood as a kind of expert knowledge with processes involved being automatic “as in any kind of expert knowledge” (ibid). Similarly, in Alves (2003), it is suggested that translation competence is closely related to translation expertise, and “does not imply acquiring a completely new ability, but rather organising a better, more efficient, and resource-saving way of approaching the translation task” (p. 117). From these definitions, it seems that translation competence is an aspect of expertise in the course of which organisation skills are presented as vital (e.g., organising resources, knowledge, ways to approach the translation task, etc.). Alves’s definition of translation competence and its elements is particularly relevant for the present study, which investigates translators at different levels of expertise.

Anthony Pym (2003) acknowledges that translator training involves the creation of the following twofold functional competence: the ability to generate a series of more than one viable TT for a ST, and the ability to select only one possible TT from this series rapidly and with much confidence. As Pym (2003) explains:

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

This aspect of problem-solving is interesting because it is a cognitive function, and seems to have a key role in the development of translation competence. It is generally acknowledged that the level of translation competence is determined by a translator's performance and his ability to resolve translation problems successfully. The quality of a translated text as achieved in performance "is a reflection of the translator's competence" (Campbell, 1998, p. 8). A translator's competence indicates whether a translation product can be judged as acceptable or unacceptable. Performance can be used to assess translation quality, which in turn, is assumed to reflect competence. While translation competence is widely assessed through performance, translation performance is judged through assessment criteria, either explicitly or implicitly. As the focus of this study is on the translation process, rather than the end product, issues of performance and quality assessment will not be specifically investigated here. Nonetheless, the link between translation competence and translation performance, and thus problem-solving, is noteworthy.

In what follows, acknowledged endeavours to effectively model translation competence will be reviewed.

6.1.2. Steps towards an Effective Translation Competence Model

Since defining translation competence is far from being a straightforward endeavour, it seems safe to suggest that acquiring it cannot be straightforward process either. With the development of TS research in the past 25 years, that turned the focus from the translation product to the translation process (Kelly, 2005; Lee-Jahnke, 2005), various translation competence models have emerged, outlining expertise knowledge and cognitive components that are considered to be essential for a

competent translator. A detailed description of translation competence models can be found in Kelly (2005) and Göpferich (2008).

According to Göpferich and Jääskeläinen (2009b), attempts to model translation competence nowadays can be usefully based on the following sources:

- Results of empirical studies where a comparison of the translation process of groups of participants is attempted (e.g., Smith, 2004, 2007; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007; Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009b)
- Theoretical reflections on translation competence components (cf. Pym, 2003)
- Outcomes of expertise-based research with regard to various areas (cf. Ericsson and Smith, 1991)

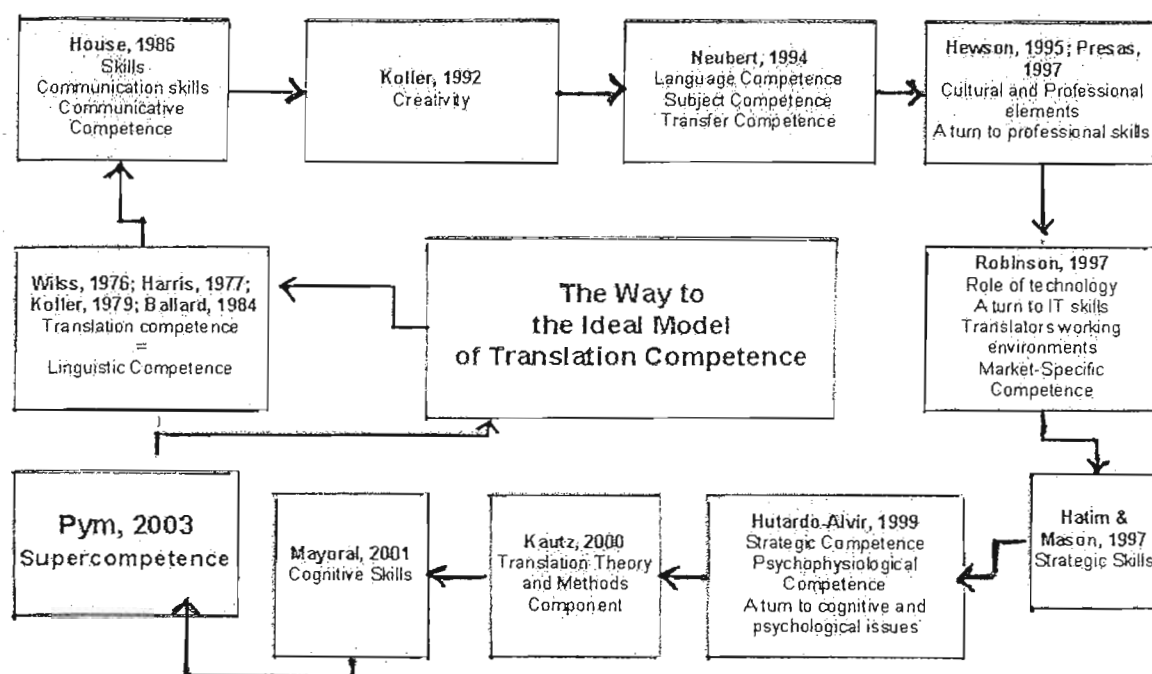
Indeed, no single explicit model can be found, although several authors propose interesting models (e.g., Kelly, 2005; Göpferich, 2008). Proposed as best practices in the reference framework of competences for the European Master's in Translation (EMT expert group, 2009), these models, i.e. *TransComp* (cf. Göpferich, 2009), the PACTE group (cf. PACTE, 2009), and the *Capturing Translation Processes* project (cf. Massey & Ehrensberger-Dow, 2010, 2011), generate hypotheses to be validated in longitudinal process studies and enhance the validity of translation competence and translation process research. The aims of this study are situated within this current body of work.

In recent years, the PACTE group's translation competence model has been constantly gaining recognition in the TS scholarly world as an all-encompassing endeavour (Orozco & Hurtado Albir, 2002; Kelly 2005; Göpferich, 2008). This model consists of six interrelated sub-competencies: communicative competence in two languages, extra-linguistic competence, transfer competence, instrumental competence, psycho-physiological competence, and strategic competence. All six sub-competences interrelate with transfer and strategic competence being highlighted as the most indispensable. The former because it incorporates all of the others, and the latter because it affects the others and plays a key role in problem-solving.

The endeavour above highlights that, in recent years, what translation competence means and what it consists of, has been quickly evolving. Although initial models of translation competence included only a limited number of components or "sub-competences" (cf. Alves, 2003, p. 117), these models have experienced an expansion due to the addition of components as a result of new

trends and needs. This constant addition of components and sub-competences has led Pym (2003) to argue in favour of a “super-competence”³⁰. The way to the “super-competence” inspired by Pym’s descriptions can be seen in Figure 6.1., below (emphasis added):

Figure 6.1.
The Way to the Ideal Translation Competence Model



The figure above (emphasis added) illustrates that attempts to build the ideal translation competence model moved from a monolithic model focusing on the linguistic component to a multicomponential model consisting of various components based on rising needs and trends. From there, translation competence came to be a super-competence encompassing linguistic, social, cultural, etc., components. It is obvious that translation scholars have had a tendency to add new components to the model over the years. Thus, translation competence models will undoubtedly continue to develop and be a source of future investigations.

Kiraly (2000) describes the development of translation competence as a progression from novice to expert, with students having reached the stage of ‘journeymen’ upon completion of their university programme. This progression is reflected in current attempts to model translation competence (e.g., EMT expert group, 2009; Göpferich, 2009; PACTE, 2009; Massey & Ehrensberger-Dow, 2010, 2011).

³⁰ Available at: <http://www.erudit.org/revue/meta/2003/v48/n4/008533ar.html> –last accessed 30/07/2011

Thus, issues around translation competence are highly relevant to the present study, not from a product-based point of view, but from a process-based point of view. Indeed, issues of translation competence will be discussed in the analysis of the translation process of the three FGs as they translate humour from English into Greek. The analysis of this process will reveal aspects of competence and translation quality that will enable a better understanding of the progression from non-expert (or novice) to expert and the skills that come (or do not come) to play in the context of the gap phenomenon. In addition, findings regarding competence during the process of translation will enable the discussion of implications for translation pedagogy, research, and practice. These implications will be discussed in Chapter 11.

6.1.3. The Gap Phenomenon

6.1.3.1. Describing the Situation

Research on expert and non-expert participants in various disciplines generally serves to identify the experts' retrieval structures and procedural knowledge, and makes it possible to extract the specific features of expert performance that can be improved by intentional practice (Hansen, 2005; Gambier, Shesinger, & Stolze, 2007; Chesterman, 2008; Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009b). Translation studies research reveals a gap between the translation approach of students studying translation, and professional translators (see, for example, Smith, 2004, 2007; Muñoz-Martin, 2009; etc.). This is exactly what is meant by 'gap phenomenon'. Behavioural patterns of translation students observed as they translate are not the same when compared to those of professionals, with many studies revealing a lack of competence in the students' working processes (Smith, 2004, 2007). In this section, work undertaken in this area is reviewed and the major differences between the two approaches in the context of translation competence – experts and non-experts – will be examined. Possible reasons for the gap will also be explored and discussed.

6.1.3.2. The Expert versus the Non-Expert Approach

Studies in this area, conducted by a number of researchers, reveal more or less similar results (Matrat, 1992; Kussmaul, 1995; Lörcher, 1997, 2005; Shreve, 1997; Jääskeläinen, 2000; Séguinot, 2000; Jensen in Jarvella et al., 2002; Livbjerg & Mees in Alves, 2003; Pym, 2003; Smith, 2004, 2007; Englund Dimitrova, 2005; Olk, 2009; Coehlo, n.d.). The usual result is that experts present better/more efficient practices than students at all levels/aspects in the translation process. Aspects that are predominantly investigated in these studies are, according to the literature reviewed, as follows: type, time, meaning, focus, (re)search, confidence, and editing.

These are presented below in more detail and will be the basis for analysing beginner, competent, and expert translators' approaches in the data analysis phase of this study (see Chapter 9).

6.1.3.2.1. The Non-Expert's Approach

The New Zealand-based scholar Monika Smith (2004, 2007) investigated the gap between academic translations (i.e. translations undertaken by students) and 'real world' translations (i.e. translations undertaken by professional translators in real market circumstances). Her study revealed, perhaps unsurprisingly, that the two types of translations differ in a number of important aspects. Smith (2004, 2007) came to the conclusion that there is a clear mismatch between what students should be doing when translating and what they actually do. This gap is further discussed below.

Capturing and reporting on the general approaches of students participating in her study, Smith indicates that the students' approach is neither steady, nor clear-cut. It is either of a linear form, or a mixture of top-down and bottom-up approaches. This means that the students either translate sentence by sentence (linear form), translate the given task after having a holistic view of it, i.e. reading it from top to bottom (top-down approach), or translate some sentences first, then leave some and return to them later, and so on (bottom-up approach).

As investigating the translators' approaches is a variable usually tested in relation to meaning transfer in such experiments, an interesting output from such studies is the fact that students do not always grasp ST meanings (Smith, 2004, 2007; Lörscher, 2005). The constant attention to linguistic characteristics usually prevents them from recognising the underlying meaning of the whole expression or the whole sentence. Searching in dictionaries or choosing word-for-word translations and taking a linear approach, more often than not, results in misinterpretations and mistranslations. Whether a translator uses a top-down or bottom-up approach as he translates a text, is closely connected to issues of effectiveness in terms of translation. Kussmaul (1995) has observed that bad translations are often the result of an imbalance between the top-down and bottom-up processes and that this imbalance is "typical of the approach of the non-professional" translator (p. 28). Kussmaul further provides several examples of unsuccessful translations produced by students relying too heavily on bottom-up processing and on word-for-word or literal translation. In this way, students 'miss' the meaning of the implicit or explicit linguistic material and sometimes distort the meaning of the text. Speaking of the consequences of this approach, Lörscher (2005) stresses that:

[p]rofessional translators often realise problems *while* they are rendering a unit of translation into the TL. The foreign language students, however, usually realise translation problems *before* they start translating because the units they extract from the SL text are much smaller. Consequently, problems can be located more easily and more quickly. Furthermore, it is mainly problems of a local kind, especially lexical transfer problems arising from lack of competence in SL or TL, which the non-professionals are faced with whereas the professionals are primarily concerned with global, formulating problems, with the optimal expression of sense according to the TL norms of text production. (p. 604)

Although Lörcher refers to foreign language students rather than translation students specifically, it could be argued that the latter also extract smaller text units than professionals. In several studies on ‘non-experts’, issues of awareness and consciousness are also raised. Students’ mistakes and misconceptions, and subsequent mistranslations, are often attributed to a lack of awareness of their own weaknesses, of their lack of understanding, or contextualising (Lörcher 1997; Smith, 2004). Even when they do show some awareness of this, however, they often do not know how to solve the problem, and end up just leaving the mistake in their translation. This is an aspect that should be taken into account in translation training classes. As seen previously, methodologies that support cognitive and metacognitive skills (comprehension, problem solving strategies, etc.) could be used as examples of good practice in the translation classroom.

Another cause linked to performance issues of non-experts is the use of supporting material and particularly technology. In a number of studies (e.g., Kussmaul, 1995; Jääskeläinen, 2000; Jensen in Jarvella et al., 2002), few undergraduate and postgraduate students made use of external resources, such as the Internet or contacts (an agent, a customer, etc.), even though they were permitted to do so. When looking for assistance, students usually relied exclusively on general dictionaries (Smith, 2004). It must be noted here, however, that much progress has been made over the last five to ten years in terms of using technology, particularly the Internet. What may have been an issue in the 1990s and start of the 21st century may no longer be so problematic. Nonetheless, it remains true that few beginners will take the initiative to contact professionals or make use of less obvious resources (e.g., native-speakers), and that most will be reliant on dictionaries, whether these are online or in hard copy.

When conducting research on three groups, non-translators, young professionals, and experts (professional translators), Coehlo (n.d.) found clear differences with regards to the use of dictionaries, underlining this as a habit formed in years of foreign language instruction. Non-translators appeared to use dictionaries the most, the young translators coming in a close second.

The experts had approximately half as many look-ups as the young professionals. Dictionaries were used by participants to look up between five and fourteen units, the actual number of look-ups being from ten to twenty-seven, in view of the fact that some units involved more than one look-up. Dictionaries were mostly used to solve gaps in participants' vocabulary, and to check collocations, as well as 'false friends'. Students also used dictionaries in order to look up units for which they had found one or more solutions. What was interesting and surprising, was that the participant whose final TTs were regarded as most successful by all evaluators in the study was the one who took the most time to translate and had the most dictionary look-ups. Time and energy spent on research has been shown to positively correlate with successful performance, and expert translators are generally more likely to demonstrate this kind of behaviour (Coehlo, n.d.).

Additionally, the use of dictionaries is found to be related to students' uncertainty as they translate (Kusssmaul, 1995; Smith, 2004, 2007; Olk, 2009). Studies investigating the gap phenomenon show that students spend a lot of time wondering about or checking and rechecking words (Smith, 2004, 2007). What is interesting is that they tend to spend a long time on problems for which they had a solution from the very beginning. It is also reported that students use dictionaries to correct errors, but often end up changing appropriate decisions and solutions into inappropriate ones (Livbjerg & Mees in Alves, 2003). What is more, according to the abovementioned study, "students focus too narrowly on lexical units at the expense of other important factors such as situational and textual context" (Livbjerg & Mees in Alves, 2003, p. 131). This outcome is critical for the use of a dictionary as an important variable in the context of the gap phenomenon with pedagogical implications for the TS curricula and the translation classroom. It indicates that, unsurprisingly, students can often make improper use of the dictionary. Although they seem to turn to it regularly, sometimes for understandable reasons, i.e. checking or re-checking words, most of the time they make inefficient use of it, wasting their time on things they already know, or things that are of no importance.

The use of dictionaries in the process of translation is also linked to translators' attitudes, self-confidence, and confidence when translating. Livbjerg and Mees (in Alves, 2003) discuss the results of three experiments carried out with and without access to dictionaries. The objectives were to investigate "how, and to what extent, students use dictionaries when translating domain-specific texts; [and] to discover whether the use of dictionaries influenced the quality of the translation product" (Livbjerg and Mees in Alves, 2003, pp. 123-136). Using the think-aloud method as developed by Ericsson and Simon (cf. 1980), the authors affirmed that one of the findings of the study was that postgraduate students "have insufficient confidence in their

linguistic abilities” (Livbjerg & Mees in Alves, 2003, p. 131). Similarly, Kussmaul (2005) highlights the issue of ‘weak personalities’ (p. 19), that is to say students not being dynamic and adventurous, and thus not easily taking risks in the process of translation. Likewise, in Jensen’s study (in Jarvella et al., 2002) where two data elicitation methods, TAPs and Translog, were combined and all keyboard activities during the writing process were recorded (writing, pauses, corrections, electronic dictionary look-ups), it was discovered – amongst other findings – that students were not taking risks as they solved problems. Instead, they preferred to avoid efforts and reduce any cognitive load. Confidence levels and risk-taking seem to be integral aspects of translator behaviour and something which non-experts, therefore, need to learn to manage efficiently. In the present study, the use of dictionaries is addressed in Chapters 9 and 11.

Although speed was not a variable for this study, as no time-limit was set for participants in the TAPs sessions, other studies have investigated the effect of time-pressure on translator performance (Matrat, 1992; Jääskeläinen, 2000; Jarvella et al., 2002). In one of these, it was reported that there was a 40% decrease in typing speed under increased time limit conditions, although this may be partly due to increased dictionary look-ups and problem-solving pauses (Coehlo, n.d.). In Jensen’s experiments on expert translation processes (in Jarvella et al., 2002), time-pressure was seen as the ultimate test for the translator’s ability to combine topic knowledge with linguistic knowledge and expertise, and it is revealed – again, perhaps unsurprisingly – that professionals take significantly less time to translate. Smith (2004, 2007) found that students take much more time to complete the given translation task and tend to avoid cognitive overload. Bearing in mind that the process of verbalising thoughts might be an uncomfortable and stressful activity – and very new to most participants – and taking into account the potential embarrassment and uneasiness of participants, the researcher in this study decided not to increase the participants’ stress in the TAPs session and excluded the time-limit element from the session itself. In addition, other studies (e.g., Matrat, 1992; Jääskeläinen, 2000), where participants were pressed for time, showed little evidence of decision-making either in the monolithic TAPs or in the joint translation. As time constraints could be seen to distort conditions, it was felt that this variable was best left out in this study. In addition to difficulties posed by the ST, the requirement not to use any reference books, the fear of failure, time constraints, etc. suggest a high probability of tremendous cognitive load, which can possibly result in “meagre and vague” (Jääskeläinen, 2000, p. 77) verbalisation.

The results from these studies highlight that students, or non-experts, tend to make fewer revisions and do less editing before submitting their work than their professional counterparts. (Smith, 2004, 2007; Lörcher, 2005). Quoting Lörcher (2005):

Foreign language students tend not to check those TL utterances according to their sense which they have translated and within which they did *not* realise any problems. As a consequence, the translations of the students (...) reveal utterances which contain grammatical errors, even in their mother tongue, violations of TL text production norms, or which make no sense. (p. 605)

This observation is in line with received wisdom, and confirms that this category of participants is less prone to evaluating and refining their work. As revealed from what was presented above, the non-expert approach involves the following aspects: a non-steady approach, constant attention to single words, an extensive reliance on dictionaries, much more time to complete translation tasks, problems with grasping meaning or understanding, lack of contextualising and awareness, issues of confidence, an avoidance of cognitive load leading to fewer or no revisions, or editing. In the following lines, the expert approach is presented and contrasted to the non-expert one.

6.1.3.2.2. The Experts' Approach

As already outlined in the introduction to this section, studies on expert and non-expert translation approaches tend to reveal that expert translators present better practices and approaches in the translation process than students at all levels (Matrat, 1992; Kussmaul, 1995; Shreve, 1997; Jääskeläinen, 2000; Séguinot, 2000; Jensen in Jarvella et al., 2002; Livbjerg & Mees in Alves 2003; Lörcher, 1997, 2005; Pym, 2003; Smith, 2004, 2007; Endglund Dimitrova, 2005; Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009; Olk, 2009; Massey & Ehrensberger-Dow, 2010, 2011).

When discussing the experts' approach and translation efficiency, both Matrat (1992) and Tirkkonen-Condit (1996) acknowledge that successful translators are more likely to have a strategic approach as they translate. This was addressed briefly in Chapter 4, where competence was associated with issues of strategy. Working more strategically, experts tend to view the text as a whole, adopting, in most cases, a top-down approach. According to Matrat (1992), "it is the construction of meaning of the whole text which leads to the understanding of the parts and not the other way around; experts conduct top-down rather than bottom-up processing" (p. 209). She highlights that experts usually begin by writing a first draft of the text so as to construct its macrostructure, and they return to problematic areas within the microstructural level at a later stage. Professionals tend to follow a sense-oriented procedure (cf. Lörcher, 1997) processing

longer text segments (phrases, clauses, sentences), as opposed to students who focus on single words (Lörscher, 1997, 2005; Smith, 2004, 2007). As they solve problems they encounter, they reconstruct the TL text by going through several phases of evaluating the text and improving it. Interestingly, they seem to have the ability to step back from the STs and TTs, and view them as complete entities, thus adopting more of a holistic approach to the task. Quoting Lörscher (2005):

Professional translators, (...) tend to continuously check their TL text output, no matter whether it has been produced with or without any problems involved. As a result, professional translators often do not realise formulating problems *before* they check their utterances produced in TL. This *ex-post* realisation of translation problems is an important distinguishing factor of professional and non-professional translation processes. (p. 606)

In Séguinot's (2000) study, the professionals did not work in a linear fashion, and sometimes left a tricky point and returned to it at a later stage. This, according to Séguinot, is a reiteration, i.e. a re-appearance, indicating that it is possible that the translators' minds continued to look for a solution to this problematic issue while they were working on a different part of the text. Séguinot (2000) indicates that translators were in fact processing different parts of the text simultaneously: "there were instances in which the meaning of an earlier part of the text became clearer or changed when reading a different part of the text" (p. 83). Thus strategies, or a strategic approach, are more 'at work' in their process.

In terms of strategy, experts are said to have an increased capacity to recognise complex problem-solving activities, represent them mentally and resolve them effectively (Lörscher, 1997; Shreve, 1997; Smith, 2004, 2007). In most cases, they experience fewer problem-solving incidents and do not suffer as much from time constraints – when investigated – as non-experts seem to. Professionals do not take much time to translate and they generally feel that the time available during experiments is sufficient to accomplish the given task, as in 'real' working conditions they are used to undertaking translation tasks within tight deadlines (which makes one wonder whether their strategies would be the same in a real-world context) (Shreve, 1997).

Expert translators are also said to use a much wider range of resources compared to non-experts, and to look for the main idea whenever they struggle with meanings of words (Smith, 2004, 2007). They are generally more concerned with questions of syntax and style, and are more likely to take risks and to rely on their intuition (Matrat, 1992). According to Matrat, they are concerned with lexical problems in terms of choosing "the best equivalence at their command:

they are more concerned with accuracy than less experienced translators” (p. 210). It seems that professionals have a far greater awareness of all possible problems pertaining to a translation task.

The ability of expert translators to translate in a confident manner and with a strategic plan in mind and to possess high cognitive skills (problem-solving, critical thinking, etc.) is closely related to personal decision-making (PDM) (Kemdal & Montgomery, 1997). Naturalistic studies of personal decisions are important for several reasons. From an interdisciplinary point of view, they are related to various fields, such self-awareness, problem-solving, critical thinking, etc., providing useful insights into certain undiscovered areas of the human existence (Klein et al., 1993). Research in the area of PDM is possible if drawing on notions from descriptive decision theories, such as values, uncertainties, optimal decision, etc. (Anand, 1993; Peterson, 2009; etc.). Anna Blom Kemdal and Henry Montgomery’s chapter on “Perspectives and emotions in personal decision making” (1997) draws on the notion that the relationship between a to-be chosen alternative and the other available alternatives changes over time. Making a number of assumptions about PDM that are based on this notion, the authors note that:

1. PDM involves attempts to structure and restructure available information in order to support the final choice
2. PDM involves the adoption of perspectives which aid the decision-maker to differentiate among alternatives
3. Emotions are often important in personal decision-making, before, during and after the decision
4. PDM involves a dynamic interaction with the environment
5. There are differences between satisfied and regretful PDMs’ pre- and post-decisional processes

The issue of PDM is highly relevant for this study, as translators’ strategies, approaches, and norms in particular, and translation as a cognitive process and problem-solving activity in general, entail personal decision-making. It can be assumed that expert translators will be better equipped to handle PDM than non-experts. This issue is further elaborated in Chapter 9.

Studies investigating the expert translators’ approaches reveal that expert performance is a combination of knowledge base, advanced cognitive skills, and an accumulation of experiences with texts which is qualitatively different from that of competent translators, beginners, and non-

translators. In her work, *Expertise and Explicitation in the Translation Process*, Englund Dimitrova (2005) offers a particularly interesting report on a TAPs-centred study of translation proficiency. In the study, two senior professionals, two younger professionals, two translation students, and three students of Russian translated the Russian biographical note of a painter into Swedish, which was their native language. Using TAPs, computer logging of the translation, and video-recording as data collection methods, Englund Dimitrova discovered that the performances of professionals were strikingly different from that of the other participants. Expert translators' skills (background knowledge, speed, translation quality, etc.) were, perhaps obviously, more advanced. According to Englund Dimitrova (2005), it takes many years for the construction of the experts' translation approach and translation competence. Background knowledge, cognitive skills and experience, translation competence or super-competence, all take time to acquire and mature. A reference to these expert and non-expert behaviours will be made at a later stage in this study when analysing the participants' protocol transcriptions, questionnaires and researcher's diary in Chapter 9.

In addition to the above findings, research has revealed that the translation process of professional translators is highly automatised (Pym, 2003; Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009). This can explain why professionals tend to verbalise less than translation or language students in TAP sessions (Börsch, 1986, p. 207; Toury, 1991, p. 69; Kovačič, 1997, p. 237). It can also be the reason why some scholars believe that it is not easy for these participants to reason their choices explicitly (cf. Toury, 1991; House, 1988; Ericsson & Simon, 1993). In the case of automation, actions and reactions occur instantly (and mostly unconsciously), therefore impeding time to think, analyse, and explain, or not enabling sufficient time for cognitive processes (e.g., think, analyse, explain) to take place on a conscious level.

In the following section, attempts to systematise the two contrasting approaches between experts and non-experts the differences which cause the gap phenomenon will be discussed.

6.1.3.2.3. Attempts to Systematise Expert and Non-Expert Translators' Approaches

According to the above discussion, the two approaches are different with regards to the following aspects: type, time, meaning, attention/focus, search, editing and confidence (Matrat, 1992; Kussmaul, 1995; Lörcher, 1997, 2005; Shreve, 1997; Jääskeläinen, 2000; Séguinot, 2000; Jensen in Jarvella et al., 2002; Livbjerg & Mees in Alves 2003; Pym, 2003; Smith, 2004, 2007; Englund Dimitrova, 2005; Olk, 2009). These aspects are synthesised into the following table:

Table 6.1.
Attempts to Systematise Expert - Non-Expert Translators' Approaches

Aspects of Approach	NON-EXPERT TRANSLATORS' APPROACH	EXPERT TRANSLATORS' APPROACH
Type	Mixed approach (either of a linear form, or a mixture of top-down and bottom-up approach)	Clear/strategic approach (top-down/holistic) Automation
Time	More time	Less time
Meaning	Do not always grasp the meaning (misinterpretations/mistranslations, misunderstandings)	Grasp the meaning
Focus	Focus on linguistic characteristics and single words	Focus on a sense-oriented procedure and longer text segments (phrases, clauses, sentences)
Search	Rely extensively on dictionary search	Use of technology and supporting material
Editing	Forget editing/revising	Always edit/revise
Confidence	Lack of confidence	Translate with confidence

As Table 6.1. shows, a review of previous studies results in a systematic list of two different approaches. As this figure is relevant to the third research question and aim of this study, it will be the basis for the detection and analysis of the translators' approaches that the three FGs of this study present. Aspects of these approaches – except time which is not taken into account in this study – will be discussed in Chapter 10.

What is interesting to note, is that some scholars moved a step beyond describing and analysing general aspects of experts' and non-experts' approaches (Tirkkonen-Condit, 1996; Séguinot, 2000, Smith, 2004, 2007; Englund-Dimitrova, 2005). They went on to construct systematic lists of both approaches step by step, reporting on the translation process gradually. In the lines below, Smith's (2004, 2007) attempt will be illustrated more specifically, as it uses TAPs and is therefore of clear relevance to this study, which aims to provide another type of systematisation.

Smith (2004, 2007) undertook a think-aloud study with graduate students in a German translation course at the University of Wellington in New Zealand. Their performance was compared to the performance of professional translators, and results revealed noteworthy differences, some of which are summarised below. A key feature of this study was the fact that the researcher tried to systematise the approaches. The product of this systematisation resulted in the three figures below: Table 6.2., which shows the major differences between academic and professional translation; Table 6.3., which provides a model of the Common Approach to the Academic Translation; and Table 6.4., which presents a model of the Common Approach to the Professional Translation.

As presented earlier in this chapter, TS scholars report that student and professional approaches in terms of translation differ significantly. This is clearly illustrated in Table 6.2.:

Table 6.2.
Differences between Academic and Professional Translation (Smith, 2004, 2007)

	Academic Translation	Professional Translation
Task	Artificial (end users know both languages)	Real (genuine communication gap)
Goal	Demonstrate proficiency in the SL and TL, while considering the needs of student/translator	Achieve communication while considering needs of client
End user(s)	Teacher, student	Client
End user(s) knowledge of SL	Yes	No
End user's knowledge of TL	Yes	Yes
Assessment of translation quality by end user	Yes (by teacher)	Not possible as client does not know the SL ³¹

The above model, as Smith (2004, 2007) acknowledges, is based mainly on classroom observation and impressions gained by the author over twenty years of language teaching. As impressions, however, can be deceptive, Smith found it necessary to verify her assumptions through a more rigorous study into what is actually happening when language students translate a text, and how this differs from the approach that professional translators apply when they translate the same text. Some interesting observations from this recent study are presented in Tables 6.3. and 6.4. below.

In an attempt to outline a common approach to academics' and students' translations, Smith (2004, 2007) draws on her observations of how students translate, interviews a number of them to better understand methods used and ideas about translation, and conducts several think- aloud studies. She comes to the conclusion that a typical academic translation is likely to proceed through the steps detailed in Table 6.3.:

Table 6.3.
A Common Approach to Academic Translation (Smith 2004, 2007)

Step One	The language student reads the source text (ST) and translates its lexical items (words and expressions) into the target language (TL), applying appropriate grammatical rules. If permitted, s/he will use a dictionary for this purpose, looking up all words which are unknown or doubtful.
Step Two	When breakdown occurs (and only then), the student moves from simply translating words to analysing text content and paraphrases this in the source language (SL).
Step Three	The student translates the words of the SL paraphrase into the TL.
Step Four	Steps two and three are then repeated as required until the whole text has been translated.
Step Five	The target text (TT) produced through the above steps is then edited with special consideration to orthography, morphology, syntax, and stylistic considerations.
Step Six	The result of the above is ideally a correct and readable TL text, which, however is likely to differ considerably from the way in which a native speaker would have written such a text.

A common approach to the professionals' translations in terms of steps taken is presented in Table 6.4. This derives from Smith's (2004, 2007) personal experience and a number of her colleagues' views:

³¹ Many employ the services of revisers or editors to do this.

Table 6.4.
A Common Approach to Professional Translation (Smith 2004, 2007)

Step One	The translator identifies the translational situation, e.g., the purpose of the translation, considering the client's requirements. This is a paramount consideration and must be kept in mind while working through all of the subsequent steps.
Step Two	The translator analyses the contents (gist, ideas, concepts, argument, etc.) of the ST. Deep analysis is used, considering as many aspects of the text and its individual elements as possible. If the ST is very complex, the translator may paraphrase text content or even re-organise it in a schematic form.
Step Three	The translator expresses the contents of the ST in the TL and writes the first draft of the TT.
Step Four	The translator edits the TT, again using deep analysis, now of the TL. Comprehensibility and appropriateness of the TT are investigated. Does it meet client requirements? Has s/he succeeded in expressing what s/he wanted to say?
Step Five	By comparison with the ST, the TT is analysed as to completeness, lexical and grammatical equivalence (where appropriate), stylistic comparability, etc.
Step Six	This approach ideally results in a close, NS-like equivalent to the SL in the TL.

In the figure above, it is made clear that the actual translation process needs to be carefully planned, prepared for, constantly monitored, and evaluated. It should be noted that Step Three, the act of translating *per se*, does not mention the word 'translation'. Instead of referring to meaning transfer from one language to another, the word 'expression' stresses the necessity of expressing the message of the ST in the TT with language fluency, naturalness, and sound of language. Smith's systematisation on the study of expert and non-expert behaviours shows how differently these two groups approach the translation task in the translation process. Smith's attempts to systematise expert and non-expert translators' approaches will be revisited in Chapter 10 while discussing the main findings of this study.

6.1.3.3. Possible Reasons for the Gap Phenomenon

From what was discussed above, there is an obvious gap between the experts' and non-experts' approaches in the realm of translation competence. Possible reasons for the gap phenomenon revolve around five main aspects: lack of experience from background language courses, lack of experience with appropriate texts, lack of confidence, lack of authenticity in teaching pre-mature cognitive skills, and problems deriving from methodology used (e.g., IT skills). These five aspects are summarised below.

- **Lack of Experience from Background Language Courses**

According to Smith (2004, 2007) students enter translation classes with no (or very little) previous experience in translation from their language teaching and learning classes. If it is accepted that good language students do not necessarily make good translators (Kiraly, 1995; Razmjou, 2004; Smith, 2004, 2007; Massey, 2005; Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009), and it can also be said that most language students, even if their language proficiency is high, would not necessarily know how to even start to translate in an efficient way, this is largely due to the fact that second, foreign, or additional language classes have different aims than translation training classes. Thus,

translators need far more than just linguistic competence: they need translation competence that involves translation skills and a strategic approach (Smith, 2004; 2007). Language students with a high proficiency in the TL are usually able to express an idea in the same (or very similar) way as a native speaker of the TL. In Smith's (2004, 2007) opinion, this is due to the nature of language education that students receive. This teaching approach has several pedagogical implications for second, foreign, and additional language pedagogy curricula, something that due to space constraints will not be elaborated in this study.

- **Lack of Experience with Appropriate Texts**

Some students have limited experience in translation, but often by way of isolated sentences or short texts in language classrooms. This means that they do not engage with the types of texts translated by professionals in real working conditions. If longer texts are translated by language students, those are likely to be literary texts rather than instructions for use, tourist brochures, or birth certificates, which, according to Smith (2004, 2007), make up the 'bread and butter' of professional translators.

- **Lack of Confidence**

As suggested above, results from TAP experiments reveal that some translation students do not translate in a confident manner, something that is evident from comparisons with the professionals' translating process. Students' lack of belief in their knowledge and abilities make them uncertain as they translate. In many cases, students suffer from performance anxiety, fearing that they might 'get it wrong', and they resort extensively to the dictionary. This is an approach that most of the time leads them to adopt a literal approach to the task, as they begin to translate words and forget about translating content. If the translation turns out to be more difficult than expected, the majority of students are likely to persevere with this approach. According to Kussmaul (1995), students with weak personalities are students of insufficient translation competence. When reflecting on reasons for this behaviour, he highlights a potential link to teaching methods: "[i]t may very well be that when our students embark on a translation training course, they are quite self-confident young people, but in the course of their studies they lose their self-confidence as a result of the criticism of their teachers" (Kussmaul, 1995, p. 32). The perceived lack of confidence of student translators bears important implications and highlights the supporting role of the translator trainer. It is also something that translation policy-makers (e.g., curricula designers, scholars, trainers, etc.) should take into account. These issues are discussed in Chapter 11 of this thesis.

- **Lack of Authentic Situations in Teaching**

The absence of authentic situations in many translation courses can be an additional reason for the gap phenomenon, and for the significant differences in competence between students and professionals (Alves, 2005; Massey, 2005). Traditionally, undergraduate formal language teaching and learning environments (classroom-based approaches) involved learning lexical items and grammar rules (Cook, 2010). Classroom activities were designed around them, and foreign language textbooks tended to provide artificially short texts which were mostly written with the language learner in mind, or even just a number of single sentences with no contextual information (i.e. ‘my mother has two brothers’, ‘there is a pen on the table’). These texts have specific language learning objectives, and students who have been trained with such texts have learned to look at language rather than content, an approach they then continue to apply when undertaking translation tasks. The situation improves only slightly when students are given authentic texts to translate. Such translation texts are mostly chosen for their informative, challenging, or pedagogical value. As noted by Honig & Kussmaul (1982), these ‘authentic texts’, however, often still have little to do with the type of texts that professional translators work with – an observation leading to another implication of a pedagogical nature with regards to translator training, which will be elaborated in Chapter 11.

What is more, academic translation exercises are given with a specific purpose in mind: students should demonstrate proficiency in both the source and target languages. The translation is generally not performed in order to make comprehensible what cannot be understood by the teacher – which is the actual purpose of a professional translation undertaken on behalf of a client who has no or insufficient knowledge of the SL. Authenticity, therefore, needs to be a feature of the material students should be given, but also of the other activities, approaches, practices, and aspects of their training as translators. A link back to this issue will be made in Chapter 11.

6.2. Concluding Note

Translation competence issues were discussed in this chapter. Attempts to define translation competence and to build an effective model of translation competence were critically reviewed, whereas the gap phenomenon in the context of translation competence was introduced. Addressing the third research question and aim of the study, endeavours to systematise expert versus non-expert translators’ approaches were reviewed. The following chapter will situate the study squarely within translation process research, viewing translation as a cognitive process and problem-solving. Think-aloud studies will be explored with a focus on TAPs as an efficient and valid research methodology within the field of TS and its derivative sub-disciplines.

Chapter 7

Chapter 7

Translation Process Research

“The process (of translation) is an unusually complex one,
one which if J.A. Richards is correct
‘may very probably be the most complex type of event
yet produced in the evolution of the cosmos’ ”

(Venuti, 2000, p. 117)

7.0. Introductory Notes

In the first pages of his book *Approaches to Translation* Peter Newmark (1988) stresses that “the twentieth century has been called the ‘age of translation’ (Jumpelt, 1961) or ‘reproduction’ (Benjamin, 1992/1923)” (p. 3). Developed in many parts of the world, TS has witnessed increasing attention within the last decades. It is no wonder why the growth of the scientific area of TS as a discrete discipline is marked as “a success story of the 1980s” (Gentzler, 1993, p. iv).

At present we are experiencing a boom (Thelen, 2005) in TS. All around the world new TS programmes are appearing. Some of these aim at the professional training of translators and interpreters, others at the academic study of translation and interpreting. For the majority, though, programmes aim at both, while many scholars from interdisciplinary areas turn to TS theory, research, pedagogy, and practice. This observation, reported by Douglas Robinson in his book *Western Translation Theory from Herodotus to Nietzsche* (1997), is repeated by other distinguished scholars within the discipline. Mark Shuttleworth (1997) in his *Introduction to the Dictionary of Translation* describes the 1990s as an exciting time for TS, when all over the world international conferences were organised on a variety of translation-based topics, books and PhDs were written, and new MA programmes were set up and sponsored. In this vein Mona Baker (1998) suggests that TS is perhaps ‘the discipline of the 1990s’ (p. xiii), a contention that perhaps has a basis in the statistics provided by Monique Caminade and Anthony Pym (1998).

This chapter focuses on TS as an autonomous research field which has interacted through the years with neighbouring disciplines and explored a variety of methodologies, approaches, and trends. Being an interdisciplinary methodology, belonging to process-oriented studies, TAPs as a data collection methods discussed below, where the background to process research will be given. Providing an overview of the different branches of TS ('pure' and 'applied', see figure 7.1.) and their respective fields, this chapter emphasises process-oriented studies as a branch of descriptive TS (where phenomena are described as they are in the real world) and views the process of translation as the leading edge of contemporary translation research. In the main part of this study, strategies translators employ and attitudes they adopt when translating humour from English into Greek, as well as norms governing these strategies and approaches, will be uncovered through a think-aloud method, revealing useful insights to the translation process.

In this framework, translation is seen as a cognitive process where decisions are made and problems are solved. As a result, the relation between the two fields is examined: Translation and Cognition (7.2.1.) and Translation as a Problem-Solving Activity (7.2.2.). The chapter concludes with a presentation of TAPs, the methodological tool used for investigating the process of translation by means of think-aloud studies (7.2.3.), which is at the centre of process-oriented research nowadays. The origins of TAPs and their significance and contribution to the scientific area of TS as a research methodology are discussed. A description of how TAPs are used and some worldwide examples are also given, and their strengths and weaknesses as well as issues of objectivity, validity, and trustworthiness along with recommendations of safeguards and ethical issues are highlighted. Lastly, alternative methodologies to TAPs are presented and a critical comparative analysis of the different methodologies is attempted.

7.1. The Development of Process Research in Translation Studies

7.1.1. Phase I: Holmes' Map of TS

The emergence of the discipline of TS was certainly not a phenomenon of the 1990s. Its origin as an independent field of study dates back to the early 1970s (c.f. Baker, 1998). In the 1960s, it seemed possible that academic research into translation would take a linguistic track (cf. Bassnet, 1980; Gentzler, 1993; Baker, 1998). However, approximately half a century later, the discipline of TS has followed a multiplicity of tracks interacting with related disciplines, and exploring a range of paradigms and methodologies with a view to gaining fresh insights and widening translation and interpreting horizons.

In 1972, James Holmes acknowledged the growing scholarly interest in the topic of translation which had started after the Second World War. After reviewing some of the names which had been proposed for the discipline, he suggested the term *Translation Studies* (emphasis added). According to Holmes (1972), the adoption of this name helped to remove the confusion and misunderstanding surrounding the status of the emerging discipline. By using the term *Translation Studies*, Holmes intended to avoid the misconception of translation as an art or craft, and the flawed idea that translation could be studied with the same rigour, precision, and formalisation with which mathematics, physics, chemistry, or biology treat their respective subject matter.

Besides giving a name to the new discipline, Holmes (1972) attempted to outline the scope and structure of TS. Starting from the principle that TS is an empirical discipline – that is, a discipline based on the systematic observation of authentic objects of study – Holmes identified two main fields of research or branches: *Pure* and *Applied* TS (view Figure 7.1. below).

Figure 7.1.
Holmes' Map of Translation Studies



(in Toury, 1991, p. 181)

- **Pure Translation Studies**

Pure TS is subdivided into descriptive TS and theoretical TS. The objective of descriptive TS is “to describe the phenomena of translating and translation(s) as they manifest themselves in the world of our experience” (Holmes, 1987, p. 14). The meaning for translating here is the process that underlies the creation of the final product of translation. The objective of the theoretical TS is “to establish general principles by means of which these phenomena can be explained and predicted” (ibid.).

- **Descriptive Translation Studies**

There are three main types of research within descriptive TS: product-oriented, process-oriented, and function-oriented. These are explained below.

i) Product-Oriented

The focus of product-oriented descriptive TS is the description of individual translations. A comparative analysis of different translations in the same TL of one ST or a study of a ST and its translation into one or more languages can be possible topics. Analyses of this type can either occur in the realm of synchronic studies, analysing works from one historical period, or diachronic, analysing works from a range of periods (Holmes, 1987). The central issue is the twofold status of translations, which can be conceived as both independent texts and derivative products. Emphasis is put on how TTs function in their new settings, where the relationships between the linguistic features of the translated text and comparable vernacular texts of the TC are taken into consideration. Priority is given to the comparison of STs and TTs in order to describe the linguistic phenomena and to provide scientifically justified judgments on the quality of existing translations (cf. Graham, 1985).

ii) Process-Oriented

Process-oriented descriptive TS aim to reveal the thought processes that take place in the mind of the translator while he is translating.

One of the most common techniques used for investigating a translator's behaviour is the think-aloud method, which involves asking a translator to translate a text and concurrently to verbalise his thoughts (Jääskeläinen, 1995, 2010; Séguinot, 1996; Tirkkonen-Condit, 1996; Kiraly, 1997; Bernardini, 1999, 2001; Ericsson, 2002; Li, 2004; Englund Dimitrova, 2005; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007; etc.). The written transcripts of these recordings (i.e. TAPs) and a detailed investigation of both think-aloud studies and TAPs is undertaken later on in this chapter in section 7.2.3. (p. 205).

Process-oriented research is concerned with *how* translation work is undertaken, seeking to identify the different cognitive strategies that govern the translation process. This study is particularly focusing on the latter, as it aims to investigate the strategies, approaches, and norms participants of the three FGs present as they translate humorous ChL extracts.

iii) Function-Oriented

Research in function-oriented descriptive TS describes either the function or the impact a translation or a collection of translations has had in the socio-cultural situation of the TL. It is therefore “a study of contexts rather than texts” (Holmes, 1987, p. 15). Within this field of research, the reasons why certain types of texts were translated in a certain country in a particular historical period (synchronic), or over a longer period of time (diachronic), while others were excluded, can be studied.

The cognitive and social conditions for proper language use and successful rewriting are put under the researcher’s microscope. The questions raised, either, describe, evaluate, or improve the TT text with a view to revision and functional tuning to the target readership. In this context, norms, especially those which operate in institutional and professional settings, are of major importance.

- **Theoretical Translation Studies**

This branch of pure TS, elaborates principles, theories, and models to explain and predict what the process of translation is, given certain conditions, such as a particular pair of languages or a particular pair of texts (Holmes, 1987).

Theoretical TS embraces both a general translation theory and partial translation theories. The elaboration of a general theory, capable of explaining and predicting all phenomena regarding translating and translation is, according to Holmes (1987), the ultimate aim of the discipline. He recognised, however, that most of the theories elaborated up until then were models restricted to one or more specific aspects of translation. The formulation of a general theory was at the time, and still is, a long-term goal for the discipline of TS as a whole.

Scholars, such as Joseph Graham (1985) and Anthony Pym (1992, 2005), have argued that a general theory of translation cannot exist for two main reasons: a) the processes and the products of translation are extremely complex and multifaceted phenomena, and b) TS scholars approach their research from different perspectives, adopting different methodologies, assumptions and terminologies, and in so doing make it difficult to compare their findings. For the same reasons, they also found it difficult to work together towards a common theoretical model.

Holmes (1987, pp. 176-181) distinguishes six different types of partial translation theory (as opposed to general):

1. Medium-restricted (theories of human versus computer assisted translation, or written versus oral translation)
2. Area-restricted (theories relating to specific language communities)
3. Rank-restricted (theories dealing with language as a rank or level system: the rank for Holmes is made up of the morpheme, the word, the word group, the clause, or the sentence level)
4. Text-type restricted (theories relating to particular text categories, such as poems, legal documents, technical manuals, etc.)
5. Time-restricted (theories dealing with contemporary texts or those from an older period), and
6. Problem-restricted (theories concerning the translation of puns, titles, idioms, proverbs, proper names, metaphors, unusual collocations, etc.)

The last type of partial translation theory is one of the tenets of this study, where translation is viewed as a problem-solving task. It concentrates on ChLT and HT, fields where specific difficulties can be encountered.

- **Applied Translation Studies**

Applied TS, the second main branch of the discipline suggested by Holmes (1987), concerns itself with four fields: translator training, translation aids, translation policy, and translation criticism (cf. Holmes, 1987). All of these fields are also relevant to this study. Aspects of this field were discussed in Chapter 6 and will be tackled in this chapter (see section 7.2.1., p. 195), as well as Chapters 10 and 11.

- **Further Dimensions of Translation Studies**

Holmes (1987) also briefly discusses two additional areas of research which emerge within each of the three branches of the discipline and attract a great deal of interest from a variety of translation scholars (e.g., Bassnet, 1980; Newmark; 1988; Hermans, 1999): the history of TS (either pure or applied) and the study of the methodologies that are most appropriate for research carried out in the different subdivisions of pure and applied TS. Finally, Holmes (1987) points out that his proposed subdivisions of the discipline should be viewed not as separate and distinct domains, but as interacting areas of research, which need to be given equal attention for TS to conceptualise TS. Holmes's work became a reference point, and one of the most important contributions inspired from his work was the work of Toury, which is discussed below.

7.1.2. Phase II: Gideon Toury's Programme for TS

Twenty-three years after Holmes (1987) had proposed the very first map of TS, Gideon Toury (Figure 7.2.) proposed his vision of the organisation of the discipline, by means of a programmatic map, which he adapted from Holmes (1987). In what follows, Toury's map of the relations between TS and its applied extensions will be illustrated:

Figure 7.2.
Toury's Map of Relations Between Translation Studies and its Applied Extensions



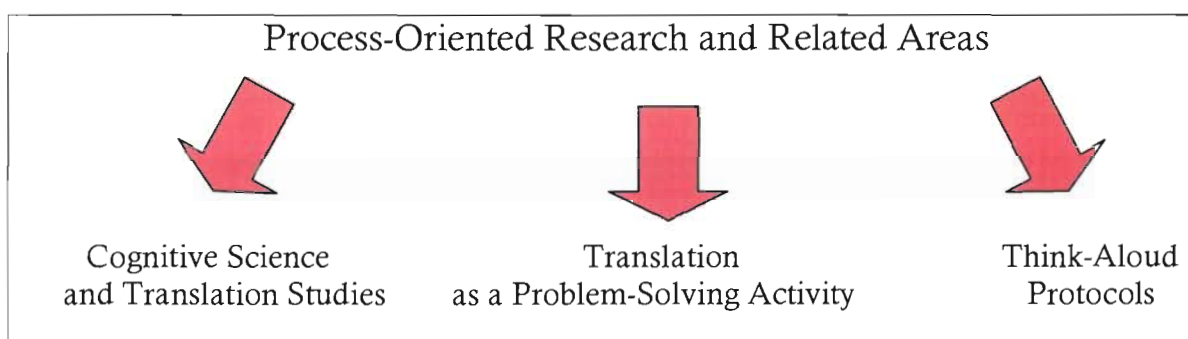
(Toury, 1995, p. 18)

From Holmes' perspective (1987), each of the three main branches of TS – Theoretical, Descriptive and Applied – play an important role in the expansion and development of TS. All three branches enjoy equal status, and their interaction in a harmonious and dynamic way is seen as the prerequisite for the successful development of the entire discipline.

In his programme for TS, adapted from Holmes' basic map (Figure 7.2. above), Toury (1995), echoing Holmes (1987), speaks of the same three subdivisions of descriptive TS: product-oriented, process-oriented, and function-oriented studies. However, descriptive TS, is given a key role in the development of the entire discipline as an independent area of study. Putting this branch at the heart of the discipline, Toury (1995) argues that “no empirical science can make a claim for completeness and (relative) autonomy unless it has a proper descriptive branch” (p. 1), and he goes on to acknowledge that it has a unique internal organisation, it interacts with translation theory, and has a one-way relationship with what he calls “extensions” (Toury, 1995, p.1) of the discipline, such as the practical concerns of translation teaching, translation criticism, and translation aids.

This study, as noted earlier, is conducted within the empirical framework of process-oriented descriptive TS as described by Holmes (1987). It puts the emphasis on the process of translation and aims to investigate major process issues such as the attitudes, strategies, and norms of translators as they attempt to translate humorous extracts deriving from a well-known novel for children and YA. Throughout the investigation of the process of translation, cognitive aspects are investigated (such as problem-solving, decision-making, and choices of translation strategies). Issues linked to behaviour and cognition, as reflected in thoughts, verbalisations, and norms governing participants' thinking and behavioural patterns will also be explored and problematised. The following figure helps better to contextualise the study on the basis of research areas in process-oriented studies that enlighten the process of translation.

Figure 7.3.
Process-Oriented Research and Related Areas



7.2. The Establishment of Process-Oriented Research in Translation Studies

The process of translation is defined by Gyde Hansen (in Alves, 2003) as “everything the translator must do to transform the source text into the target text” (p. 26). Venuti (2000) adds that this process is “an unusually complex one, one which ...may very probably be the most complex type of event yet produced in the evolution of the cosmos” (p. 117).

Process-oriented research received increasing attention in the 1990s. Kvèdytė and Baranauskiene, in their work ‘Translation Strategies in the Process of Translation: a Psycholinguistic Investigation’ (2005) observe a turn to TS, which moves towards empirical studies resulting in empirical investigations of translation. It is often believed that what goes on in the translator’s brain while he is translating, i.e. the process of translation, is as important as the final product, that is, the translated text & Baranauskiene (2005). Being concerned mainly with the mental

activity of translating, process-oriented research is particularly interested in the cognitive and linguistic processes of translation and interpreting, but it also focuses on translation and interpreting in their broader social and professional contexts.

As it is not possible to directly observe the human mind at work, there have been many attempts to access it indirectly. One of the most popular attempts has been to invite translators to reveal their mental processes while carrying out a translation task. Such a method of data collection is known as “thinking-aloud” (Lörscher, 1986, 1991; Fraser, 1996b; Séguinot, 1996; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). Think-aloud protocols (TAPs) are nowadays seen as a key instrument in process-oriented TS. Empirical data is collected through TAPs, where translators are asked to verbalise their thoughts during or after the translation process.

In the present study, TAPs are employed to collect data and shed some light on beginner, competent and expert translators’ norms, strategies, and approaches while translating humour from English into Greek. This methodology is further developed in section 7.2.3., in this chapter (p. 205).

7.2.1. Cognitive Science and Translation Studies: Translation and Cognition

Attempts to understand the mind and its operation go back to Ancient Greece, where philosophers like Plato and Aristotle attempted to explain the nature of human knowledge (Thagard, 2010). The study of the mind remained one of the main areas of philosophy until the nineteenth century, with the development of experimental psychology (ibid.).

Cognitive science brings significant insights to the study of mind and intelligence, as both are its main objects of investigation. Although cognitive psychologists are frequently preoccupied with theories and computational models, they primarily undertake experiments involving participants who need to satisfy certain requirements and are brought into laboratories where various kinds of thinking processes are studied under controlled conditions. In recent years, psychologists have, for instance, experimentally examined the kinds of mistakes people make in reasoning, the speed of people thinking under various conditions, the performances of people as they solve problems, thus reaching conclusions on how the mind works (Nersessian, 1995; Thagard, 2010; etc.).

Translation research has paid much attention to the cognitive and emotional aspects of the translation process. Introspective studies, such as those undertaken by Seleskovitch (1976) and Krings (1987) initiated work into the translator’s mind and revealed that data taken from subjects’

TAPs and Translog files could enable researchers to capture their cognitive activity during the translation task. From Chesterman's (2000) point of view, TS has benefited considerably from adopting a cognitive approach, as cognitive theories can be possible sources of explanations for what translators think when they translate, how they make decisions, and how they solve their translation problems.

The present study is placed in the framework of both cognitive science and TS in terms of aims and methodology. Aiming to reveal aspects of participants' thinking in the process of translation, this study uses TAPs to reach its aims and answer the research questions in relation to translators' norms, strategies, and approaches while translating humour in ChL. This research is integrated with other attempts in the fields of translation and cognition, a selection of which will be briefly presented below. These fields are the following: explorations of the translators' mind, cognitive processes of novice and expert translators, translation pedagogy, translation and creativity, language learning through translation, and translation and meaning.

7.2.1.1. 'Diving' into the Translator's Mind

Various models of the problem-solving process and ways to get inside the translator's black box have been suggested by TS scholars globally. According to Chesterman (2000, pp. 9-12), the following are but a few: vary input and check changes, measure involvement, study drafts, computer studies of time distribution, keystrokes, TAPs, Translog, etc. Some key concepts and objects of investigation have been: attention units, non-linear units, routine versus non-routine processes, influence of self-image, influence of emotional state, differences between professionals and amateurs, amongst others. The latter is what this study aims to investigate, with the difference that instead of two groups of participants, it will refer to three groups distinguished according to their level of translation competence: beginner, competent, and expert translators.

7.2.1.2. Exploring Processes of Novices and Experts

Research in cognitive science has frequently focused on studying the differences in the performance and cognitive processes of novices and experts, where expertise is seen as a matter of knowledge, reasoning, development, intelligence, practice, and performance (Thagard, 2010).

In most of the cases, such studies (Lörscher, 1991; Tirkkonen-Condit, 1991; Tirkkonen-Condit & Laffling, 1993; Jakobsen, 2002; Jarvella et al., 2002; Alves, 2003; Englund Dimitrova, 2005; Gonzalez Davies, 2005; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007; etc.) demonstrate that it is important to study the transition from novice to expert in order to improve learning processes and to pinpoint best

practices in undertaking challenging translation tasks, such as humour in literature for children and YA for the purposes of the present study. In the course of this study, this is seen as an outcome of a potential benefit, and it is thus commented on in Chapter 10.

7.2.1.3. Translation Pedagogy

The study of mental processes taking place when translating is an important challenge not only for psychologists but for specialists in translation pedagogy as well, since these processes may be the basis for designing new teaching methods aiming to develop translators' skills and improve their quantitative and qualitative performance. Indeed, the goal of translation pedagogy is to guide students' development through different stages from novice to competent, resulting in expert translators (Robinson, 1997). What characterises the cognitive processes of expert translators is an issue that educators have attempted and will continue to attempt to understand.

In the context of translation pedagogy, the strategies employed for translation performance, the translator's strategies for managing his cognitive resources, etc. are of major significance. The present study attempts to shed light on the translators' strategies employed during the translating process and their regulating norms, thus highlighting important pedagogical implications, which will be developed in Chapter 11.

7.2.1.4. Translation and Creativity

A growing interest in researching creativity in the context of TS is also encountered (cf. Beylard-Ozeroff et al., 1998). Creativity is a cognitive skill and has been generating interest in various empirical studies (cf. Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). Issues that are of research interest are the following: detecting translators' creative solutions, searching for models and notions in the field of cognitive linguistics that might serve to describe what goes on in the minds of translators when they translate creatively, etc. In this study, although the influence of creativity could in many cases be seen, it was not investigated in the research data, as it was beyond the scope of the study.

7.2.1.5. Language Learning through Translation

Language learning and translation are relevant scientific fields. In the past few years, several studies in second language acquisition (SLA), for example Alanen (1995), Leow (2001b), and Rott (1999) for discourse studies, Rosa & O'Neill (1999) and Leow (1998a, 1998b, 2000, 2001a) for problem-solving tasks, have addressed the operationalisation and measurement of attention and awareness in their research methodology. Several studies have employed TAPs to gather concurrent, on-line data on learners' cognitive processes while they interacted with L2 data. In

various cases, translation is seen as a means to support mother tongue education (MTE) as well as second or foreign language learning (Witte et al. 2009). Due to space constraints this issue will not be addressed to in this thesis, but suffice to say that translation has long been considered beneficial to language learning.

7.2.1.6. Translation and Meaning

According to Ryding (2005) “making sense” is one of the cornerstones of cognitive linguistics, as constructing sense is one of the most intricate aspects of the human mind. Translation, compared to other language processes, is preoccupied with meaning-making on two fronts, as it deals with both the phase of understanding and that of reformulating what has been understood.

It is widely acknowledged that translation is not an easy process, as one should make sure to understand fully what actually goes into a translation before and while translating. With a clear understanding of procedures and requirements, the process should be more manageable for everyone involved. The most frequent difficulties in translation and meaning-making are those resulting from the failure to recognise the meanings of words or phrases peculiar to a particular context in the mind of the source listener or reader. This makes understanding between the speaker and listener or reader dependent on the agreement in context in the mind of each. That is where most misunderstandings in communication occur (Malinowski, 1923; Firth, 1935; Halliday, 1978; Lörscher, 1991; Fraser, 1996b).

It is essential to recognise that every sentence has meaning in the context (and only in that) in which it occurs. Therefore, where context is not shared between speaker and audience, there can be no true communication and no mutual understanding. Context, as the essential factor in determining meaning, has several different forms. Each form derives from a specific aspect of meaning and presents the translator with its own unique problems (Halliday, 1978).

Translation as a cognitive process was briefly examined in this section, and some areas of research in the field of translation and cognition were also presented. Viewing translation as a cognitive process, the next sections describe translation as a problem-solving activity which is best empirically analysed through TAPs methodology.

7.2.2. Translation as a Problem-Solving Activity

In establishing translation as cognitive process, several cognitive issues take place in the translator’s mind when translating: decision making, strategy-testing, problem-solving, etc. In this

section, translation as a problem-solving activity will be investigated, and concepts such as problem-solving and problem-spotting will be discussed. The issue is important, as in solving a problem, a strategy is activated which is, according to this study's belief, always governed by a norm or a set of norms.

7.2.2.1. Translation and Problem-Solving

As stated at an earlier point (section 7.1. above), translation can be viewed as a problem-solving activity. Quoting Hermans (1996): "if it is true that in the beginning was the word, then, almost from the beginning there was a problem of translation. Or rather: there is in that beginning a problem of translation..." (p. 1). Translation research has made constant efforts to solve problems encountered in the transfer of meaning from one 'languaculture' to another (Agar, 1994). This has always been the case, and it is because of this reality that translation exists. Translation research addresses the problems that are involved in transferring meaning from one languaculture to another, and the question of how successfully situations in one languaculture can be recreated in another is the principal concern of the translator. It is important to point out that not all languacultures interpret the same situations in the same way. Even when human intellectual and emotional needs may not differ drastically from one culture to another, the languacultural situations perceived and interpreted can still differ substantially. This is an important issue which makes translation both a challenging and a complicated task.

Most translation theorists agree that translation is understood as a transfer process from a foreign language – or a second language – into the mother tongue, as is the requirement of institutions such as the European Commission. However, market requirements often mean that translators have to transfer texts to a TL that is not their mother tongue, but another – second or foreign – language. This situation makes the translating process a harder task and a more intense problem-solving activity. In supporting this view Tricás (1995) notes that the transfer process is a difficult and a complex mechanism.

Reminding the scholarly world that the study of translation is problematic because of its dual nature – translation being both a representation of another text and, at the same time, a text in its own right – Cees Koster (in Riccardi, 2002) indicates that the translator acts within a problematic system, having to choose amongst different approaches. However, approaches, means, and techniques belonging to one single system or discipline are rarely sufficient to provide adequate solutions. As a result, translation thinking promotes a form of interdisciplinary thinking, which is a challenging and intricate reality.

Viewing translating as a problem-solving activity and investigating it as such results in further understanding of the thought processes involved in translation activities. One of the distinctive features of these various thought processes is their incorporating power. Each word in a culture functions as a semantic, cultural, and historical entity whose underlying associations of meaning have to be transferred as a totality into the cultural context of a new language. In the process of translating a literary work, such as the one selected for the purposes of this particular research (*The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾*), the translator will have to draw information from various disciplines in order to do justice to its specific textual situations. This reconfirms that the translator continuously acts in an interdisciplinary problem-solving environment.

7.2.2.2. Researching Translation as a Problem-Solving Activity

Seeing translation as a problem-solving process, a number of scholars have tried to investigate it empirically within the realm of think-aloud studies and by means of TAPs, thus making progress in advancing process-oriented research.

Research using TAPs commenced approximately five decades ago. In the early 1960s, Newell and Simon building on the work of cognitivists, such as Lashley (1929); Bruner, Goodnow, and Austin (1956); as well as Broadbent (1958) and Chomsky (1968), used TAPs to examine how people solved problems. A range of approaches have been adopted, focusing amongst others on translation strategies (Gerloff, 1986; Krings, 1986; Lörscher, 1986, 1991; Séguinot, 1991, 1996; Jääskeläinen, 1993; Mondahl & Jensen, 1996); attention units (Gerloff, 1986; Jääskeläinen, 1993; Séguinot, 1996); automaticity of processing (Jääskeläinen & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1991; Jääskeläinen, 1993, 1997; Ivanova, 1998); and affective factors (Kusssmaul, 1991; Laukkanen, 1996; Tirkkonen-Condit & Laukkanen, 1996; Jääskeläinen, 1995; Tirkkonen-Condit, 1997).

7.2.2.3. What is a Problem in Translation?

Defined as “challenges” and “pitfalls” (Clark, 2000, p. 20), as well as “difficulties” and even “problems” (Newmark, 1981, p. 38), translation problems may be “anything in a text that does not translate straightforwardly or unaided” (Deeb Zakia, 2005, p. 49). In more specific terms, a translation problem is:

a potential obstacle due to lack of skill/and language difference and *difficulty* is a consciously perceived problem; a problem can be difficult (i.e. it takes trouble to solve) or can be easy (takes no trouble to solve). The outcome, if a translation problem is solved, is correct translation (acceptable TT). If not solved, the result is incorrect translation (unacceptable TT), or, an error (defective translation resulted from unsuccessful solved problem). (Deeb Zakia, 2005, p. 51)

According to Nord (1991), a translation problem is “an objective problem which every translator (...) has to solve during a particular translation task” (p. 151). It can be encountered at any stage of the translation process, and it is an indicator of a subject’s use of translation strategies and thus of the subject’s translation competence.

Similarly to Nord, Orozco and Hurtado Alvir (2002) indicate that all translation problems share three characteristics: they may appear at any stage of the translation process, they are observable and, in solving them, translators show their ability to use translation strategies. All three characteristics are reliable indicators of progress in acquiring translation competence, an area which was discussed in Chapter 6.

In the realm of empirical research in TS, there is a wide taxonomy of translation problems (cf. Deeb Zakia, 2005). Due to word restrictions, translation problem classifications will not be discussed in this thesis, as the focus is on the strategies translators employ and the approaches they adopt to solve problematic translation areas – i.e. humour – as well as the norms that govern them.

7.2.2.4. Problem-Spotting and Solving Strategies

In the process of producing a translation, the translator encounters a variety of problems and uses a set of strategies, tools and resources to solve them (cf. Levy, 1967; Varantola, 2003). Finding solutions to dilemmas is a constant preoccupation and task for the translator. Translators make choices, in each paragraph, sentence or translation unit, so as to decide what is better or suitable, appropriate, useful, etc. According to Gerding-Salas (2000), translators usually adopt the most suitable strategies and techniques for the requirements of the text rather than adopting a certain technique and using it in every task.

Lörscher (1991) defines translation strategy as “a potentially conscious procedure for the solution of a problem which an individual is faced with when translating a text segment from one language into another” (p. 76). Drawing a distinction between a problem and a task, he stresses that solving a problem requires innovative thinking on the part of the translator, whereas solving a task is simply an exercise in reproductive thinking. While this distinction may not always hold methodologically or in translation practice, it is useful to note that not all text segments are equal in terms of translating them. In Chapter 5, it was argued that translating humour qualifies as a vast translation problem, since it concentrates on culturally-bound elements in a contextually-bound medium, and it thus constitutes a problematic translation area requiring solving strategies.

According to Gonzalez Davies, the explicit teaching of problem-spotting and solving strategies and procedures related to cultural references develops the students' translation competence significantly in this area. For strictly pedagogical purposes, Gonzales-Davies (2005) and Gonzales-Davies et al. (2001, pp. 160-179) describe a five-phase sequence in the problem-solving process of a translation: (1) general approach; (2) problem-spotting; (3) brainstorming and choosing strategies; (4) brainstorming and choosing procedures; and (5) choosing a final solution. These phases involve constant shifts between noticing, deciding, and justifying skills, and can be related to Kussmaul's interpretation (1995, pp. 40-50) of Poincaré's four-phase model of creative processing: (1) preparation; (2) incubation; (3) illumination; and (4) evaluating. Both models are worthy of a mention, as they are linked to translation pedagogy and are directly applied to a pedagogical context. Noticing is interpreted as noting, observing, or paying special attention to a particular item. Deciding refers to the entire process: making macro-decisions (such as those illustrated below), brainstorming, choosing strategies and procedures, and justifying the decisions. Justifying is related mainly to final problem solving in making an informed choice. Due to their pertinence for the present study, these five phases in the problem-solving process of translation described by Gonzales Davies et al. (2001, pp. 160-179) are discussed below. According to the authors, it is highly probable that some of these phases and skills overlap and that students may acquire them following a different sequential order and speed.

- **Phase 1**

This phase illustrates the general approach of the participant. The choice of specific macro or micro decisions will depend on different circumstances: from the decision to follow or deviate from social, political, or economic norms (Toury, 1978, 1980, 1995), how subjective to be, or what approach to apply to practical issues, such as the translation assignment, time, sources, equipment, fees, and the translator's expertise and personal or emotional situation. This phase may involve all the phases of the model of creative process adapted by Kussmaul (1995, pp. 39-40), such as: preparation, incubation, illumination, and evaluation. These are the micro decisions or "explicit textual manipulation of units of translation" (Chesterman in Gonzales-Davies, 2005, p. 166).

- **Phase 2**

This is the problem-spotting phase. A translation problem can be defined as a verbal or non-verbal segment that can be present either in a text segment (micro level) or in the text as a whole (macro level) that forces the translator to make a conscious decision to apply a motivated translation strategy, procedure and solution from amongst a range of options (Scott-Tennent et al., 2000,

2001; Gonzalez Davies et al., 2001). This is related to what Kussmaul (1995) calls “non-routine process[es] which usually create[s] problems and requires creativity” (pp. 39-40), and the preparation phase of the model of creative process, during which “problems are noticed and analysed, and relevant information and knowledge are accumulated” (ibid.).

- **Phase 3**

This is the phase during which participants choose their strategies after brainstorming takes place. At this stage, the participant accesses mental or emotional actions to solve the translation problems or SL segments that seem non-transferrable automatically or routinely. When detecting a translation or interpretation problem, the mind activates certain strategies, and explores available internal or external information to solve it. The following can possibly happen: mental and emotional associations, parallel or logical thinking, resourcing, classifying, selecting, drawing mind maps, playing with words, accessing semantic fields and schemata, looking at lists of procedures, scanning published translations, etc. (Lörscher, 1991, Gonzalez Davies, 1998; Scott-Tennent et al., 2000, 2001; and Gonzalez Davies et al., 2001). Here, a strategy is a group of coordinated decisions that link the goals of the translation assignment with the necessary procedures (see the next phase) to achieve those goals in a given translational context. This phase is related to the incubation phase in the model of creative process in which, for example, physical and psychological relaxation are recommended to “unblock thoughts” (Kussmaul, 1995, pp. 39-40).

- **Phase 4**

This is the phase during which brainstorming can occur alongside choosing procedures. In this phase, the participant can consider a variety of existing acceptable translation procedures, such as explicitation, footnotes, calques, cultural adaptations, exoticising, reformulations, substitutions, omissions, addition, etc. to re-express the source text in a re-creative way (Bastin, 2000; Gonzalez Davies et al., 2001; Gil, 2003). This phase can be linked to the illumination phase in the model of creative process, during which Kussmaul (1995) recommends, for example, the “parallel activity technique” or changing one’s activity, also to unblock the mind (p. 43).

- **Phase 5**

In this final phase, the participant chooses a final solution. The translation solution is justified or evaluated according to the translation context (Scott-Tennent et al., 2000, 2001; Gonzalez Davies

et al., 2001). This phase is similar to the evaluation phase in the model of creative process, and is closely related to the “illumination phase” (Kusssmaul, 1995, pp. 49-50).

When discussing ways to solve problems during the translation process, Gerding-Salas (2000)³² notes that:

[u]ndoubtedly, those of us who are acquainted with translation software know the enormous output difference between a machine-translated text and a human-translated text. In order to solve translation problems, a human translator must make use of his/her cleverness, creativity, curiosity, intuition, ingenuity, reflection, resourcefulness, and much more; a machine, however, no matter how well-fed it is, is unable to discriminate or discern.

What is important in problem-solving and problem-spotting in particular, and in process-oriented TS, is the level of general knowledge or notions of translation that students have. These are said to determine the students’ whole process of translation since, depending on the students’ ideas about translation, they will have a particular purpose for a particular translation task, and this will determine their solutions for translation problems throughout the process of translation. Thus, what students do when finding a problem in the ST is to either ignore it or try to solve it. In some other cases, they might decide to postpone it. However, in case they decide to solve it, it is because they want the target readers to understand or receive the TT in a certain way, and this is only possible if they have a particular concept and notion of translation in the back of their minds. This study aims to reveal what is in the participants’ minds in terms of the norms that actually govern their translation decisions, strategies, and approaches. These are presented, analysed, and discussed in Chapters 9 and 10.

7.2.2.5. The Future of Translation as a Problem-Solving Activity

Research in TS now spans a range of areas and, as a result, research priorities are constantly shifting. In response to this development, TS research has moved, at least to some extent, from theoretical (“top-down”) research towards empirical/applied (“bottom-up”) research. In the last few years, research activities have focused on cognitive theory (e.g., Krings, 1986; Tirkkonen-Condit, 1993) and worked with participants of varying expertise and experience. There is now a strong belief that developing a wide spectrum of TS activities is essential for solving problems that are far beyond the traditional spectrum of subject-matters.

³² Available at: <http://translationjournal.net/journal/13educ.htm> – last accessed 30/07/2011

When discussing the future of TS, Politis (2006a) indicates that viewing the translation act as a problem-solving activity leads us to study it as a group of opinions and decisions that the translator should take into account. This means that TS research has to turn to cognitive sciences and investigate the translation process with emphasis on understanding, message construction, attention units modelling, information processing and keeping, etc.

In doing so, the translator as an individual becomes the focus of research. As we move ahead, process research pays more attention to what translators do, say, think, and feel. A valid methodology that supports research in this field of process-oriented research in TS is TAPs (Lörscher, 1986, 1991, Tirkkonen-Condit, 1991; Jääskeläinen, 1995, 2010; Séguinot, 1996; Tirkkonen-Condit, 1996; Kiraly, 1997; Bernardini, 1999, 2001; Aaltonen, 2002; Alves, 2003; Li, 2004; Englund Dimitrova, 2005; Krings, 2005; Rydning, 2005; Malkiel, 2006; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). As the methodology used in this study, TAPs are further discussed in the next section.

7.2.3. Think-Aloud Protocols (TAPs)

Following a review of translation as a cognitive process and a problem-solving activity, this section will generate a discussion on TAPs, the methodological tool often used for investigating the process of translation within the realm of think-aloud studies. To begin with, an investigation is carried out into the origins of think-aloud studies, and their significance and contribution to the scientific discipline of TS as a research methodology. Describing how TAPs are used, and providing a number of examples, their strengths and limitations, as well as issues of objectivity, validity, and trustworthiness, along with recommendations of safeguards, alternative methodologies, and ethical issues are pinpointed. Methodological considerations are also explored in Chapter 8.

7.2.3.1. Defining TAPs

Along with diaries, interviews, questionnaires, observations, etc., thinking-aloud is an introspective method within the qualitative research spectrum which seeks to draw conclusions from cautious observation and description of the phenomena observed (Chamot, 1994). According to various scholars, TAPs is a method of data collection that played a major role in process-oriented studies during the eighties (Olson-Duffy & Mark, 1984; Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Presley & Afflerbach, 1995; Cote, Coldman & Saul, 1998; Cote & Goldman, 1999; Bernardini, 2001; Kaakinen & Hyona, 2005).

In the framework of TS research, TAPs can be conceived as the development of the thinking out loud methodology of Olson, Duffy and Mark (1984). Following this, according to Tirkkonen-Condit (1991), TAPs are a type of externalisation of internal monologues, whereas to Coehlo and Rastoin (2006), TAPs are verbal self-reports of cognitive processes. According to Bernardini (1999), TAPs are verbalisations of thoughts, which subjects are instructed to produce while carrying out a translation task; and to Malkier (2006), TAPs are a methodology to probe the translators' black box.

According to Krings (1986) and Lörcher (1986, 1991), by adopting the introspective methods of psychology, experiments have been carried out in which translators were asked to vocalise what they thought while they were translating, and these monologues were tape-recorded and referred to as TAPs. Rydning (2005) noted that the aim of TAPs is to study the cognitive processes at work during the problem-solving activity of translation, granting that the participant translating is able to verbalise his thoughts (i.e. express all that goes through his mind while working on a translation). Everything the participant does and says is audio-taped and/or video-taped, and then transcribed and analysed. The TAPs thus obtained serve as a basis for explaining choices made in the translation.

According to Ericsson and Simon (1996), various researchers see TAPs as one of the prevalent research methodologies for studying the translating process. Laufer (2002) argues that a great number of studies on cognitive processes in translation have used TAPs to extract information about underlying mental processes required to complete a given task. Although each study may vary in terms of focus, it is expected that subjects faced with a specific task, such as translating, will verbalise whatever comes to their mind while performing the assigned task. These verbalisations are recorded, transcribed, and analysed. The anticipated outcome is that they will enable a better understanding of "the levels, steps, units of processing, the role of the interaction of the source and target language, the amount of proceduralisation, the origin and course of search processes, and the times used for these processes" (Dechert & Sandrock, 1986, p. 115).

7.2.3.2. The Origins of Think-Aloud Studies

At the end of the nineteenth century, as psychology emerged as a scientific discipline, the main interest for psychologists was that of 'consciousness' (Hoffman, 1992; Crutcher, 1994; Austin and Delanay, 1998). During this period, a majority of psychologists attempted to examine the structure and elements of humans' thoughts and subjective experiences through introspective analysis. Within a few decades, the introspective method began to be questioned, critiqued, and

subsequently rejected as scientific evidence (Hoffman, 1992; Crutcher, 1994; Austin & Delanay, 1998). Psychology withdrew its interest from studies of individuals' thoughts descriptions and first-hand experiences, and focused on observations of how other adults performed tasks in the laboratory (Crutcher, 1994). The rejection of introspection essentially limited the study of thinking in the 1950s, when the technical innovations, primarily the computer, led to the emergence of cognitive and information-processing theories of psychological phenomena. In the new research approach to the study of thought processes subjects were asked to think out loud, or think aloud, leading to a new type of verbal reports of thinking that differed from the earlier introspective methods. This became the core method of protocol analysis (Austin & Delanay, 1998).

The cognitive revolution of the 1960s renewed the interest in cognitive processes of a higher level and the way thinking allows individuals to generate solutions to new tasks (Hoffman, 1992; Crutcher, 1994; Austin & Delanay, 1998). With task analysis, the range of alternative procedures that people could use was specified in light of their previous knowledge of facts and procedures to create proper answers to a task (Austin & Delanay, 1998).

Humans' ability to recall part of their thought sequences has always been a controversial point (Hoffman, 1992). Specialists focusing on going beyond the sequence of thoughts analyse their detailed structure through introspection, and understand the processes controlling the creation of new thoughts. All major theoretical frameworks concerned with thinking have supported the use of verbally reported sequences of thoughts (Ericsson & Crutcher, 1991). However, the aspect of translators reasoning their translation choices during the decision-making process had always been unclear and was seen as a pitfall of TAPs (Bernardini, 2001). In the context of this study, it will be strongly supported that TAPs do not prohibit reasoning choices. It will be accepted that participants can not only verbalise their thoughts during their thinking-aloud, but they can reason and explain their translation choices and decisions as well.

While the behaviourist John B. Watson (1920) pioneered the use of think-aloud, and the psychologist Karl Duncker (1945) established it as a major data-collection method, in the realm of TS research, it is Krings (2005) who pioneered the TAP methodology in TS. Between the 1960s and 1980s, in the contexts of psychology and sociology, TAPs were viewed mainly as a research tool for investigating processes involved in thinking, problem-solving, and reading comprehension. Major researchers were Newell and Simon (1972), Ericsson and Simon (1980), Olson, Duffy, and Mack (1984), to name but a few.

In the 1980s, in the realm of language pedagogy, TAPs were conceived as a technique to model the strategies teachers used for text comprehension in an attempt to help students improve thinking and reading comprehension. While research paid attention to revealing the strategies expert readers used as they read, Collins and Smith (1982), Roehler and Duffy (1984), Miller (1985), etc., suggested how strategies could be used to improve comprehension instruction. Such studies emphasise the pedagogical contribution of TAPs in revealing the thinking processes involved in a skill – i.e. text comprehension – of major significance in the teaching and learning process.

In the 1990s, TAPs came to be accepted as an integral component of the process of constructing meaning within a social interaction (cf. Kucan & Beck, 1997). That is, the notion of thinking-aloud was at that point viewed less as a tool or strategy, and more as “an aspect of social interaction, specifically as an aspect of the discourse in social contexts designed to teach reading comprehension” (Kucan & Beck, 1997, p. 272). At that point, “the focus of reading instruction shifted from the individual to the social context of a group” (ibid., p. 285). Research revealed the facilitating role of TAPs that succeeded in engaging both teachers and students in more collaborative, dialogic, and reciprocal efforts for interacting with text and with one another, in order to construct meaning from text (Anderson & Roit, 1993; Beck & McKeown, 2001; Almasi, 1995; Nuthall & Alton-Lee, 1995)³³.

Though this methodology is not without its critics (see section 7.2.3.7. below for an outline of the limitations to this approach), it has made its mark over the last decades despite the fact that it appeared quite late in the process research arena of TS research. Krings (2005) stresses that the main reason for which process research started so late in TS is: “the lack of expertise in scientific research methodology in the field” (pp. 343-347). The significance of this research methodology as well as its contribution to process research in the field of TS is discussed below.

7.2.3.3. Significance, Necessity, and Contribution of TAPs in TS Research

As discussed earlier, the interest in the science of TS has recently shifted towards empirical explorations of the translation process. Recent research attempts have shown that investigating the processes, which take place in the translator’s mind while he is translating, equals to indirectly accessing the translator’s mental processes, as directly observing it is not possible with the current state of technology. An attempt to see into the translator’s mind, which has in Bernardini’s (2000)

³³ Available at: http://www.iowa.gov/educate/prodev/reading/reading_meta_35.doc – last accessed 30/07/2011

words steadily gained ground in translation research, has been to “ask the translators themselves to reveal their mental processes in real time while carrying out a translation task” (p. 1). TAPs, therefore, has become a major instrument in process-oriented TS (Kvėdytė & Baranauskiene, 2005) and is a tool that was developed in order to gain more immediate access to the black box (Séguinot, 1989; Tirkkonen-Condit, 1989; Lörcher, 1991; Jonasson, 1995, 1996, 1998). As discussed, think-aloud methodology taps into the short-term memory of research participants who complete tasks while they verbalise. Utterances produced by participants via this method form the data that researchers or other parties interested can use to better understand situations and processes. Usually, think-aloud studies are conducted to understand reasons for behaviours. In this study, reasoning links to ideology and norms, and it is believed that through TAPs, it is feasible for a translator not only to speak about his strategies, but also to give an account of them, thus revealing his norms.

Commenting on the significance of think-aloud studies in TS, Bernardini (1999) argues that this body of research has the advantage of offering valuable insights into the translation process. Think-aloud interviews can tap into a learner’s thinking processes, revealing strategies, attitudes, and language proficiency. Quoting Alves (2003), “it is possible to map the recursive movements of translators and to identify parameters of relevance in their problem-solving and decision-making processes” (p. 21). According to Aaltonen (2002), throughout think-aloud studies, researchers succeed in looking at patterns of strategic behaviour which emerge in translation performances. These patterns map out the principle lines of reasoning that a translator follows when conveying meanings from one language to another.

TAPs are therefore presented as a significant methodology that can be utilised to fill the gaps in TS process-based and competence-based research. It is a promising methodology, so it is hoped that it will further advance TS research if applied in TS studies.

In this study, TAPs method is utilised to reveal the translation approaches, strategies, and governing norms of beginner, competent, and expert translators as they translate humour in extracts from a novel for children and YA. It is also argued that in their verbalisations, participants will not solely describe how they undertake the translation task or reveal their strategies, but they will also explain and reason their choices, enabling the researcher detect governing translation norms. TAPs method is thus expected to contribute beyond the detection of strategies. This methodology will attempt to bring to the surface what governs the translator’s behaviour, and this will lead to implications for TS research, practice, pedagogy, etc.

7.2.3.4. The Theory Behind TAPs

Protocol analysis has emerged as one of the principal methods for studying cognitive psychology (Crutcher, 1994), cognitive science (Simon & Kaplan, 1989), and behaviour analysis (Austin and Delaney, 1998). The Cognitive Psychology Theory underlying TAPs highlights three basic statements:

1. Participants can easily verbalise the linguistic contents of working memory
2. Participants cannot directly verbalise the processes performed on the contents of working memory and non-linguistic contents of working memory
3. Participants can attempt to verbalise procedural or non-linguistic knowledge. However, doing so may alter the thinking process – for better or worse – and/or may interfere with the given task, slowing down performance (Li, Cohen, & Koedinger, 2010, p. 24)

However, as this study will reveal, the central assumption of protocol analysis is that it is possible to instruct subjects to verbalise their thoughts in a manner that does not consciously alter the sequence of thoughts mediating the completion of a task, and can therefore be accepted as valid data on thinking.

Based on their theoretical analysis, Ericsson (2002) and Ericsson and Simon (1993) argued that the closest connection between thinking and verbal reports is found when participants verbalise thoughts generated during task completion. However, participants can also be asked to think aloud while they work towards the task. They are asked to remain focused on solving the problem and, merely, to give verbal expression to those thoughts that emerge consciously while generating the solution under normal (silent) conditions. In most cases, when participants are asked to think aloud, some of their verbalisations seem to correspond to merely vocalising inner speech, which would otherwise have remained out of earshot.

7.2.3.5. Phases of TAPs

The verbalisation of thoughts usually consists of three phases henceforth referred to as: the Prior TAPs Phase, the During TAPs Phase, and the Post TAPs Phase. These are the phases followed in this study (see Chapter 8). All three phases are based on Gomoll's (1990) steps regarding how to collect data in a think-aloud study, which are presented below. These were also used and/or backed up by other researchers in recent years (Li, 2004; Jääskeläinen, 2005, 2010).

- **Prior TAPs Phase**

As a first step, the researcher/observer organises the observation experiment: he should decide on and write the tasks, recruit the participants, set up a realistic situation, and provide instrumentation for the prototype if possible. At a later stage, it is his responsibility to describe the purpose of the research in general terms and to notify participants that there will be no harm done if they decide to quit at any time. The researcher shall then give the participant the consent form and, soon after that, talk about and demonstrate the methodology explaining how to think aloud. If the researcher wishes, he can also give a demonstration as a practice task, unrelated to the task he will be later testing (e.g., a different text-type). At this particular stage, the researcher describes the task and introduces the text in question making clear that, he will not provide any help during the TAPs process. Then, the researcher asks for questions, and, finally, if there are no questions, the observation and verbalisation phase begins.

- **During TAPs Phase**

During the process, participants are asked to verbalise whatever thought comes into their minds as they translate. Everything they say is recorded – by audio or video – and later transcribed and analysed. Anything else that takes place in the course of the experiment, such as pauses, or the use of reference books and technology is usually included in the protocol transcriptions. Jääskeläinen (2002) explains that the aim of TAPs data-collecting is “to elicit a spontaneous, unedited, undirected, stream-of-consciousness type of account from the subject” (p. 108). According to Schlesinger (2005), the subjects are not expected to explain or justify their performance. However, if the participant falls silent for five or more seconds the researcher can remind him to keep talking and verbalising thoughts. For example, the researcher can ask the following questions, “What are you thinking?”, “How did you figure that out?”, “What else were you thinking?” It should be noted that the researcher should be sensitive to a participant’s feelings and possible desire to quit.

- **Post TAPs Phase**

As soon as observation finishes, recorded data (i.e. verbalisations before, during and after translating the text segments) is transcribed and analysed according to certain criteria (Krings, 1986; Károly & Trosborg, 2002; Klaudy, 2003; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007).

The three phases illustrated and explained above sum up the process adhered to in the present study. These can be found in Chapter 8 where methodology of the study is presented in more detail.

7.2.3.6. TAPs Research Worldwide

As already mentioned in this chapter (see section 7.2.3.4., p. 210), protocol analysis has emerged as one of the key methods for studying thinking in cognitive psychology (Crutcher, 1994), cognitive science (Simon & Kaplan, 1989), and behaviour analysis (Austin & Delaney, 1998). In the context of TS, the method was mainly used to study cognitive processes such as problem-solving and decision-making (Jääskeläinen, 2002; Schlesinger, 2005), but, more recently, it has also been used in a wide range of studies, such as research on personality traits (cf. Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). Throughout the 1990s, process-oriented studies have observed translators at various levels of expertise, including both trainees and professionals. Some studies focus on psycholinguistic processes while others aim to improve training, especially by giving it a stronger vocational angle approximating current trends in the profession.

Outside TS, protocol analysis now plays a central role in applied settings, for example in the design of surveys and interviews (Sudman, Bradburn, & Schwarz, 1996) and user testing of computer software (Henderson, Smith, Podd, & Varela-Alvarez, 1995). Finally, several interesting adaptations of verbal-reporting are emerging in the study of text comprehension (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995) and education in general (Renkl, 1997).

As seen in earlier sections of this thesis, the idea underlying thinking-aloud is that if a person can be trained to think out loud while completing a given task, then verbalisations can be recorded and analysed by researchers to reveal the cognitive processes employed to solve problems (Ericsson & Simon, 1984, 1993; Séguinot, 1989; Lörscher, 1991, 1992, 1993, Jääskeläinen, 1993, 1999; Kussmaul, 1995; Trikkonen-Condit, 1995; Bernardini, 1999). In pedagogical settings, thinking-aloud has been mainly used to identify what constitutes expert knowledge as compared to the thinking processes of non-experts (Krings, 1986 & Gerloff, 1986). In these cases, thinking-aloud offers a promising method to reveal what conventional assessment methods often fail to notice: hidden levels of student insight, misunderstandings, and misinterpretations. Thinking-aloud opens a window into the thinking patterns of students and/or experienced translators.

TAPs have been used in language pedagogy research as well. Research conducted with foreign language immersion students by Georgetown University research team at the National Foreign

Language Resource Center (NFLRC) (Chamot et al., 1999) used think-aloud interviews to collect information on children's language learning strategies. Researchers have found that some children can easily describe their thought processes while working on language and mathematics tasks in the foreign language, while other children's verbalisations are not so successful in revealing mental processing (*ibid.*). This implies that engaging with the method can support education at all levels, giving access to learners' mind. This has various pedagogical implications concerning teaching methodology, textbooks, teaching evaluation, etc.

In the field of foreign languages, another example can be drawn from Herwig's (2001) study conducted with four multilingual university students. Herwig asked the participants of the study to write a story, and then requested them to translate it while verbalising their thoughts as they translated from one language to a second one, and then finally to a third one. She claims that this methodology provides "solid evidence of the validity of the concept of spreading-activation at different cognitive levels" (Herwig, 2001, p. 125), as well as how the "plurilingual lexicon" is organised (*ibid.*). Although the study was restricted to four students and cannot be generalisable, Herwig (2001) argues that the "associative chains that participants articulated during this task" (p. 125) uncovered that "lexical selection involves both automatic and deliberate consultation of several languages at several different cognitive levels" (*ibid.*). She draws on both psycholinguistic and neurolinguistic perspectives on lexical organisation in an attempt to explain her findings, and proposes "a unifying model that comprehensively explain[s] language processing in plurilingual individuals" (Herwig, 2001, p. 134).

Paul Kussmaul (2000) notes that within TS the investigation of mental processes has become an increasingly popular topic. A number of scholars use TAPs during the translation process as data to analyse with the purpose of finding out something about the processes that underlie the production of translations. The use of TAPs for research purposes is rapidly increasing, as can be seen by the fact that, within the European Society for Translation Studies (EST), there are but a few work groups of members at the moment pursuing this kind of research.

According to Schlesinger (2005) and Jääskeläinen (2002), the participants of TAPs experiments were mostly foreign language students or students of translation, but in recent years, TAPs as a data-elicitation method has also been used for the study of professional translators. This example shows the constant expansion of TAPs applications and its contribution to TS theory and practice.

Englund Dimitrova (2005) reports on a TAPs-centered study on translation expertise where two senior professionals, two younger professionals, two translation students, and three students of Russian translated a Russian biographical note of a painter into Swedish, which was their native language. TAPs, computer logging of the translation, and video-taping of their work were all used as data-collection methods. Even though the study initially focused on explication of logical links, general findings on differences in the performance of the three categories of participants were also provided in the analysis. Perhaps unsurprisingly, the performances of the two senior professionals were very different from the others, leading to the assumption that it takes time for cognitive processes to mature.

Aaltonen (2002) also observed patterns of strategic behaviour which emerged in the translation performances of a single translator. Even though it could be argued that more data is needed for the reliability of results, this small-scale research revealed that the performance analytical approach can be successful in at least outlining the principle lines of reasoning that a translator follows when mediating meanings from one language to another.

Jakobsen (2003) presents data from an experiment that attempted to determine what influence – and interference – the think-aloud condition as described by Ericsson and Simon (1984) might have on the translation process and TT revision. Five final-year translation students and five professional translators translated two texts from Danish into English and two from English into Danish. One of the two texts in both language directions was performed with TAPs, the other one without it. All tasks were logged with Translog. The analysis of results showed that TAPs slow down TT production in both language directions, and increase the number of segments per source text unit. These results, however, do not nullify the method, which is considered the most obvious method to use to understand the translation process (Bernardini, 2001; Jakobsen, 2003; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007, 2009).

Barbarosa and Neiva (in Alves, 2003) outline and support the work of the PRONIT research group in using TAPs for TS research with foreign language learners, based at the Federal University of Rio de Janeiro in Brazil. The research group discusses the use of TAPs in both monologue and dialogue versions³⁴ with different research subjects, different levels of language skills, and different backgrounds in translation practice. This enables them to obtain more detailed and rich results, which they summarise in nine points (Barbarosa & Neiva in Alves, 2003,

³⁴ A monologue TAPs version is when one participant verbalises his thought as he translates, whereas a dialogue TAPs version is when two individuals verbalise their thoughts in a context of a dialogue between them.

pp. 152-153), such as: the identification of three major categories of problems, the strategies more spontaneously used to resolve them, the importance of dictionary use, etc. With these, the authors hope that “it [will] be possible to acquire information that [will] help in the training of future translators” (Barbarosa & Neiva in Alves 2003, p. 153) and seem to accept the use of TAPs.

Neves (in Alves, 2003) reports on the data of an experiment in which six novice translators and six professionals translated a Brazilian Portuguese text into English without time constraints and using the Translog DOS version. The analysis of the results reveals that novices and experts “arrived at the same results by means of different resources” (Neves in Alves, 2003, p. 117). Thus, Neves finds it reasonable to suppose that translation experience does not “imply acquiring a completely new ability, but rather organising a better, more efficient, and resource-saving way of approaching the translation task” (ibid.).

Another example of how TAPs have been used can be seen in the study of Livdjerg and Mees (in Englund Dimitrova, 2005). The authors carried out three experiments at the Copenhagen Business School in 1997, aiming to compare translation into the foreign language with or without access to dictionaries. Using TAPs as a method of investigation, Livdjerk and Mees investigated how, and to what extent, students use dictionaries when translating non-domain-specific texts. Their study revealed that the use of dictionaries influenced the quality of the translation product. What follows is a discussion of the strengths and limitations of the TAP methodology.

7.2.3.7. Strengths and Weaknesses of TAPs

Although lauded by many for the insights it can yield (e.g., Kiraly, 1997; Gerloff, 1986; Krings, 1986; Chesterman, 1997), the TAPs methodology is not without its critics (e.g., Færch & Kasper, 1986; Lörscher, 1991; Toury, 1991; Dancette, 1994; Sin, 2002; Malkiel, 2006). In this section, achievements, limitations, problematic issues and future perspectives in relation to TAPs will be presented.

I. Strengths

- **Providing Insights into Translation Processes**

When reviewing progress made in TAPs studies in the past fifteen years, Jääskeläinen (2002) argues that TAPs in TS “have questioned old truths and inspired new directions for research” (p. 107). As indicated by Ericsson and Simon (1993), this remains the most obvious method for investigating the translation process. In what follows, this notion is developed to highlight benefits in using the TAPs methodology.

- **Investigating Translators' Minds**

Think-aloud studies enable researchers to better understand translators' minds. By asking the translators to reveal their mental processes in real time while translating, an indirect access to the translators' minds is achieved via TAPs. Krings (1986) explains that TAPs provide access to the subject's short-term memory (STM) as "the verbalisations externalise linguistically structured information available in short-term memory" (Krings, 1986, pp. 265-266). TAPs, he adds, provide us with "the most direct means of access" (Krings, 1986, p. 266) to the thoughts that go through translators' minds, because "the time span between the processing of the information and its verbalisation" (ibid.) is no more than a few seconds. This confirms the idea that it is feasible for a translator who thinks to verbalise his thought(s), which is what this study hopes to analyse.

- **Putting Emphasis on the Translator's Role**

As seen in Chapter 2, since its appearance, TS has focused either on the ST or the TT, whereas the translator's role was mostly undervalued and under-represented in TS research and practice. The turn to process studies, though, places the translator in the centre of the research. In that context, the translator is seen as a key actor and a key player whose norms, strategies, and attitudes influence the translation process (and product).

II. Weaknesses and Drawbacks

As suggested previously, this method of data collection is not new to scholars working in psychology and cognitive science. However, up until now, the use of TAPs in TS has only recently been acknowledged, its specific implications are still relatively understudied, and the way it has been employed has often lacked rigour (Bernardini, 2001). TAPs, therefore, is welcomed as a methodological tool, but has received much criticism as well. As Breedveld (2002b) puts it, "thinking aloud is far from ideal" (p. 223), and Malkiel (2006) argues that thinking-aloud is a counter-natural activity. TAPs weaknesses as viewed by TS scholars are described below.

- **The Research Design and the Way Research is Conducted**

The rather subjective and unsystematic ways in which studies using TAPs have been conducted as well as the limited attention to research design and data collection procedures are but a few negative points levelled against TAPs in the academic world (Bernardini, 2001; Li, 2004). There is no doubt that pioneering work using TAPs has produced many interesting findings which otherwise would have remained largely unknown. However, the research designs of studies conducted to date seem to lack in rigour (Hansen, 2003, 2006c), a fact that has seriously

undermined the trustworthiness of many of the findings. As Ivanova (2000) puts it, “[m]any of the findings emanating from these projects constitute little more than working hypotheses about translation processes, which are to be confirmed or refuted by future research relying on enhanced rigor and trustworthiness” (p. 48).

Bernardini (2001), in discussing the limitations of TAPs, highlights three general points. First of all, she stresses that experimental designs have no theoretical justification, whereas objects of study are not thoroughly explained. According to her, a number of fundamental assumptions remain unjustified – something that weakens the entire paradigm. Additionally, Bernardini comments on the questionable environmental validity of TAPs when data is not collected under rigorous experimental conditions. She argues that researchers should avoid adopting a research design which relies on certain methodological conditions if these collide with the aims of the research itself. If such conditions are problematic, the data obtained might be invalid, and thus the methodology will be considered weak. Issues with regards to environment and settings of the study in question are reported in Chapter 8 of this thesis.

Bernardini (2001) notes that the validity/reliability of TAPs does not only depend heavily on the existence of a tightly controlled experimental environment, but is also highly influenced by individual translators’ differences. As already explained, the individual translator’s norms, strategies, attitudes, strengths, weaknesses, etc., come into play in the research framework of TAPs. As these are compared between two or more individual translators or group of translators, individual differences are revealed. This is again encountered in the study in question, where, based on the third research question, individual translators’ differences (and similarities) are investigated.

Additionally, Bernardini (2001) underlines a weakness that results from a lack in the literature of cognitive science concerning the length of the texts to be given in the context of a TAPs experiment. She points out that long, complex tasks can be accessed and reported on in the same way as short problem-solving tasks, for which the number of ‘paths’ one can follow in the search for a solution are limited, and only one solution is usually ‘right’ – something that signifies possible interference with the mental processes and thus non reliability of the results:

In other words, whereas there is sufficient evidence that under the right circumstances verbalising does not interfere with the mental processes and provides a faithful account of the mental states occurring between them, the generalisability of the methodology and of the data obtained to less easily

controllable experimental settings is more difficult to assess, and would not seem to be guaranteed by the model itself. (Bernardini, 2002, p. 258)

This is the reason why she suggests that short texts such as the texts chosen for the purposes of this study (see Chapter 8) are easier to control, and, at the same time, can produce reliable data leading to reliable results.

- **Analysis of Procedures**

Literature on TAPs highlights another important drawback with the methodology: the lack of techniques for analysis of the procedure. Quoting Wills (2004), “no generic techniques for the analysis of thinking-aloud procedures have so far been identified (at least to my knowledge) and normatively applied to a representative sample of translation-bound texts” (p. 782). In line with Wills, Krings (1986) argues that “pure data analysis” (p. 348) is without any doubt “the least reliable source for the analysis of translation processes and the one with the lowest predictive power” (ibid.), due to their complex nature. He acknowledges that “retrospection entails serious validity problems” (Krings, 1986, p. 349)³⁵.

Expressing his doubts on TAPs, he refers to a comparison he carried out of translation with and without thinking aloud, in which he found not only a difference in the translation speed by subjects, but also in some “translation process indicators such as the number of revisions” (Krings, 1986, p. 352). This echoes what was previously mentioned in relation to the potential of TAPs to influence mental processes, and thus result in unreliable conclusions, Krings further indicates that time restrictions can influence the translator’s attitude in a TAPs experiment with regards to the speed at which they translate, or the number of revisions. In order to maintain validity and reliability, he therefore suggests “triangulation as a remedy” (ibid.); an aspect that will be discussed in section 7.2.3.8. below (p. 223).

- **Lack of Reasoning and Theoretical Justifications**

TAPs have been said to prohibit the translator’s theoretical justifications for the classification schemes adopted when translating. Quoting Venuti (2004), “subjects are sometimes instructed to provide specific kinds of information: description, for instance, without any justification. And obviously the data will be affected by how articulate and self-conscious a subject may be...” (p. 339). In line with Venuti, House (1988) comments that the subjects participating in her TAPs

³⁵ Retrospection is the translator’s ability to reason his choices. In the context of TAPs, retrospection starts immediately after the TAPs session.

experiment made intuitive comments about their work, but these were never reasoned and argued. This aspect is contradicted by the results of this study. In the present study, it is believed that subjects do reason, explain, and defend their choices. This issue will be revisited in Chapters 9 and 10.

- **Participants and Data Limitations**

Since each protocol is notoriously time-consuming to administer, code, and analyse, most TAP studies involve only a small group of subjects, generally translating a single short text. For example, Séguinot (1989) administered a TAPs experiment where only one subject was translating a twenty-two-sentence text, Færch and Kasper (1986) had one subject translating a three-sentence text into two different languages, and Tirkkonen-Condit (1989, 1992) studied three translators translating a ten-sentence text and later recorded the verbalisations of two subjects translating a four-sentence text. However, there are exceptions to this rule. For example, Lörcher (1991) worked with forty-eight subjects, Kiraly (1997) with eighteen, and Hubscher-Davidson (2007) with twenty. Clearly, the more data produced, the larger the analysis of protocols will be.

Analysing the translation process with TAPs of a small group of subjects is, of course, problematic at best, especially if the researcher aims to generalise results. Data from TAPs can be “difficult to interpret” (Matrat, 1992, p. 203) and the researcher “runs the risk of over-interpreting individual utterances” (Breedveld, 2002a, p. 98). Participants and data limitations can lead to problems of subjectivity in the analysis undertaken by the researcher. The present study involved three FGs of ten participants each, based on their translation competence level: ten beginners, ten competent translators, and ten professional translators. This totalled thirty participants. The large number of participants aimed to counteract the participant and data limitations discussed and thus enhance the reliability of the analysis.

- **Reduction of Speed**

Jakobsen (2003), in an attempt to investigate the element of speed, asked his subjects to translate four texts with Translog, two using TAPs and two without, and he compared the logs in order to establish the effect of the think-aloud condition on translation speed, the amount of revision, and segmentation. The data indicated that thinking aloud reduced translation speed and greatly affected segmentation, but had little or no effect on the amount of revision.

Two years later, Jakobsen (2005, pp. 69-96) presented data from an experiment determining what influences thinking aloud might have on translation processes and TT revision. The experiment in question involved five final-year translation students and five professional translators translating two texts from Danish into English, and two from English into Danish. One of the two texts was performed with TAPs, the other one without it, and Translog was used for all tasks. The analysis of results showed that using the think-aloud method slowed down TT production in both languages and increased the number of segments per source text unit. Taking this recent research into account, it was decided not to have time restrictions in the TAPs experiment of this study.

- **Maximising Errors**

The use of TAPs is believed to significantly affect the translation process in terms of maximising errors as well. A study by Jakobsen (1999) refers to translation tasks carried out in Translog both with and without concurrent thinking aloud. It was found that thinking aloud led to more semantic changes and typing errors, and a higher number of segments per source text unit. The previous are all factors linked to reducing translation speed.

- **Duration of the Experiment**

The duration of the experiment links to the above drawback, i.e. maximising errors. Having reviewed a number of TAPs studies, Ericsson and Simon (1993) found no evidence that the sequences of thoughts, in terms of accuracy of performance, were changed when subjects thought aloud as they completed the tasks, compared to subjects who completed the same tasks silently. However, some studies revealed that subjects thinking-aloud would take more time to complete the tasks, most likely due to the additional time required to produce the verbalisation of the thoughts (Jakobsen, 1999, 2005).

- **Labour-Intensive**

As suggested, TAPs studies are said to be very labour-intensive during all phases (Krings, 1986). Once the experiment is designed and carried out, verbalised protocols have to be transcribed, and before proceeding with the analysis, transcriptions need to be coded. This phase is particularly time-consuming, something that is often considered to be another limitation to TAPs studies. This issue is discussed in Chapter 8, where further details are provided on how the researcher organised, conducted, and then transcribed, encoded, analysed, and compared the TAPs data gathered.

- **Automation and Intuitive Thought Processes**

Krings (1986) and Kiraly (1997) explain that TAPs do not enable researchers to access that part of the translator's mind where automatic or intuitive thought processes take place. According to them, this is particularly the case with professional translators, who perform a significant part of their work automatically and intuitively. Krings (1986) explains that when the translation process is automatic, "it takes place very quickly and predominantly at an unconscious level" (p. 268). In such cases, "TAPs do not enable the researcher to access that part of the black box in which 'intuitive as opposed to cognitive' processes take place (...), and thus translation strategies are not discernible in TAPs" (Kiraly, 1997, p. 151). When translating, the conscious and unconscious parts of the translator's mind interact with one another. The translator's mind can be seen as: "a system where a translation is produced through the interaction of intuitive and controlled processes on the basis of various types of linguistic and extralinguistic information and knowledge" (ibid., p. 149). Venuti (2004) also notes that TAPs are "beset by a number of theoretical problems that must be figured into any use made of their data. Verbalisation won't register unconscious factors and automatic processes, and it can change a mental activity instead of simply reporting it" (p. 339).

Having a group of professional translators participating in this study – i.e. the third FG of the study, consisting of expert translators – the issue of automation is discussed in the following lines.

- **On Verbalisations and the Problematic Nature of TAPs**

Two of the most frequently reported limitations of TAPs relate to the question of what is or is not verbalised in the protocols, as well as the effects of the TAPs on the translation process.

As seen above, the translation process of professional translators is considered highly automatised (Krings, 1986; Kiraly, 1997). This is why professionals generally verbalise less than translation/language students (Börsch, 1986, p. 207; Toury, 1992, p. 69; Kovačič, 1997, p. 237). Even when the translation process isn't completely automatised, it is often thought that a subject's thought processes can simply be too fast to lend themselves to verbalisation. According to Kiraly (1995), one subject in a think-aloud study remarked: "a tenth of a second after I've thought something, I don't know anymore what exactly it was or how it developed" (p. 94). The reliability and veracity of verbalised protocols have therefore been questioned.

According to Jääskeläinen (2002), think-aloud studies have not addressed some of the "basic arguments made against them right from the beginning" (p. 107). Furthermore, and reiterating

claims made by some in the fields of both psychology and TS: “thinking aloud does not yield access to mental processes but to the products of such processes” (Jääskeläinen, 2002, p. 108). In line with Jääskeläinen, Hönig (1991) suggests that “chaotic mental activities” (p. 10) which cannot be put into words are not reflected in any of the protocols. He also asserted that “retrospective rationalisations that sometimes appear do not reflect what really happens in the translator’s mind” (as cited in Kussmaul, 1995, p. 183).

Krings (1988) argues that subjects can only verbalise information stored in their STM, and therefore, that their verbalisations exclude cognitive processes that have become automatic through practice and are performed at high speed. Kiraly (1997) illustrates this by saying that there were moments when the subjects in his TAPs experiment did not verbalise at all. When asked retrospectively what they had been thinking about during those pauses, they could not answer. This is evidence that not all information is verbalised and that some processes can remain hidden. Kussmaul (1995) also notes that subjects tend not to report on their thoughts when there is either a heavy cognitive load, i.e. when they are deep in thought, or conversely and when there is a decrease in cognitive load and they hardly have to think about what they are doing.

House (1988) indicates that subjects participating in her TAPs experiment made “intuitive comments” (p. 89) about their work, but these were never “reasoned and argued” (ibid.). They did not verbalise the thoughts that led them to make these comments or make other kinds of decisions. Matrat (1992) reports that in the TAPs experiment she conducted, “even the expert translators produced very little verbalisation on problems or processing strategies and where they did, it was often too elliptical to interpret” (p. 205). The lack of verbalisations is considered to be the most important drawback of a TAPs experiment. The translator, being incapable of speaking out as he translates, participates in an experiment where although the task is not successful (i.e. thoughts’ verbalisations) the interpretation of this can have significant results. In the course of this study, this limitation is discussed in Chapter 8.

- **Subjects’ Shyness and Discomfort**

In cases where the researcher is present, the subjects sometimes try to establish a dialogue with him (Matrat, 1992). Bernardini (2001) writes that TAPs “are either strictly monological or not TAPs at all” (p. 243). According to Hönig (1991), subjects “censor what they say in a protocol, particularly when the experimenter is present” (p. 82). Subjects, and particularly “professional translators, can also find the TAP situation embarrassing” (Jakobsen, 2002, p. 203).

However, it can also be said that analysing silences can also be valuable and can reveal crucial elements, such as insights into the role personality traits play in the translation process (cf. Hubscher-Davidson, 2007).

7.2.3.8. Issues of Objectivity, Validity and Trustworthiness

According to the previous discussion, issues of objectivity, validity, and trustworthiness are the most commonly-raised in discussing the drawbacks of TAPs. These are addressed in the lines below.

- **Objectivity**

It seems to be clear from recent TS research that seeking “the absolute or near absolute truth” (Wills, 2004, p. 782), is gradually being replaced by more pragmatic research issues and research goals. The idea of being able to find the ultimate solution to all translation problems is being questioned. What seems to be negative rather than beneficial to TS are sweeping assertions of having discovered the once-and-for-all theory of translation, “guaranteeing objectivity across translation related textual domains” (ibid.). The concept of objectivity in translation research and practice “is a many-layered, pluri-faceted issue with a lot of fuzzy edges” (ibid.). Therefore, despite their potential subjectivity, in process studies such as the present one, the aim is to shed light on aspects of the translation performance in specific circumstances (i.e. context- bound).

- **Validity**

According to Bernardini (2002), TAPs as a method itself cannot guarantee the validity of results. Although TAPs are conceived of as a simple process to administer, which requires little expertise, critics of monologic TAPs assert that the requirement to think aloud to yourself while carrying out a task is unnatural (House, 1988; Séguinot, 1996; Malkiel, 2006). Toury (in Jääskeläinen, 2002) claims that TAPs “involve two modes of translating: oral and written” (p. 78), and that the two modes “may interfere with one another and distort the findings” (ibid.). Matrat (1992) asserts that a monologic TAP is an introspective data-collecting method that does not distinguish between “consciousness” and “conscious awareness” (p. 84). To him, thinking and verbally reporting on what you are thinking may be two parallel tasks that cannot be carried out successfully at the same time. Matrat, therefore, questions the validity and reliability of this method.

According to Ericsson (2002), when adults perform tasks while thinking out loud without influencing accuracy and speed, the verbalised information uncovers aspects of the usual cognitive processes. By analysing this outcome, it is possible to assess the validity of the verbalised information. In protocol analysis, the verbalisations are compared to intermediate results produced by different strategies employed while analysing a task (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). Thus, rendering validity is possible to an extent.

Certainly, verbal reports are only one indicator of the thought processes that occur during problem solving. Ericsson (2002) reports on further indicators, such as reaction times, error rates, patterns of brain activation, and sequences of eye fixations. Quoting Ericsson (2002), “[g]iven that each kind of empirical indicator can be separately recorded and analysed, it is possible to compare the results of such independent data analyses” (p. 3). In their review, Ericsson and Simon (1993) found that longer reaction times were linked to verbalisations of a larger number of intermediate thoughts than those verbal reports corresponding to shorter reaction times. What is more, it is reported that when subjects verbalised thoughts about objects in the environment, they frequently looked at them. This is an indication of close correspondence between subjects’ thoughts and the information they looked at and dealt with. This is what eye-tracking technology succeeds within the context of think-aloud studies (Jakobsen, 1999, 2003).

The validity of thought verbalisations depends on the time intervening between the occurrence of a thought and its verbalisation (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). For tasks with short response periods, i.e. periods of less than 5-10 seconds, verbalisations are of high validity, as subjects are able to recall their sequences of thoughts accurately immediately after the completion of the task. However, for verbalisations of longer duration, validity is said to decrease, due to the fact that what is included in short-term memory (STM) can easily be activated and recalled, but not so with the long-term memory (LTM) (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). The same theoretical framework can also explain why other types of verbal report procedures (see section 7.2.3.11., below, p. 224) consistently change cognitive processes. For example, when subjects are instructed to explain or carefully describe their thoughts, they are not able to merely verbalise each thought as it emerges. To achieve this, they need to engage in additional cognitive processes to generate the thoughts corresponding to the required explanations and descriptions (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). According to Ericsson and Simon (1993), this additional cognitive activity changes the sequence of mediating thoughts. Instructions to explain and describe the content of thought are reliably associated with changes in ability to solve problems correctly. This is, of course, a point with

which this study disagrees. It aims to show that reasoning and explaining strategies – abilities that lead to norm detection – is feasible in the context of TAPs.

For Ericsson and Simon (1993), it is more likely for subjects to avoid systematic changes to their thought process, if they are provided with instructions on how to give successful verbal reports. In order to facilitate this process, Ericsson and Simon, recommended detailed instructions and relevant warm-up tasks for laboratory research. A prerequisite for that would be for the subjects to already possess the necessary skills for verbalisation of thoughts (Ericsson, 2002). In order to maintain validity as much as possible, warm-up tasks were given to this study's participants. These are presented in Chapter 8 where all the TAPs sessions of the main study are described in detail.

- **Trustworthiness**

Defeng Li (2004) comments that as the research community struggles for more in-depth investigations into translation processes, some researchers have expressed concerns over the rigour and trustworthiness of such studies. To address this concern, the article first summarises important safeguards that must be put in place in data-based qualitative research to ensure this critical element of trustworthiness. These safeguards are then used to evaluate the research designs of 15 (fifteen) published reports on investigations of translation processes using TAPs. It was found that many of the safeguards were not incorporated in most of the surveyed studies, thus leaving much to be desired in their designs and reports.

Issues of objectivity and validity for the case of the present study will be detailed in Chapter 8 where the methodology of this study is explained. In what follows, safeguards and recommendations for undertaking TAPs are discussed.

7.2.3.9. Safeguards and Recommendations

When discussing the trustworthiness of TAPs, Li (2004) presents Guba's four relevant concerns (cf. Guba, 1981): truth value, applicability, consistency, and neutrality. Guba recommended a number of additional safeguards, including the following: voluntary participation and guarantee of anonymity, purposeful sampling, triangulation, prolonged engagement, (near)-natural situation, peer-debriefing, stepwise replication and inter-coder reliability, member checks, and thick description.

Along with issues of objectivity, validity, trustworthiness and safeguards, and recommendations for TAPs, scholars are much concerned with ethical issues (Pym, 2001; Fiola, 2004; Künzli, 2007a). In what follows, ethical issues in the context of TAPs are visited.

7.2.3.10. Ethical Issues

According to Künzli (2007a), “ethics has become an important topic in translation studies” (p. 42). This is confirmed by an increasing number of publications addressing ethical issues in translation, for example in special issues published by *The Translator* (Pym, 2001) and *Traduction, Terminologie, Rédaction* (Fiola, 2004). As said by Chesterman (1997), the discussion of the ethical dimension of translation “generally deals with either the duties or the rights of the translator” (p. 147). The following elements are often referred to as components of professional ethics: commitment to the highest standards of performance, willingness to improve the translator’s skills and knowledge, adaptability, discretion, professional appearance, and loyalty (Kautz, 2002). These elements link to translation competence components, as they refer to skills which according to Chapter 6 translators’ training aims to provide.

In relation to ethics in process research, the following aspects of a study should be made clear prior to, during and after the research activity of TAPs: firstly it is made clear that the interface is what is tested and not the participant. The focus of the study is the process and not the participant. Additionally, as soon as the participant engages in the research, anonymity is maintained. Participants’ names are stored separately from their data and data is encoded with a system only known to the researcher. What is more, it is made clear that the subject’s participation is undertaken on a voluntary basis, and participants are always free to withdraw from the study (cf. Hekkanen, 2007). These ethical recommendations were attended to in this study.

7.2.3.11. Alternative Methodologies to Traditional TAPs

TAPs, or verbal reporting, is a method which provides both quantitative and qualitative data (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). The participant is asked to verbalise thoughts while performing the translation task. All that he says before (pre-experimental phase), during (experimental phase), and after translating the text segments (post-experimental phase) is recorded and transcribed. Thus, in TAPs, the researcher observes translator behaviour based on the verbalisations produced during the task (Rydning, 2002).

While TAPs are perhaps the most popular way of accessing the translator's black box, other methodologies have also been applied to the study of translator behaviours over the last few years. As seen throughout this section, diaries, stimulated recall, structured interviews, questionnaires, and observations, are all introspective methods within qualitative and quantitative research which seek to draw conclusions from careful observation and description of the phenomena observed. Chamot (1994), Kussmaul (1991), Séguinot (1996), Barbosa and Neiva (2003), and Rothe-Neves (2003) use dialogue protocols to observe the interactions between two translators collaborating on a translation, whereas Matrat (1992) examines what takes place when groups of three translators work together. Martinet (1985), a professional translator and teacher of translation theory and practice, performed an introspective study of what went through her own mind when translating, and, specifically, why she translated two terms the way she did. These alternative methods of analysing behaviours also revealed important information on the translation process.

However, TAPs can also be used in alternative ways. As suggested earlier, TAPs are generally used with translators working on their own and thinking aloud while performing a translation task. However, there are also cases where the experiment is carried out with more than one translator thinking aloud. According to House (as cited in Schlesinger, 2005), a think-aloud experiment in translation "can be carried out while the translating task is being performed, or retrospectively; the experimenter may be in the room or not and the thinking-aloud can be done individually, or by more than one translator" (p. 85).

In empirical TS, combining methods and data, i.e. triangulation, has also become a popular research technique (Hansen, 2005). For example, data from first-person observations (TAPs) are combined with data from third-person observations (the observer) in order to reach intersubjectivity and buttress validity. Englund Dimitrova (2005) used a number of different methods in her study. As she indicates, the methods used for her data collection were TAPs, computer logging of the translation and video-taping of her participants' work. Similarly to Englund Dimitrova (*ibid.*), Hubscher-Davidson (2007)³⁶ supports that, "interviews, diaries, and questionnaires disclose valuable information on process-investigation and end-product evaluation, thus enabling trainers to monitor the student's experience." As such, these different methods used to analyse translator behaviour would seem to be viable alternatives to traditional TAPs.

³⁶ Available at: <http://accurapid.com/journal/39edu.htm> – last accessed 30/07/2011

One possible approach suggested is the use of diaries (Gonzales Davies, 2004), which is one of the data-collection methods used in this study for the purposes of triangulation. A diary is a method used in social studies research, and it offers a means for observing a participant's behaviour that is not possible to be observed in the course of an experiment (Elliot, 1997).

The quality of a diary depends to a great extent on the researcher's memory. Some authors suggest noting critical incidents in key words or short phrases in the course of the experiment (Goetz & LeCompt, 1988; Erickson, 1989) as memory aids to be expanded later in diary form. According to Goetz and LeCompt (1988), a diary contains only a small part of the events that occur during the experiment. Therefore, the researcher should be aware of what is happening and be able, at any moment, to focus his attention on events of special relevance. Relevance criteria are based on the researcher's conceptual framework and on the answers that will be given for the research aims and questions. The diaries contain interpretative comments made in the course of the experiment or during the writing process, such as when the researcher writes the diary by looking at his notes as soon as the experiment finishes. For researchers, validity and internal consistency are important traits of diary writing as research method (Goetz and LeCompt, 1988; Haeyoung, 2004; Sá, 2008). In terms of validity the diary should report on relevant information addressing the research main aims and questions and be representative of any relevant events. As Sá (2008)³⁷ puts it, "in theory validity requires relevance of data collected in the diary and sampling quality of a diary in relation to the facts that occurred". The diary should also have internal consistency, i.e. as a narrative text, it should connect facts, actions, and actors properly in their natural context in order to describe the events and the atmosphere they occur in as they happen (Haeyoung, 2004). Internal consistency is a factor of credibility, which permits the reader to 'see' and 'feel' the events and the atmosphere and to even have an independent analysis (Goetz and LeCompt, 1988).

The interpretative power is another trait of diary writing and it refers to the power the researcher has to interpret the events occurring in the course of the experiment. As stated by Sá (2008)³⁸, some "interpretations are flash insights that probably would not occur later". Thus, the researcher should stand as close as possible to the data as it will further support general patterns and regularities (Sá, 2008).

³⁷ Available at: <http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/00001698.htm> – last accessed 30/07/2011

³⁸ Ibid.

Diaries are rarely used in translation classrooms but, if used regularly, they encourage students to reflect on their work, giving the trainer an idea of the progress made, and eliciting introspective information (Gonzales Davies, 2004). With diaries, students write their thoughts on paper, either during a translation or after it. This individualistic approach allows them to reflect on the process (Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). This is an approach that generally appeals more to introverted types of learners. There is a risk that some students may feel self-conscious, as they know the diaries will be read by the trainer, but they also often like the idea of them being read, and therefore listened to, and that their experience and feelings are taken into account by their trainer (ibid.). Supporting this method in the TS classroom, Hubscher-Davidson (2007) states the following: “I believe this method should be used more widely in class, and be the object of further research as well. Indeed, personal and individual aspects of the student’s experience would surely be reflected in a diary” (p. 127). Haeyoung (2004) highlights the use of diaries as an alternative to TAPs, and conducts a study analysing the writings of two student translators. Hubscher-Davidson (2007) similarly argues for increasing the use of diaries in translation research, alongside oral interviews and questionnaires.

An interview is a research methodology the definition of which differs depending on the discipline (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). To Frey and Oishi (1995), an interview is defined as “a purposeful conversation in which one person asks prepared questions (interviewer) and another answers them (respondent)” (p. 1). The purpose is to gather information on a particular topic or a particular area under research. Interviews are of varying types and styles (Oatey, 1999). They can vary to suit the context, be formal or informal, and can bring forth the participants’ opinions, knowledge, feelings and perceptions. To Oatey, interviews can mainly have one of two basic structures, i.e. they can either be structured (close interview style) or unstructured (open interview style). The richness of the data is entirely dependent on the interviewer. Thus, open-ended questions give the researcher freedom to manage the questions “in any order according to how the interview develops” (Breakwell, Hammond, & Fife-Schaw, 1995, p. 231) and to “probe deeper into the initial responses of the respondent to gain a more detailed answer to the question” (Wimmer & Dominick, 1997, p. 156). An interview is a subjective and time-consuming method, albeit rich (Oatey, 1999). In all or most cases, research studies using the interview as their methodology also use another method to allow for more accurate results and greater understanding. Due to the large number of participants, in the context of this study, interviews were felt to be too time-consuming and impractical to undertake. However, participants had the opportunity to provide feedback on their experience afterwards by means of a post-experiment questionnaire (Appendix II, p. 378).

A questionnaire is a list of set or fixed questions that can either be completed in the presence of the researcher or in his absence (Boynton, 2004). It consists of two types of questions, close-ended questions that require a yes or no answer and produces mainly quantitative data and open-ended questions where the participant is asked to answer in his own words. This type of question produces mainly qualitative data. Questionnaires are usually quick to fill in and can reach a large group of participants. Additionally, they can be analysed more rigorously. They are, however, less flexible and less explorative. They need a careful design and a focus on what information is required and how answers are to be analysed. Along with diaries and interviews, questionnaires have been frequently used as data collection tools in TS research (Hudardo Alvir & Alves in Munday, 2009; Baker, 2011). For the purposes of this study, a pre-experiment questionnaire and a post-experiment questionnaire were given to the participants. Both questionnaires are detailed in Chapter 8.

Physiological methods are also used instead of TAPs, or in combination with them. The two prevalent options are those of eye-tracking (O'Brien, 2006; Chan, 2007, 2010) and psychological measurements (Munday, 2009). In the former, the position of the eyes is under research, whereas in the latter, emotional response linked to physical changes is detected and measured (i.e. heart activity, blood pressure, volume and pulse, etc.). Moreover, according to researchers (e.g., O'Brien, 2006; Chan, 2007, 2010), it is not easy to interpret these physiological responses, and it often requires an expert in this area, and so there is a call for further research. Due to their unestablished nature, as well as the need for intrusive and clunky equipment and technological experts, these methods were not chosen for this particular study. However, further research could attempt to reproduce results from this study using these alternative methods.

One of the most promising methodologies is Translog (Jakobsen, 1999), which functions much like an ordinary word-processing program, but records every keystroke and pause that the translator makes. Similarly to TAPs, Translog provides information about the translation process, more specifically false starts and revisions. Translog also provides quantitative data regarding time spent, the number and type of keystrokes, the number and length of pauses, the number of actions per minute, etc. Perhaps one of the main advantages of Translog is its high environmental validity (Jensen, 1999; Livbjerg & Mees, 1999, 2003; Jensen & Jakobsen, 2000; Alves & Gonçalves, 2003; and Hansen, 2003). According to Translog creator, Jakobsen (1999), various participants in Translog experiments have indicated that:

they forgot they were part of an experiment and felt that writing a translation in Translog was very similar to writing an ordinary translation. They also indicated that they had not paid any attention to the fact that their text production was being logged. It therefore appears that experiments run with Translog have ecological validity. (p. 15)

Translog provides data on what the subject does but not on what is going through his head at the time. Thus, it is felt that using Translog as a single methodology – despite the fact that it will provide information on the translation process, and can accept more subjects, and more and longer texts than in traditional TAPs sessions – might not guarantee success when investigating the translator's mind. Thus, Jakobsen (1999, 2003) advocates a triangulation of Translog and TAPs whenever possible.

7.3. Concluding Thoughts

As seen in the previous sections, research efforts on translation processes which employ TAPs as the main methodological technique have recently gained increasing attention. Such studies over the past two decades have produced many interesting findings about mental activities during the process of translation. As the research community continues to investigate the translation process, some researchers have expressed concerns over the rigour and trustworthiness of these studies. This study maintains that TAPs is a promising methodological tool in the realm of process research, when augmented by supporting methods. The future of TAPs in the framework of TS is elaborated below along with some recommendations for further research.

- **TAPs: Future Perspectives**

Protocol analysis has emerged as one of the principal methods for studying thinking in psychology and has since then played a central role in other disciplines and fields. Indeed, Bernardini (2001) acknowledges that the use and analysis of TAPs is one of the most promising methodologies adopted to study the process of translation empirically. In line with this, Kussmaul (2005) argues that the availability of empirical tools for documenting the translation process will enable TS scholars to make rapid progress in better understanding translator behaviour.

Responding to a critique of TAPs, Bernardini (2001) argues that abandoning the model completely is not wise at this point, as not many alternative/improved models can be encountered at present. In addition, no single model has yet proved to be significantly better in translation research. With these issues, the need to adapt a research methodology to explore

cognitive processes in a relatively simple and straightforward way remains pertinent. Bernardini (2001) further contends that this research methodology can offer promising insights into the translation process, provided that researchers in this area move on from informal hypotheses to a systematic investigation of such hypotheses, and to a more critical questioning of the methodological assumptions on which their work relies. The establishment of a more advanced experimental methodology, taking into account matters of experimental, theoretical and environmental validity in the collection and analysis of data, is therefore a current issue that should be a constant source of interest for researchers in the area of process-oriented TS. All in all, there is a lot of work to do in process-oriented TS in order to enrich the quality and quantity of research, so as to raise the standards and meet the expectations of empirical researchers.

In the framework of pedagogy, TAPs can also be used widely in future as an assessment instrument (Calder & Carlson, 2002), and can become a valuable pedagogical instrument in courses emphasising the development of cognitive skills, amongst other places.

- **Suggestions for Further Research**

In this chapter, it was highlighted that process research was developed gradually. During its development various empirical research attempts were conducted and a range of methodologies were applied. What is important for the future is for researchers to further apply, test, access, combine, and improve the methodologies so as to keep and improve the most promising ones.

Throughout this chapter, it was revealed that the interdisciplinary nature of TS has enriched its sphere with research topics and methodologies that investigate the translators' cognitive pathways, leading to a number of challenges for translation pedagogy. In the wait for future studies on translation processes, to shed further light on the use of existing methodologies, Jarvella et al. (2002) argue for the need to search for alternative methods to TAPs that are potentially less disruptive of expert translation performance, such as the diaries discussed earlier in section 7.2.3.11. (p. 226).

This chapter is the final chapter of an extensive literature review. Due to the interdisciplinary character of this study, it was felt that this slightly lengthy contextualising discussion was not only useful but necessary, to raise issues and shed light on the multifaceted making of the translator and the complex process of translation. In the next part of the thesis (Part Two), the study will be described starting with Chapter 8 where the research design and methodology of the study are detailed.

PART THREE: THE STUDY

Chapter 8

Chapter 8

Research Design and Methodology

Linguistics, he [Bruno] (...) maintained
contrary to common belief, is not the science of language at all.
Rather, language and linguistics, including translation, together are the primary science.
And all the other so-called sciences are merely the offshoots,
the branching paths, the sequels and results of language.
Which is essentially what Bruno also said in almost the same way:
"From Translation all science had its offspring." And all knowledge as well,
indeed much of human experience and practical intelligence.
(Gross, 2004)³⁹

8.0. Introductory Note

In this chapter, the study is thoroughly described. Research questions and aims are set, and methodological considerations, along with the approach of the study are discussed. The design of the study is presented with a reference to both the pilot study and the main study. The environment and settings of the experiment are also discussed, and further information is provided on the participants and the researcher-observer. Data collection issues are detailed with a reference to TAPs, the texts given for translation, and the research tools. In addition, ethical issues are discussed prior to the concluding remarks.

8.1. Research Questions and Aims

As discussed extensively in Chapter 7, the explosive growth of TS in recent decades has resulted in the development of various tangential areas of research. Subsequently, at present, scholars of TS are faced with a variety of approaches, theories, objectives, terminologies, and procedures. The hypothesis that the translation approaches of beginner, competent, and expert translators differ considerably, termed the 'gap phenomenon' (c.f. Smith, 2004, and Chapter 6 of this thesis), seems sound and rational. Attempts to characterise the translation process at different stages of

³⁹ Available at: <http://languag2.home.sprynet.com/f/xalapa.htm> – last accessed 17/06/2012

the development of translation competence are mainly driven by the need to gain a better understanding of said development, and to highlight potentially successful translation behaviours in the context of translation expertise. Herein lies the genesis of this study.

In Chesterman’s terms (2000), the approach of this thesis is a descriptive one, as it aims to describe the translation strategies, approaches, and norms involved in the process of HT. This study is conducted using a combination of two research models, the empirical and the critical/analytical (cf. Chesterman, 2000). With regards to the former, translation is described as a process, and reasons for the ways translators behave are provided, where research data is generated via think-aloud experiments, questionnaires, and texts. The critical model is employed to make comparisons between behaviours, so that the norms, strategies, and approaches of beginners, competent, and expert translators are analysed comparatively.

The research questions set for this study are the following:

Figure 8.1.
Research Questions of the Study

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Are there different norms that govern beginner, competent, and expert translators’ choice of strategies and approaches as they translate humour in ChL from English into Greek?2. Do these perceived norms lead to the use of different translation strategies by each translator group?3. Do the presence and interaction of these norms and strategies denote specific behaviours and reveal characteristics of the overall approaches of participants in each group, as they translate humour in ChL from English into Greek? What are the implications of similarities and differences in approaches taken by participants at different levels of expertise? |
|---|

Following the research questions, the aims of the study are noted below:

Figure 8.2.
Aims of the Study

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. To identify the norms that govern the strategies and approaches of beginner, competent, and expert translators as they translate humour in ChL from English into Greek2. To detect the beginner, competent, and expert translators’ strategies employed in the process of translating humour in ChL3. To find and compare the differences in the translation approaches at the three levels of the translator’s development: beginner, competent, and expert |
|---|

Following the research questions and aims of the study, some methodological considerations in designing and planning this study are discussed below.

8.2. Methodological Considerations and Approach

8.2.1. Using Qualitative Research

This section deals with some methodological issues taken into consideration in designing the present study and justifies the choices for data collection and analysis. In terms of methodological approaches, there are two broadly defined ways of collecting data: qualitative and quantitative. Quantitative research, popular in science-based subjects, refers mainly to hypothesis-testing achieved through surveys and laboratory experiments, and results are usually interpreted using statistical analysis procedures (Hansen, 2005). Qualitative research, often a preferred method in the social sciences, refers to the interpretive study of phenomena in their natural setting using methods such as action research, case study, ethnography, and grounded theory by collecting data through observation and interviews (*ibid.*). As the purpose of this study is to examine the participants' translation strategies, approaches, and governing norms, an analysis of their TAPs as well as their pre- and post-experiment questionnaires is undertaken. The epistemological stance adopted in this study that is a combination of the empirical and critical/analytical research models (*cf.* Chesterman, 2000), culminating into highly qualitative methodological choice of approach. TAPs, questionnaires and the researcher's diary, turned out to be the best methods to achieve the study's aims. In what follows, the methods used for the purpose of this research are discussed in more detail.

8.2.2. Validity of Qualitative Research

Over the last decade or so, TS has increasingly become aware of methodological issues linked to empirical research. Issues of validity are the most often mentioned (Hansen, 2005). Ensuring validity in qualitative research can be achieved using triangulation. Triangulation entails combining one or more research methods in a study of the same phenomena (Myers, 1997; Alves, 2003; Hansen, 2005). In this particular study, where translators' norms, strategies, and approaches while translating humour are under scrutiny, using different methods of analysis was a step towards more reliable findings.

It is widely accepted (*e.g.*, Alves, 2003; Gile, 2004; Hansen, 2005) that if correlations are found between experiments using different methods of investigation, and similar conclusions are drawn from these experiments, the findings will carry more weight, as they will be backed-up by several test results. However, according to Jääskeläinen (2000), if the objects of the various methods are different, then results are not necessarily generalisable. In this study, even if various methods used have the same object and objectives, it is felt that generalisations are still not possible due to the

limited number of participants (30 in total), which nonetheless remains a high number compared to many other TAPs studies. According to Lörcher (1991), TAPs are extremely enlightening when analysing translation processes, but they can still be enhanced by other procedures:

The subjects' willingness and ability to 'reveal' themselves by thinking aloud are largely personality-specific and individually caused. In future investigations, it might therefore be worth considering whether a combination of introspective (...) and retrospective procedures should be used. (p. 43)

As previously suggested, qualitative data was, in this study, also collected via pre-experiment and post-experiment questionnaires (Appendix I, p. 377 and Appendix II, p. 378), and the researcher's diary (see an example of the researcher's diary in Appendix VII, p. 388), as it was essential to assemble as much information as possible on the participants in order to contextualise and analyse their behaviours, attitudes, strategies, and norms.

8.3. Design of the Study

In the following lines, the different stages of the experiment are discussed. The subsequent sections describe each of the research tools employed in more detail.

8.3.1. The Pilot Study

In June 2006, three TAPs sessions were conducted in the office of the researcher, each one at a separate time, in the context of the pilot study conducted for the purposes of this thesis. Three participants of different translation competence levels volunteered to take part in this pilot study: a BA student studying for a degree in TS (beginner), an MA student studying for a Master's Degree in TS (competent translator), and a professional translator (expert). All have Greek as their mother tongue and English and Greek as working languages. All three also have had some experience in literary translation (i.e. they had attended classes during their studies on literary translation).

The volunteers agreed to experience a think-aloud session, where they would have to verbalise their thoughts as they translated humorous extracts from Sue Townsend's (1982) novel for children and YA, *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾*. All three refused, however, to be video-recorded, saying they felt quite exposed and embarrassed. They argued that they would prefer to be in a more familiar setting such as their home study room, the university library, or the

university computer lab centre, even though the warm-up exercises in the researcher's office made them feel a bit better about having to verbalise. Volunteers were then asked to participate in a post-experiment interview with the researcher for the purposes of triangulation.

The two students (beginner and competent translator) did not bring laptops or supporting translation material (dictionaries, glossaries and so forth), as they said the researcher did not tell them to do so – whether they did so was an aspect of their translation approach that was under examination. They felt that since they were told they would translate for children, the texts would not be particularly difficult. The professional, however, came with her laptop and made sure she used the internet and various supporting online material during the think-aloud session. The students refused to use the researcher's computer, even though this was made available to them. However, they later commented that there were various instances where they found themselves searching or thinking for the 'best word', and would have needed a dictionary or other supporting material.

The texts given for translation were extracts taken from the humorous novel written in the conventions of a diary. The extracts contained figurative speech and, in particular, idioms, and fixed expressions – all elements which aimed to produce humour. To be more specific, words, phrases, sentences (shorter sequences), and paragraphs (longer sequences) consisting of idioms and fixed expressions were organised as translation tasks⁴⁰ for the participants of the pilot study (see Appendix VIII, p. 389). According to the participants' comments, translating isolated phrases and words was not an 'authentic situation for them' – i.e. not a task they would undertake in the translation class or in their professional life – and the translation of a paragraph and longer text sequences turned out to be more of a 'real task' for them, something which was taken into account when designing the main study.

In addition to the above, a considerable number of issues were generated that related to the participants' norms, strategies, and approaches as they translated the longer humorous tasks. These resulted in a number of practical changes to the main study design, such as location and text length. These are presented in the following section (8.3.2.), where a thorough report on the main study is provided.

⁴⁰ Initially I had been advised by colleagues to give small units which would have been less of a cognitive challenge for the participants who also had to verbalise. I wanted to test how effective that would be.

One important discovery during these pilot translations was the excitement shown by the volunteers while translating. They seemed to enjoy translating humour as they could laugh as they worked. Another interesting outcome was that they realised that although it was slightly awkward to hear their voices as they went on making translation decisions, they also saw the benefits of verbalising their decision-making processes. As the professional noted, “I thought this TAPs process would confuse my thinking and typing, but not at all! It just supported my attempts! After all, it was so real! It was my talking thoughts I could listen to!”

The data collection was therefore completed successfully, and then the researcher proceeded to the analysis stage, using Ericsson and Simon’s (1993) work on TAPs to support the analytical process.

8.3.2. Changes Applied to the Main Study

Taking into consideration the comments of the participants of the pilot study regarding methodology, some changes in designing the main study were applied. These changes mainly involved the participants and the phases of the TAPs experiments as shown below.

8.3.2.1. Participants

According to the first change applied, the main study involved:

- Ten Greek and Greek-Cypriot beginners studying for a BA in Translation and Interpreting at the Ionian University on Corfu island in Greece, the only Greek University offering a four-year BA Programme in Translating and Interpreting.
- Ten Greek and Greek-Cypriot competent translators studying for a Master’s Degree in Translation and Interpreting at the Ionian University, the University of Portsmouth, and Heriot-Watt University. In these universities, several Greek and Greek-Cypriot students study, as their programmes offer translation classes into and out of Greek, their mother tongue.
- Ten expert Greek and Greek-Cypriot professional translators working into and out of Greek, all members of the Pancyprian and Panhellenic Unions of Translators and Interpreters. These are the only translation unions in Cyprus and Greece that are affiliated with the International Federation of Translators (FIT).⁴¹

⁴¹ It was important for professional translators to be affiliated to the International Federation of Translators (Fédération Internationale des Traducteurs – FIT) as this would be an indication of their acknowledged translation qualifications and level of expertise.

8.3.2.2. Phases of the TAPs Experiments

The second change applied to the main study involved the designing of the TAPs experiment in three phases:

- **Prior-TAPs Phase**

The first phase of this research involved selecting suitable participants and administering the whole session of the think-aloud experiment. Changes applied to the main study included the following:

- I. The participants of the main study were informed about the fact that they would be allowed to bring or have supporting material with them, as well as to choose the way they would present their translation (electronic or pen and paper form).
- II. The participants of the main study would make their own choice of the setting of the TAPs session. For students, the environment that could make them feel at home' would be the place of their choice, whereas for professionals their working office would be a more probable option as: "asking people to leave their offices, affects ecological validity as well" (Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009b, p. 181).
- III. Two independent longer sequence extracts (paragraphs) were chosen from the fictional book written with the conventions of a diary. These were humorous and were pinpointed by both the author (in interviews) and many fans (internet comments) as some of the most humorous moments in the book.

In this phase, the researcher provided the participants with a warm-up task giving them the opportunity to experiment TAPs by attempting to translate a small text just before the actual TAPs session started. In many think-aloud experiments, the participant is given initial warm-up tasks to get acquainted with the experimental situation and get accustomed to the microphones and tape-recorders (Katalin, 2000). In some studies (e.g., Ericsson & Simon, 1984, 1987; Kussmaul & Trikkonen-Condit, 1995), more extensive warm-up procedures are used explicitly to train the participants to conform to the think-aloud instructions. During the warm-up, the researcher-observer was able to interrupt the participant – something that was not the case in the course of the actual TAPs session, where the researcher-observer was very careful not to interfere with the verbalisation process.

- **During the TAPs Phase**

During the TAPs phase the researcher-observer was unobtrusive and kept jotting down everything that was happening and was of significance to the research aims (i.e. translator's strategies, approaches, and governing norm) in her diary. The researcher's diary was used as a data collection tool along with the protocols and the questionnaires, so as to achieve triangulation. The researcher-observer wrote down everything that the participants said, and she even noted actions that they took without speaking-aloud, i.e. instances when the participant would smile, think, etc.

An important aspect of the think-aloud session was that the researcher-observer tried to make sure that each participant would realise that the interface, not they themselves, was under examination, i.e. the research focus is on the translation process (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). During the whole process, the participant could, at all times, comment freely on his actions, intentions, and thoughts, and was generally at ease. The researcher-observer explained that she could give only a minimum of help to the participant, apologising in advance for this. The participant would try to find his own way throughout the process as much as possible. Any help given to the participant was carefully thought out, in order for its effects to be recorded as part of the experiment.

According to Ericsson and Simon (1993), participants require instruction to enable them to think aloud, as most people's normal mode of thinking is silent. This is not a vast problem, though, because as they comment: "[e]ven after tens of hours of producing protocols, subjects never complain that they are unable to revert to their customary silent thinking" (pp. 256-257).

For tasks involving non-verbal information, task-relevant information can be accessed faster than it can be encoded and vocalised. When task-relevant processes require a lot of short-term memory (STM) capacity, subjects often stop verbalising (Dunker, 1945) and remain silent. However, even a brief reminder from the researcher-observer can start them speaking again (Ericsson & Simon, 1993).

Taking into account the fact that a very crucial requirement of the think-aloud process is that the researcher-observer should say nothing to the participant that would help or hinder him in understanding the text this is somewhat impaired when reminding the participant to think aloud. Indeed, this kind of reminder/interruption could actually help the participant to move forward in the decision-making process. According to Ericsson and Simon (1993), reminders may take many forms such as "Please, tell me what you are thinking", "Please, think aloud", "Keep talking", etc. Offering prompts such as "And now...?" or "Why did you do that...?" can be another type of

question the researcher-observer can ask. As Jääskeläinen (2000) also explains, when speaking of the impact of the researcher's intrusive questions, these prompts can have an impact on the participants' working processes. The participant might be encouraged to move on with the task or may slow down and even get confused, lose concentration, and quit from the experiment.

As opposed to Danks et al. (1997), who did not want to intervene during the experiment to remind their participants of the instructions, even when verbalisations were few and far between, and took the risk of having less complete protocols instead of "skewing the results with their suggestions or interruptions" (p. 87), in this particular study, the researcher-observer chose to remind the participants of all FGs to verbalise their thinking, by asking them to "keep talking," so as to obtain more complete protocols. Of all the examples given above, the researcher-observer chose this type of instruction because according to Ericsson and Simon's recommendations, "it is the least directive and does not require any direct answer to the experimenter" (1993, p. 257). It also prevents the monologue from becoming a dialogue, leading again to more complete protocols and thus a potentially more successful TAPs experiment. In this way, the potential social interaction between the participant and researcher-observer is minimised. To remind participants to think aloud, the researcher-observer tells them "to keep talking", instead of making the social request, "tell me what you are thinking". Reminders of the "keep talking variety" should have a very small, if any, effect on the participant's processing (ibid.). A reminder of the type, "What are you thinking about?" is more likely to elicit undesired behaviour, as it might lead to a dialogue between the researcher-observer and the participant.

In summary, capturing think-aloud data requires the participants to continually speak aloud the thoughts in their head as they work (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). The input from the researcher-observer during this process is generally limited to prompts such as "keep talking" if the participant falls quiet for an extended period of time. The participant's thoughts are generally captured by audio- (in this case) or video-recording, and thus provide a permanent record for future review and analysis. Ericsson and Simon (1993), who have been instrumental in the development of this approach, suggest that while participants complete a given task, the think-aloud approach is capable of capturing what is held in the short-term memory. This results in a sequence of thoughts that reflect what occurs cognitively during completion of a given activity.

- **Post-TAPs Phase**

This phase involved the administration of the post-experiment questionnaire, which was given immediately after the think-aloud experiment. This was a change applied to the main study,

following feedback from all three pilot study participants, who said that it was more convenient for them to write down a few more points, instead of being interviewed after a tiring session as happened at the end of the pilot study.

In the description of the main study that follows, the changes reported will be applied and the exact steps followed by the researcher-observer for its successful completion will be detailed.

8.3.3. The Main Study

8.3.3.1. Environment and Settings

Recommendations for the environment and setting of think-aloud studies in terms of “environmental validity” (Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009b, p. 181), indicate that think-aloud sessions should take place in an authentic environment that reflects a real-life situation (Lörscher, 1991; Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007; Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009b). The method is generally informal, as it is believed that the better way to maximise effectiveness, i.e. a more complete protocol, is to create an informal atmosphere (Ericsson & Simon, 1984; 1993). This is, so the subject feels as relaxed as possible when his actions are being recorded.

As the choice was left to participants, in an attempt to mirror a real-life situation and achieving authenticity (Lörscher, 1991; Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007), as well as respect the individuals’ wishes, the think-aloud experiments for the purposes of this study took place in several settings. FG1 participants (beginners) mainly chose to undertake the think-aloud session in the rooms of the Ionion University in Greece, i.e. the rooms where they attended translation classes daily. FG2 participants (competent translators), who were MA students studying for a TS Master’s Degree, opted to undertake the think-aloud sessions in different rooms of the buildings of their university. The MA students of the Ionion University went through the think-aloud activity in the same place their fellow BA students did (departmental buildings), and the MA students of the University of Heriott-Watt chose to undertake the experiment in a room of one of the University’s main buildings with which they were very familiar. The MA students of Portsmouth University preferred to work electronically, thus they chose to work in the computer labs of their university. FG3 participants (professionals) chose to undertake the think-aloud experiment in their home or offices.

8.3.3.2. Participants

As already mentioned, the present study has three different FGs of participants: beginners, competent, and expert translators, totalling thirty (30) in number, with each group consisting of ten (10) participants.

Verbal protocols can provide a valuable source of data on the processes used in solving complex tasks (Ericsson & Simon, 1984, 1993; Bernardini, 1999, 2001), but verbal protocol methods are acknowledged by many scholars to be difficult to employ (see, for example, Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). They are usually labour-intensive, require considerable transcription and coding efforts, and involve time-consuming analyses. As a result, most verbal protocol studies of decision-making tend to use very few subjects (cf. Fraser, 1996b, Tirkkonen-Condit, 1997; Jääskeläinen, 2000; etc.). Small numbers, however, do not indicate small data sets. The research process is intensive, so small sample sizes can still provide invaluable information and a substantial amount of data. Nielson (1994), for example, suggested that sample sizes as small as five participants could yield sufficient information about problem-solving behaviour.

As the language combination for this study was selected to be English and Greek, all thirty (30) participants specialised in translation from English into Greek and vice versa. Thus, beginners and competent translators (FG1 and FG2) attended specialised courses in translation from English into Greek and vice versa, and the professional translators, i.e. the experts (FG3), had English and Greek as their working languages and had been translating for longer than five years. This was based on the requirements of the Greek and Cypriot Unions of Translators and Interpreters for their full members. In order for an individual to be acknowledged as a full member, more than five years of experience as a translator are needed.

It should be noted that the selection of student participants was not a difficult enterprise. All participants of the first two FGs (beginners and competent), who enrolled in the TAPs sessions, agreed to participate voluntarily in this research and made positive comments about how important they felt research activity of this type was for TS. The fact that each one received thirty (30) Euros⁴² for their enrolment was a motivation to join the session and an attempt to render the experience into an 'authentic situation', intending to make them feel like they were really working for an agent.

⁴² As this has been a self-funded study, money for the purposes of this study came from the researcher's personal budget.

Selecting professionals was a difficult enterprise, but also a sensitive issue due to the researcher's dual role as a researcher and a colleague-translator. Frustration and disappointment replaced the enthusiasm that had accompanied the researcher throughout the research activity with the beginner and competent student translators.

The professionals' lack of time and lack of engagement (and will to engage) in research in TS, and their scepticism of the research situation (the TAPs session itself), were all mentioned as reasons to refuse participation in this study. Although the payment was a motivation for both groups of students, it did not seem to be that much of a motivation for professionals, who were very reluctant to participate. Although difficult, in the end it was possible to find participants for the purposes of the study. This issue, and its impact on the experiment, is further discussed in section 8.4. in this chapter and Chapter 10.

As in the pilot study, all three FGs in the main study strongly refused video-recording the TAPs sessions, audio-recording was thereby chosen as a method to record the data. The researcher, as already suggested, let them choose the environment of the TAPs session, as the entire session needed to take place in an authentic environment where the participant would usually complete this type of task. In the next section, information with regards to what took place during the TAPs sessions is provided.

8.3.3.3. Drawing a Sample

Because of the labour-intensive nature of TAPs research, the sample size involved in this study – as is the case for a large number of research activities within the realm of think-aloud studies – was necessarily small. As stated earlier, data produced can still be sufficient (and valid) even if data sets are relatively small (Nielson, 1994).

In most think-aloud studies, sampling is purposeful, i.e. participants are selected according to the purpose of the experiment (Ericsson and Simon, 1984). Subjects are usually volunteers and are representatives of particular sub-sets of individuals (Ericsson & Simon, 1996). Frequently, these sub-sets have low recurrence rates (i.e. small samples) in the general population (Ericsson & Simon, 1996). Often, secondary groups are also selected for think-aloud studies for comparison purposes (Kopriva, 2001). In this particular study, all three FGs are compared. To ensure increased reliability during the think-aloud study, a sample of ten participants per FG was sought. This number would exceed the overall sample size deemed appropriate by Nielson (1994), and

would give the researcher substantial information/data for comparative analysis both within FGs and between FGs.

8.3.3.4. The Researcher-Observer

In ethnographic research both, the physical and psychological closeness or distance of the researcher to the informants are linked to critical questions (Lundgren, 2000; Ambjörnsson, 2004; Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). Pertinent questions include how (emotionally) close the researcher-observer should be to the participants in the course of the observation and which the ideal position of the researcher-observer is. For Hammersley and Atkinson (2007), having a marginal position is usual in most ethnographic studies, avoiding the two dangers of, on the one hand, “going native” (pp. 87-89), i.e. getting too close to the subject under research and becoming too subjective and, on the other hand “going observationalist” (ibid.), i.e. become too distant from the subject under research. In the course of this study, a marginal position was the position the researcher-observer attempted to achieve. If accomplished, such a position means being able to see from two perspectives at the same time: familiarity and strangeness.

Prior to and after the TAPs sessions, the researcher was always approachable with the participants and available to discuss and listen to their worries and queries concerning the TAPs experiment, and to negotiate, explain, etc. During the TAPs experiment, though, and as the tape-recorder started running, the researcher-observer positioned herself on the other side, i.e. the observer’s position, where TAPs observations were undertaken. On occasion, when a participant would ask for clarifications during the experiment, the researcher-observer remained silent, reflecting on the distant role and marginal position that had been clearly explained prior to the experiments. As already mentioned, the TAPs experiment stages and the researcher’s role were all explained as soon as the participants agreed to participate in this study. In the course of the experiment, though, the researcher-observer in this study had another role, that of the facilitator. As soon as the tape-recorder started running, she was not an observer solely looking at the participants and noting down various critical episodes, but had a dual role. For a successful experiment (i.e. to receive a more complete protocol) it was necessary at times to be a facilitator, reminding the participants to think aloud with a supportive tone of voice. Guba and Lincoln (1988) argue that observation methods give the researcher an accommodating research tool to facilitate the documentation of events as they happen, thus offering new possibilities of inquiry. They maintain that observation:

[a]llows the inquirer to see the world as his subjects see it (...) to capture the phenomenon in and on its own terms, and to grasp the culture in its own natural, ongoing environment. It provides the inquirer with access to the emotional reactions of the group introspectively. (Guba and Lincoln, 1988, p. 193)

In the context of think-aloud studies, the researcher is generally, though not always, present during TAPs experiments. In earlier studies, the researcher-observer had to be present, since there was no other means for recording the subject's verbalisations (Lörscher, 1991; Tirkkonen-Condit, 1991; Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007; etc.). Although tape-recorders are now used almost universally, the researcher-observer is still usually present, primarily to monitor the verbalisations by reminding the subject to speak when he lapses into silence. These reminders are often given after pauses of fifteen seconds or up to one minute (the interval being different in different studies). In the present study, the researcher-observer chose the '(please) keep talking' reminder type (see also section 8.3.2.2., this chapter, p. 239) whenever a participant would stop talking for longer than ten consecutive seconds, in an attempt to obtain more complete protocols and thus a more successful TAPs experiment in the least directive way (Ericsson & Simon, 1993).

In some studies the researcher-observer also monitors the content of the verbalisations and, when necessary, asks the participant to explain what he means by something, and/or asks the subject to clarify his decision processes (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). It can be assumed that the mere presence of the researcher-observer may induce some participants to provide descriptions or explanations they would omit in a non-social situation. This indicates that the role of the researcher-observer in TAPs studies can be significant. This led some investigators to employ think-aloud procedures, but without the presence of the researcher-observer (e.g., Klinger, 1974). It is technically feasible, by automatic means, to detect pauses that exceed a given length, and to remind the participant by means of an (auditory) signal to resume verbalising. In the present study, this was not undertaken as facilities were not available for this. Instead, the researcher-observer was present during all phases of the experiment, taking the position and role explained above, so as to enable successful TAPs experiments and to minimise as much as possible the potential social interaction between the participant and herself as a researcher-observer.

8.3.3.5. Data

8.3.3.5.1. Think-Aloud Protocols and Data Collection

Protocols for the purposes of the main study were designed, collected and transcribed during the academic year 2007-2008 (from November 2007 until August 2008). Data was collected in

environments familiar to the participants and analysed subsequently (please refer to Chapter 9 for further details on data analysis. Fieldwork began when the researcher met with the participants individually. The entire TAPs data collection session was completed in three phases: the Pre-TAPs Phase, the During the TAPs Phase, and the Post-TAPs Phase, as discussed below. This particular distinction was made to organise the analytical process, and it enabled a more practical way of monitoring and managing the entire research process and its data.

8.3.3.5.1.1. Pre-TAPs Phase

This phase included everything that took place before the actual verbalisation process: from the telephone contact the researcher had with the participants, the negotiations with regards to the audio- and video-recording and the potential use of Translog, location arrangements, and so forth, to the use of supporting material (dictionaries, electronic tools, etc.) that participants would be allowed to bring with them during the actual TAPs session if they wished.

At the beginning of each experimental session, the participant was given a questionnaire (see Appendix I, p. 377), the details of which are explained in this chapter (see section 8.3.3.5.3.2. below, p. 253). Additionally, the participant was provided with an information sheet (see Appendix III, p. 379) containing a written explanation of the aims of the study, the development of the experiment, and what he was expected to do (brief introduction to think-aloud studies, TAPs and session instructions). The information sheet was accompanied by a consent form (see Appendix VI, p. 383) for the participants to sign. This was also read aloud by the researcher, who then asked whether there were any questions once these ethical considerations had been taken care of. The researcher would provide an explanation and demonstration of thinking-aloud as a warm-up exercise (Ericsson & Simon, 1984), in an attempt to familiarise the participant with thinking aloud. In Ericsson and Simon's (1993) experience:

[i]t is important to have subjects do warm-up tasks with oral information. This appears to eliminate silence due to misunderstanding of the instruction to think aloud. It gives subjects practice in expressing thoughts directly without explaining or interrelating the information. (p. 257)

As the length of time spent on the task, or quality of the end product were not specifically under investigation in this study (see also Chapter 6 for further explanations), there was no time-limit set for the task in order to lessen the participants' burden during the process of translating the two tasks, which were moderately difficult and would therefore require considerable cognitive

processing (c.f. Trikkonen-Condit, 1989; Bernardini, 1999; Lee-Jahnke, 2005). Before the tape-recorder started running, participants were also informed that each translation task was independent, in that they might skip one and then re-attempt the task later on in the experiment.

8.3.3.5.1.2. During the TAPs Phase

This was the phase during which verbalisations started. As soon as the tape-recorder started running, participants entered the 'during the TAPs phase', where they verbalised any thought that occurred to them during the actual translating task. Participants translated using either a word processor or a pen/pencil and paper (their choice). When subjects fell silent, the researcher would prompt them in a neutral manner (Ericsson & Simon, 1993), as already outlined in 8.3.2. (p. 238) This study's think-aloud sessions lasted anywhere between thirty and fifty minutes each. The researcher did not leave the room during the sessions, and her intervention was limited to turning the tapes and giving reminders to verbalise participants stopped talking for longer than ten consecutive seconds. Interaction was not encouraged in any way (Ericsson & Simon, 1993).

During the verbalisations, the researcher kept a diary (see extracts of the researcher's diary in Appendix VII, p. 388 and made notes on critical episodes that linked to the study's research questions and aims (i.e. verbalisation(s) on translation strategies, approaches, norms). As already underlined, the participants were asked to talk through their strategies, approaches, and decision-making process as they went on translating the two humorous texts, and to attempt to reason their translation choices. The produced protocols were, therefore, more concurrent than retrospective in nature (cf. Ericsson & Simon, 1993).

8.3.3.5.1.3. Post-TAPs Phase

This was the phase the participants entered as soon as they finished their translations and verbalisations, and the tape-recorder stopped. A post-experiment questionnaire (see Appendix II, p. 378) was given to them, in which they were asked to report on certain aspects of the experimental tasks (problems, thoughts, feelings). Other retrospective reports/interviews were not conducted. It was felt, following the feedback from the pilot study, that the participants were already tired from carrying out the think-aloud tasks. In addition, a formal follow-up session would only make sense after the TAPs had been transcribed (Ericsson & Simon, 1984, 1993), and at that point the participants were no longer available.

During the data collection phase, the researcher-observer captured participants' thinking- aloud on audio-recorder, which enabled her (the researcher-observer) to review verbal data in more

detail at a later date, and to analyse nuances not recorded in the researcher's diary (Fonteyn, Kuipers, & Grobe, 1993).

After the completion of the three phases, the researcher thanked the participants orally, and then gave them the envelope with the payment agreed in advance and a written thank you note. Tape-recordings were subsequently transcribed (including participants' non-verbal behaviours observed by the researcher, who jotted down every detail in her diary), and the protocols were segmented and coded. An initial list of a priori categories was defined, based on Lörscher's (1991) and Hubscher-Davidson's (2007) work (see Appendix V, p. 382). A detailed report and discussion of the data analysis takes place in Chapter 10, and implications of the study are discussed in Chapter 11.

8.3.3.5.2. Texts Given for Translation

The texts given to all participants as translation tasks during the TAPs sessions were humorous extracts taken from Sue Townsend's novel, *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾* (1982). As mentioned previously, the extracts included instances of figurative speech and, more specifically, idioms and fixed expressions. Other criteria taken into account for the choice of the two texts were their length, internal coherence, and anticipated translation difficulty as assessed by the researcher. The texts extracted were brief, of seemingly average difficulty in terms of translation, and did not require contextualisation due to the independent 'page per day' diary form⁴³. The major criterion in the choice of texts, though, was humour. According to the well-known British author's interviews and many worldwide fans' comments online, these extracts are amongst a list of indicative humorous parts of the book.

The two texts given for translation in the course of the TAPs experiment are illustrated in Figure 8.3. below:

⁴³ None of the participants in the study had read the book or any other book by this author—a critical piece of information for the purpose of this study, as prior knowledge could have affected performance.

Figure 8.3.
The Two Texts Given for Translation During the TAPs Session

Text One-Task One (p. 60)
<p>Saturday April 4th NEW MOON</p> <p>Me and my father cleaned the house up today. We had no choice: my grandma is coming for tea tomorrow. We went to Sainsbury's this afternoon. My father chose a trolley that it was impossible to steer. It also squeaked as if somebody was torturing mice. I was ashamed to be heard with it. My father chose food that it is bad for you. I had to put my foot down and insist that he bought some fresh food and salad. When we got to the check-out he couldn't find his banker's card, the cashier wouldn't take a cheque without it, so the supervisor had to come and stop the argument. I had to lend my father some of my birthday money. So he owes me eight pounds thirty-eight and a half pence. I made him write an IOU on the back of the till roll.</p> <p>But, I must say that I take my hat off to Sainsbury's, they seem to attract a better class of person. I saw a vicar choosing a toilet paper; he chose a four-roll pack of purple three-ply. He must have money to burn! He could have bought some shiny white and given the difference to the poor. What a hypocrite!</p>
Text Two-Task Two (p. 187)
<p>Saturday April 3rd</p> <p>4p.m. I have just had the most humiliating experience of my life. It started when I began to assemble my model aeroplane. I had nearly finished it when I thought I would try an experimental sniff of glue. I put my nose to the undercarriage and sniffed for five seconds, nothing spiritual happened but my nose stuck to the plane! My father took me to Casualty to have it removed, how I endured the laughing and sniggering I don't know.</p> <p>The Casualty doctor wrote 'Glue Sniffer' on my outpatient's card.</p> <p>I rang Pandora; she is coming round after her viola lesson. Love is the only thing that keeps me sane...</p>

Humour was the main ingredient of the novel's success (Thomson, 1999). This was the main reason that this book was chosen for the purposes of this study, as the aims of the research was to reveal the translators' approaches, strategies, and governing norms in the process of HT. The types of humour the extracts comprise are analysed and discussed in Chapter 5 in section 5.2. (p. 157) and involve self-effacing humour, unexpected humour, and sarcastic humour.

The fictional diary is addressed to the third age group division of ChL (see Chapter 1, section 1.1.2., p. 16), and it is thus aimed at teenagers and YA, without strictly excluding other age groups. The diary is about an adolescent boy growing up in England in the 1990s, who keeps a diary with vivid details of the events of his everyday life, expectations and ambitions, in a humorous manner. *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾*, was selected for the purposes of this study due to its universal appeal. It was popular all over the world and sold more than a million copies (Thomson, 1999). It was translated into a number of European languages and in 1982 it was broadcast on Radio 4 in the UK, whereas later on it was made a television programme (ibid.).

8.3.3.5.3. Research Tools

8.3.3.5.3.1. Verbal Data: The Case of Think-Aloud Protocols

As was already discussed, TAPs was the main methodological tool used for data collection in this study. Think-aloud activity is not entirely alien to everyday life, and almost all research participants probably had some experience of it before actually experiencing the TAPs session. In real terms, students at school occasionally have to explain their solutions to problems aloud to their teachers and fellow students in order to show/describe how the solutions were generated. In many such cases verbalisations require considerable intermediate processing prior to articulation and they are distinctly different from the specific type of verbalisation required of ongoing cognitive processes.

Although spontaneous thinking-aloud is rare in the everyday life of adults, they still normally engage in many other forms of verbalisation relevant to thinking in front of observers. Adults are often asked to describe how to do something. Decisions and judgments are often discussed publicly and challenged, thereby requiring individuals to justify, and even rationalise their choice and evaluations. Explanations, descriptions, justifications, and rationalisations are socially motivated verbalisations generated to communicate to one or more listeners. Successful communication with listeners requires additional processes to attain coherence and take account of differences in background knowledge. Hence, social verbalisations may be quite different from the sequences of thoughts generated by subjects themselves while solving problems, performing actions, and making evaluations and decisions.

In order to characterise the differences in participants' verbalisations, the three different levels at which subjects can verbalise their thought processes, as noted in Ericsson and Simon (1996, p. 78), will be described in this section. The first level of verbalisations is simply the vocalisation of oral encodings, as required in the tasks set. At this level, there are no intermediate processes, and the subject needs to expend no special effort to communicate his thoughts. The second level involves the description and explication of the thought content. At this level, information that is held in a compressed internal format or in an encoding is not isomorphic when explicated (*ibid.*). At this point, no new information is brought into the focus of the subject's attention. The third level of verbalisation requires the subject to explain his thought processes or thoughts. An explanation of thoughts, ideas, hypotheses or their motives is not simply a recording of information already presented in short term memory (STM), but requires the linking of this information to earlier thoughts and information attended to previously. At this level, additional

interpretative processes are encountered that are not present in the previous levels (Ericsson & Simon, 1996).

As Ericsson and Simon (1996) indicate, there is a dramatic increase in the amount of behaviour that can be observed when a subject is performing a task while thinking aloud compared to the same subject working under silent conditions. A brief instruction to think aloud usually suffices to bring about this major change in observable behaviour. In light of the fact that participants receive some practice before being able to think aloud, one infers that this verbal reporting is consistent with the structure of their normal cognitive processes and their general skills for verbalising needed information. The nature of this practice is known as 'warm-up exercises'. These 'warm-up exercises' have several purposes. Firstly, subjects need to begin talking under circumstances where it is comparatively easy. Secondly, researchers want to make certain that all subjects talk aloud. If particular participants appear not to verbalise as much as other participants, the researcher can give them more "practice problems" (Ericsson & Simon, 1996, p. 377). These problems are what this study refers to as practice tasks. In addition, the researcher can ask them for a retrospective report after they complete the task. Quoting Ericsson and Simon (1996) on the effectiveness of these exercises: "In our experience it is very rare that subjects do not spontaneously verbalise in a normal fashion after a couple of practice problems" (p. 377). This means that talking-aloud is not theoretically an impossible or overly difficult task for a participant to achieve. This is something that it is hoped to be revealed in this study.

TAPs are therefore a special form of verbalisation that is likely to differ in nature from other forms of talking. Verbal data capturing human thoughts can be collected at various points, and it is referred to in the literature as talk-aloud data, verbal protocols, or verbal reports (Ericsson & Simon, 1984; Lörcher, 1991; Baker & Malmkjaer, 1998). Generally, think-aloud data is that which is collected while the participant is in the process of working towards the given task. However, researchers can also engage in: a) concurrent probing, asking direct questions while the participant is undertaking an activity to access information which is held in the participant's STM; or b) retrospective probing, where questions are asked after the completion of the given activity (Ericsson & Simon, 1993).

As there is a certain amount of disparity in the literature in terms of categorising the various types of verbal reports, it seems important to provide a brief definition of think-aloud procedures, both introspective and retrospective. With think-aloud – or in Ericsson and Simon's terms (1993), concurrent verbalisations – researchers instruct their subjects to verbalise directly and solely what

enters their conscious thought while performing the task (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). Thus, this type of verbal reporting is concurrent with the execution of a specific task, and the participants provide information while it is still available to them, that is, while it remains in STM. For example, participants can be asked to think-aloud while translating a sentence from their L1 to their L2, and to report the sequence of thoughts related to the selection of appropriate words and grammatical structures while doing the translation.

For introspection, subjects are not only requested to verbalise but also to describe or explain their thoughts (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). Introspection therefore entails the activation of information that is not stored in STM during the performance of the task. Consequently, the reliability of these types of reports has proven to be highly questionable (cf. Nisbett & Wilson, 1977). In retrospection, on the other hand, the subjects verbalise their sequence of thoughts after they perform the task. In this case, the relevant information needs to be transferred from long-term memory (LTM) to STM, which might result in incomplete reporting. L2 research differs slightly from research in general cognitive psychology in that, in some L2 research, other research methods such as self-report questionnaires and group discussions have been classified as verbal reports (Faerch & Kasper, 1987a) because they too may involve the description of subjects' cognitive processes and experiences.

For the researcher to collect verbal protocols, the participant is simply asked to think aloud and to provide continuous verbal reports while making decisions. The researcher treats the protocol as a record of the participant's ongoing behaviour and interprets what is said as an indication of the participant's state of knowledge (Newel & Simon, 1972). In this particular study, the protocols are considered to be a record of the participant's strategies and governing norms while translating humour. Contrary to House (1981), Ericsson and Simon (1993), Toury (1995), and others who suggest that protocols may not always succeed in revealing participants' reasoning of their choices, or of the norms and principles underlying these, this study accepts Nisbett and Wilson's (1977) argument that verbal data may reflect the norms for behaviour in a task more than the underlying processes used in carrying out that task. Further details on the reliability of verbal data were provided in Chapter 7 of the thesis.

8.3.3.5.3.2. Questionnaires

As suggested, using different data-collection methods adds to the validity and reliability of findings when analysing aspects of translators' approaches and detecting translation strategies and norms (Hansen, 2005).

The pre-experiment questionnaire (see Appendix I, p. 377) collected personal information (name, age, level of studies) and enquired as to the reasons for choosing translation as the area of their studies. Details regarding professional background and experience were also collected (experience with translation, years of experience as a translator, areas of interest or specialisation, etc.). The purpose of these questions was to obtain as much information as possible on the participants, so as to have data on all possible reasons that might affect their choice of strategies during the experiment.

The post-experiment questionnaire (see Appendix II, p. 378) contained a number of open-ended questions relating to the TAPs experiment. Participants were invited to comment on the TAPs session and on how they felt about the verbalising experience. Lastly, they were asked to comment on their translation approaches, and to explain in their own words what they did when they encountered a translation problem. The last two questions enquired their opinion about translating itself and their future study/work plans. These were given in order to conclude the often intensive and somewhat stressful experience on a lighter note (cf. Ericsson & Simon, 1993).

8.3.3.5.3.3. Researcher's Diary

Goldman-Segall refers to obtaining multiple perspectives as “configurational validity” (1995, p. 163), where multiple positions are presented in the pursuit of meaning-making. This also relates to social/behavioural studies, underlying the importance of obtaining in-depth, multiple perspectives via qualitative approaches. In terms of triangulation, the researcher's diary (rd) was used in this study along with the questionnaires and the protocols, and it aimed to provide another perspective on the TAPs session itself (see a page of the researcher's diary in Appendix VII, p. 388).

Speaking of the epistemological and methodological grounding of the researchers' diary in ethnographic or participant observation studies, Newbury (2001)⁴⁴ affirms that:

[i]n purely practical terms, it is often very difficult to separate out the writing of purely descriptive observational fieldnotes; as one records particular events, theoretical concepts, or other leads to follow up, often come to mind. The value of the diary form is that it does not exclude the recording of these in relation to more objective descriptions. The research diary can be seen as a melting pot for all of the different ingredients of a research project -prior experience, observations, readings, ideas- and a means of capturing the resulting interplay of elements. Schatzman and Strauss allude to this function of the research diary

⁴⁴ Available at: http://www.biad.bcu.ac.uk/research/rti/riadm/issue1/research_diaries.htm – last accessed 30/07/2011

when they refer to the researcher's notes as "the vehicle for ordered creativity" (Schatzman & Strauss, 1973, p. 105).

The researcher's diary is recorded as the most common form in an ethnographic or participant observation study (Long, 1983; Allwright, 1988; Bailey, 1990, Gascoigne & Veleba, 2000). The diary is said to facilitate the research process as the researcher records observations, thoughts and questions as they happen and uses them at a later stage. Additionally, the researcher's diary stimulates reflective thinking about the research (Newbury, 2001). For Bailey (1990), a diary gives the researcher the possibility to record "anything and everything" (p. 71). In this study, the researcher's diary contained comments, thoughts, and further information that the researcher felt useful to keep about the process and the participants (e.g., certain gestures or facial expressions). For an example, please refer to Appendix VII (p. 388).

8.3.3.5.4. Data Analysis

A fundamental issue for the research design was how to organise and manage all of the data gathered, in order to perform an effective and complete analysis within the chosen theoretical framework of the thesis. Although time-consuming, the transcribing, translating, and coding of TAPs data (thirty in total) was otherwise a generally straightforward process. Data analysis strategies can be found in the literature (i.e. Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Radnor, 1994; Silverman, 2000) and were taken into consideration when analysing the study's qualitative data. More specifically, the researcher focused on coding strategies provided in literature within the fields of TS and TAPs (cf. for example Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Lörscher, 1991; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). Key issues linked to encoding, segmentation, utterances, and atomic units of thought are all crucial in analysing qualitative data within think-aloud studies and were given much consideration. These are detailed in this section.

Van Someren, Barnard, and Sandberg (1994) note that analysis is the last step in a series of successive steps:

- Step 1: Selecting framework, subjects and problems
- Step 2: Defining settings, including instructions and training in thinking aloud
- Step 3: Recording
- Step 4: Producing transcription of the protocols and dividing it into segments
- Step 5: Constructing a coding scheme
- Step 6: Rating protocols or protocol fragments
- Step 7: Overview of the analysis of think aloud protocols, including building (or adopting) models of problem solving (p. xi)

Data analysis in the context of this study followed the above stages. However, in an attempt to account for the actual complex process, this study resulted in a more explicit analysis and as a consequence ended up with a list of ten stages. More specifically, in the present study, data analysis was the tenth step:

1. The participants were introduced to the think-aloud method and the purposes of the study.
2. The participants received a pre-experiment questionnaire.
3. The participants were provided with warm-up exercises, familiarising them with thinking aloud.
4. The participants talked aloud while translating two selected humorous tasks. The verbalisations were recorded with a tape recorder, while the researcher jotted down in her diary critical episodes with regards to her research aims and questions (i.e. significant information relevant to the participants' translation approaches and strategies, as well as indications of norms).
5. The participants received a post-experiment questionnaire.
6. The recording was transcribed.
7. Data was segmented (divided up into statements or "thoughts").
8. The researcher decided on an encoding scheme.
9. The data was encoded (i.e. each segment was translated into a symbol of a category).
10. The encoded data was analysed. Analysis consisted of frequency analysis looking for patterns.

After the participants completed the tasks, the researcher transcribed the tape-recordings for analysis. Protocols were analysed using qualitative research methods (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992), as yet to be explained in this section. The researcher transcribed all the participants' verbalisations, translated them from Greek into English, and coded them into generalised themes that represented actual events (Van Someren et al., 1994). Finally, the researcher added comments on the coded protocols on the right-hand side. Table 8.1. below and Appendix VI (p. 383) illustrate this process.

Table 8.1.
Protocol Analysis Sheet

Protocol in Greek	Translated Protocol in English	Code	Researcher's Comments

Adopting Hubscher-Davidson's protocol analysis coding system (cf. Hubscher-Davidson, 2007), itself adapted from Lörcher (1991) (see Appendix V, p. 382), and expanding it so as to meet the requirements and research questions of the present study, the following Protocol Analysis Coding System (Table 8.2.) was devised:

Table 8.2.
Protocol Analysis Coding System

P: Physical

PE: facial expressions (smiling, rolling eyes, ...)

PB: body movements (hand gestures, head titling, pen chewing, etc)

S: Silence

SRS: reading ST in silence

SRT: reading TT in silence

SWR: writing translation in silence

SM: other silent mental process (silence, lapse in verbalising, etc)

SMS: short silence (5 seconds or less)

SML: long silence (5 seconds or longer)

W: Whispering

V: Verbalising

VSA: verbalised self-assessment, opinions, personal comments on text, references to personal experience

VF: verbalised feelings/emotions (as a reaction to the ST, to the whole experiment, etc.)

VU: verbalised uncertainty

VT: verbalised translating

VL/EU: verbalised logic/efforts to understand ST and TT requirements

VP: verbalisations relating to picturing events/mental representations

VRS: verbalised reading of ST

VRT: verbalised reading of TT

ID: Internal dialogue

REP: Repetition of words, phrases, etc.

R: Reasoning the choices/decisions/translation approach

N: Norm

US: Use of Sources (dictionary, internet, etc.)

RT: Risk-taking

STR: Strategy

STR-s: search

STR-c: communication

STR-m: monitoring

REV: Revision

EDIT: Editing

A: Approach

AH: Holistic Approach

AM: Mixed Approach

AT-D: Top-Down Approach

AB-U: Bottom-Up Approach

MisT: Mistranslation

Analysing each TAP was intensive. Comparing the data of each analysis with that of the others was a procedure that required a substantial amount of work. Nonetheless, this meticulous comparative analysis was necessary to backup claims that observed patterns related to certain aspects of the translation process.

The protocol analysis was, in contrast, a lengthy and complex process, as a single participant's protocol data could consist of hundreds of utterances (see Appendix VI, p. 381). In this study, in accordance with Ericsson and Simon's guidelines (1993), the participants' protocols were broken down into segments – each segment corresponding to a statement – that were taken to be the smallest atomic units of thought and discrete mental operations that could not be further broken down. In certain cases, though, where units were not always large enough to analyse coherently, encoding was therefore found to be based on larger syntactic or even semantic units. If oral prose was completely grammatical, a statement would essentially be a clause or a sentence but in participants' speech, statements are often abbreviated to phrases, or even to single words. The underlying goal of the encoding was to extract sufficient evidence to account for progress from the statement of the initial problem or task to its final solution. Therefore, the researcher encoded, segmented, and subsequently categorised the data in an attempt to synthesise and find patterns in the data. Themes were identified that seemed to relate to the study's research questions and aims.

The researcher followed an inductive procedure by reading the transcripts a number of times, thus getting to know the data in depth, whilst simultaneously taking notes on the side of the paper. The researcher then started compiling a set of broad categories of recurring translation strategies and norms from the three groups of participants. Data was provisionally categorised so as to facilitate comparisons between protocols. The findings are presented and analysed in the next chapter (Chapter 9).

It should be made clear that, although the verbalisations of adults can generally be transcribed into ordinary words, there remain several aspects of their recorded verbalisations that cannot be easily transcribed, such as intonation patterns and pauses. Furthermore, encoding the stress and duration of each word and pause can be tremendously difficult (Ericsson & Simon, 1993, p. 279). Although in other experiments pauses may transcribe into a number of seconds (e.g., Lörcher, 1991; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007) in this study, as time constraints and speed of translation were not important for the research objectives, only the length of longer pauses were recorded, since these might have indicated periods when the participant had a problem or decided not to follow the instructions to think aloud.

For validity purposes and in order to provide additional perspectives on the investigation and the data, findings from the protocol analysis (p) were contrasted with data from the researcher's diary (rd) (see Appendix VII, p. 388) and the post-experiment questionnaire (pq) (see Appendix II, p. 378) given to the participants before comments and statements could be made on the participants' translation attitudes, strategies, and norms in the translation process. Triangulating the data to better analyse and formulate tentative conclusions was a process which needed to be conducted repeatedly, in order to accurately recognise underlying behavioural patterns. Once this process was completed, interpretative summaries could be generated from the data.

In what follows, the findings addressing the main aims of the study will be presented and analysed. Based on the research questions and aims, translators' norms and strategies at the three levels of expertise – beginners, competent, and experts – will be the focus of the data analysis of the study in Chapter 9.

8.3.3.5.5. Ethical Issues

During this ethical journey, the researcher needs to be aware of his role within the research setting (Creswell, 1994). Because of the nature of the experiment, there was a need for the role of the researcher-observer to be clearly defined so as to increase both the validity and reliability of the study (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007).

As already mentioned in this chapter, the researcher in this particular study had a dual role: she was both a researcher-observer, hence observing the participants and noting down everything that took place during the TAPs session, and also their "facilitator", or supporter, reminding them to think aloud in a supportive and respectful manner. It is argued, however, that the researcher, being closely involved in the study, may produce a distorted/subjective analysis and thus create a threat to the internal validity of the analysis (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). In view of this, different techniques were adopted in the course of the study in order to counter potential subjectivity and to protect validity and reliability (Cohen et al., 2000). For example, employing TAPs, questionnaires, and the researcher's diary enabled the researcher to obtain data from three different sources, something which is acknowledged to mitigate the subjectivity inherent in the use of only one method (cf. Gile, 2004; Hansen, 2005). Research was conducted by triangulating methods as a means of increasing confidence in the reliability and accuracy of data obtained (Cohen et al., 2000; Denscombe, 2003). Therefore, in order to assemble as much information as possible to depict and analyse the participants' behaviours, attitudes, strategies, and norms,

methodologies used in this study, alongside TAPs, included the pre- and post-experiment questionnaires and the researcher's diary. According to Newbury (2001)⁴⁵:

One should consider the ethical issues involved in keeping a diary in the context of research. Although a diary is primarily considered as a private document, and in fact part of its value is that it allows a license for the researcher to record and test out on paper thoughts and reflections that may never reach a wider audience, there may be points at which the diary is read by others. In some cases the diary may be a useful vehicle for communicating the complexity of a research project. If this is the case then clearly there is a need to consider issues of confidentiality both for the researcher and the characters that appear in the research story.

Issues of confidentiality and anonymity are akin to the principle of privacy (Oliver, 2003; Gregory, 2003). In ethnographic and research observation studies, the researcher makes every effort to ensure that data collected cannot be traced (Wiles, Crow, Heath, & Charles, 2008). The issue of how far to take the anonymity of the research participants so that they cannot be possibly identified when research findings and results are presented to a variety of audiences is a critical one in the context of studies as such as this one, as explained below.

The writing-up stage of this study raised a number of ethical questions about how the participant's 'voices' should be presented. On moral grounds, individuals should be protected and researchers should be ethical (Cohen et al., 2000; Denscombe, 2003). Being aware of the need to adopt an ethical approach to the study, and to respect the rights and dignity of the volunteers participating in the research, the researcher guaranteed participants' confidentiality and ensured that other ethical requirements were taken into account. Firstly, participants were informed that the interface was 'tested' and not the participant, and that the focus of the research was the process and not the subject or the quality of the work produced. Prior to the start of the experiment, participants were asked to sign a consent form (see Appendix IV, p. 381), which clearly stated that they could quit the experiment at any time. In addition, in an attempt to maintain the participants' confidentiality and anonymity, the researcher asked the participants to choose a nickname or pseudonym that would be used in later stages of the research, given the need to protect the participants' personal details (Hansen, 2005; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). Each participant was also allocated a code with a number and indication of the focus group to which they belonged. For example, *P1, FG3*, refers to the first participant 'participant 1', in the third focus-group 'FG3', i.e. the expert group. Participants' names were therefore stored separately from their data, and the data was stored with the above-mentioned codes. This practice is

⁴⁵ Available at: http://www.biad.bcu.ac.uk/research/rti/riadm/issue1/research_diaries.htm – last accessed 30/07/2011

acknowledged as appropriate and ethical by a number of scholars specialising in ethics, underlying the importance for confidentiality and anonymity (e.g., Newbury, 2001; Gregory, 2003; Oliver, 2003; Crow, Wiles, Heath, & Charles, 2006; Wiles, Crow, Heath, & Charles, 2008).

8.4. Limitations of the Study

In conducting this study, problems in relation to the participants of the study and the data collection method were mainly encountered. These limitations are detailed below.

- **Professionals' Refusal to Participate in the Study**

In terms of the limitations of this study, the unwillingness of a number of professionals contacted to participate to the study was the first major problem encountered. In addition to professional issues (e.g., too much work, other urgent deadlines, travelling for translating/interpreting purposes) and personal issues ("I feel awkward", "I have never done this before", "this will be too embarrassing", etc.) that led many professionals contacted prior to the TAPs experiments to refuse to participate, reactions towards their potential participation and reasons for their refusal gave rise to various issues. Their unwillingness to participate along with the reasons they gave in certain cases revealed their attitude towards research in TS and further studying TS – pursuing MA and PhD studies – as well as their interest in and knowledge about ChLT, etc. Thus, although the unwillingness of some professionals to join the study is underlined as a strong limitation, it is at the same time an interesting issue in terms of examining possible reasons and sketching some possible solutions for implications and future directions (see Chapter 11).

- **Hesitation of Participants in Using Technology**

Along with participants' reluctance to join the study, a number of participants who agreed to take part were hesitant to make use of technologies for translation. Technology such as Translog, video-recording, and using computers during the translation process, for the purposes of this study, will be discussed in the following lines.

I. Translog

Although considered for the study, Translog was not one of the methods of data collection. As it was obvious from the telephone contact that the researcher had with each participant prior to the date set for the TAPs session, most participants (especially the two student FGs) preferred to translate with pen and paper, thus avoiding the use of a computer. As Translog is based on the computer, the option to use it was discarded, as it was felt, in terms of consistency, that the tool

should either be used by all participants or none. In addition, it felt more important and ethical to respect the participant's wishes and comfort. It is interesting to note that many students from the beginners' group highlighted the following: 'It takes less time to do it [the translation] in pen and paper' (P1, FG1, p), 'I do not use the computer, unless I am surfing and emailing' (P2, FG1, p), 'I pay for my work to be typed when this is a coursework requirement' (P3, FG1, p), 'No, it would take ages to use the computer and type!' (P5, FG1, p), etc. This could possibly seem odd to some due to the extensive use of digital tools today, and the plethora of supporting software and hardware to hand (iPhones, iPods, translation apps etc.). Notably, it reveals a delayed development of the use of technologies in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot teaching contexts. Since the use of Translog as an additional data collection tool would have given the researcher the opportunity to further triangulate results, not using it could have a negative impact on issues of reliability/validity. Filling in this gap and aiming to employ triangulation in the context of this study, the researcher contrasted the protocols with the researcher's diary and the post-experiment questionnaires, which helped to validate findings. Notably, Translog/technological methods that assess the process are being increasingly used in some technologically advanced countries/universities (e.g., the Copenhagen Business School in Denmark). As it is revealed in this study, there is clearly a gap between countries, and countries such as Greece/Cyprus are perhaps under-studied and under-valued due to this reluctance to embrace new technologies. This makes the study of translation processes in these contexts perhaps more difficult but even more important to undertake, so that they are not left behind.

II. Video-Recording

In a similar way to Translog, all participants were sceptical at the idea of being video-recorded. This was another limitation in terms of the data collection process as it prevented triangulation and could lead to an analysis of narrow focus, issues that are associated with validity and reliability. Here again, a frank discussion was held with participants about the use and storing of video data in order to provide them with control over, and understanding of, the possible uses of this recorded material. Participants were therefore given the opportunity to air their concerns about video-recording prior to the TAPs experiment. Negotiations on using video observation as a research tool and as a data collection tool took place, and participants were reassured that video data would only be used for specific research purposes, and that they were under no obligation to accept being filmed. However, participants were very wary about being exposed and vulnerable, and preferred not to be video-recorded for the session. Choosing to respect participants' wishes, the TAPs sessions were not video-recorded. Instead, audio-recordings were used and protocols were triangulated with the questionnaires and the researcher's diary. Extending the discussion, it

can be said that, as numerous other studies on translation processes have been undertaken with no similar reluctance from participants (Jääskeläinen, 2000; Jakobsen, 2003, 2005, 2006; Göpferich, 2006a, 2006b, Hubscher-Davidson, 2007), perhaps this is a feature of the specific culture this study was dealing with. However, it can also be argued that there is a question of ethics and that perhaps issues of power relations in this study were handled in a different manner to other studies.

- **Complexity of TAPs**

Limitations of this study are also linked to the method of data collection selected. Although verbal protocols can provide valuable data on the processes used in solving complex tasks, they are difficult to use, and usually labour-intensive, require considerable transcription and coding efforts, and involve difficult analysis (Ericsson & Simon, 1980, 1993; Olson et al, 1984; Charters, 2003). In the context of this study, however, the TAPs method was worth the effort, as it enabled the detection of norms, strategies, and attitudes in the process of translating humour in ChL. The results of this study as well as the beneficial outcomes (see Chapter 10) highlight the importance of TAPs in TS and interdisciplinary cognitive explorations, encouraging future researchers to make use of it in their studies.

- **Lack of Generalisable Results**

As a result of the issues raised above, this study used relatively few participants, even though there was an attempt to exceed the number of participants usually used in process studies, thus moving beyond recent research attempts (see Chapter 7). In this study, thirty (30) participants at three different levels of translation expertise took part. Despite the number of participants exceeding that of many other TAPs studies, and the stimulating findings arrived at from contrasting the three FGs, it would be difficult to generalise results. Since the sample is still relatively small, it remains impossible to reach generalisable conclusions. Findings, however, can still be meaningful; a number of publications suggest that small samples are worthy, and are eligible to suggest ways in which these could be used meaningfully in future studies (e.g., Nielson, 1944; Aaltonen, 2002; Englund Dimitrova, 2005).

The limitations of this study discussed above fuel discussions (Chapter 10) and are related to a number of implications (Chapter 11).

8.5. Concluding Note

In this chapter, the research questions and aims of the study were presented. In addition, methodological considerations and the general approach to the study were discussed, and the research design was detailed for both the pilot and the resulting main study. The present chapter also described the environment and setting in which the fieldwork took place and gave further information concerning the participants, the sample, and the researcher-observer. A number of data-collection and analysis issues were also discussed with reference to TAPs, the texts given for translation, and the research tools. Ethical issues were discussed, along with a description of how these were tackled and the limitations encountered were addressed. In the next chapter (Chapter 9) the main findings deriving from the participants' protocols, the pre- and post-experiment questionnaires, and the researcher's diary are presented and analysed, with the discussion and further findings taking place in Chapter 10 and the implications of the study in Chapter 11.

Chapter 9

Chapter 9

Presentation and Analysis of Findings

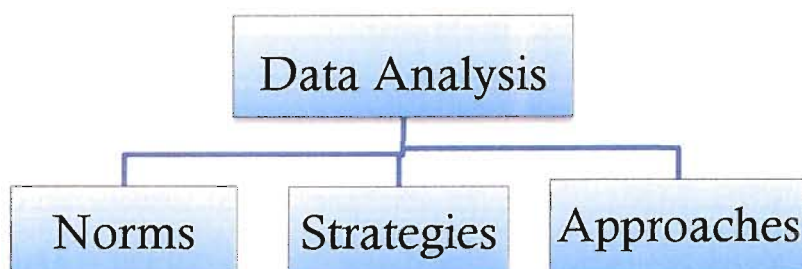
“Any programme intended to be relevant to professional translation practice under real-world constraints must also be directed towards improving the efficiency and effectiveness of translation processes, and not just to the quality of the final products”

(Massey & Ehrensberger-Dow, 2011, p. 27).

9.0. Introductory Note

During the TAPs sessions, whilst participants vocalised thoughts in the course of translating the given texts, certain traits and particular behavioural patterns emerged. These main findings are thoroughly reported in this chapter as derived from the observations based on the researcher’s diary, the protocols and verbalisations, and the post-experiment questionnaires. These findings are analysed in relation to the research questions and aims of the study. Thus, the participants’ translation norms, strategies, and approaches that came to play in the process of translating humour for children and YA, will formulate the three parameters of the data analysis of the study as illustrated in Figure 9.1. below:

Figure 9.1.
Parameters of Data Analysis of the Study



A general observation that could be made about this study is that each group of participants and each individual participant had their own specific ways of dealing with the task at hand. These ways will be presented and analysed in the following sections.

9.1. Translators' Governing Norms as they Translate Humour in ChL from English into Greek

The first aim and research question of this study involved detecting the translation norms that regulate the participants' decision-making in the process of translating humour for ChL. Contrary to the claims of some (e.g., House, 1988; Ericsson & Simon, 1993) who indicate that it is quite hard for participants to think aloud as they translate and even impossible for them to reason their translation choices, in this study, whilst using TAPs, participants not only succeeded in verbalising their approaches, but also reasoned their choices and decision-making as well. This is derived from the transcription of protocols (p) and serves as a contribution of this study. The latter were contrasted with the statements of the post-experiment questionnaires (pq) and the researcher's diary (rd) for triangulation purposes, thus enabling translation norms to be detected during the process of translation. The results are with Nisbett and Wilson's (1977) contentions which underly that verbal data, such as protocols, likely can and do reflect norms for behaviour.

In the following lines, a list of HT norms in the context of ChL will be provided, as they were found in the data collection and analysis. The norms detected will be illustrated with representative examples from data, and a model of HT norms in the context of ChLT will be presented as a significant outcome of this study.

9.1.1. Listing Humour Translation Norms in the Context of ChLT

Based on the list of translators' norms devised in Chapter 3 (see Table 3.2., p. 100), which was inspired by Desmidt's (2006) typology of norms (see Chapter 3, Table 3.1., p. 100), in this study, the following HT norms were found to regulate the participants' decision-making: naturalness, fluency, sound of language, coherence, simplicity, comprehensibility, appropriateness/correctness (language, content, etc.), toning down, didacticism/usefulness (provision of knowledge), same meaning/equivalence, accuracy, authenticity, convenience, and familiarity.

These norms were detected in sixty-two (62) verbalisation instances from the participants' protocols (p) (see Table 9.1. below for an overview, and Table 9.2. in Appendix IX, p. 390 for details), and were triangulated with instances from the post-experiment questionnaire (pq) and

comments from the researcher's diary (rd). These are also included in Table 9.2. in Appendix IX for illustrative purposes. In this section, an attempt is made to model HT norms in the context of ChLT, thus addressing the first research question of this study. In Table 9.1. below, the fourteen norms (14) are illustrated with bullet points, indicating their presence amongst the three FGs. In Table 9.3., the frequency of the norms for every FG is illustrated, and in Table 9.2. (see Appendix IX, p. 390) a detailed list of norms detected with representative examples from triangulated data is provided.

Table 9.1.
A List of Humour Translation Norms Revealed in the Study

NORMS	FIRST FOCUS GROUP (beginners)	SECOND FOCUS GROUP (competent translators)	THIRD FOCUS GROUP (experts)
1. Naturalness		•	•
2. Fluency	•	•	•
3. Sound of language	•	•	•
4. Coherence	•	•	
5. Simplicity (simple language, structure, etc.)	•	•	•
6. Comprehensibility	•	•	•
7. Appropriateness/ Correctness (language, content, etc.)	•	•	•
8. Toning down	•	•	•
9. Didacticism/ Usefulness (provision of knowledge)	•	•	•
10. Same meaning, Equivalence	•	•	•
11. Accuracy		•	
12. Authenticity	•	•	
13. Convenience	•		
14. Familiarity	•	•	•

Table 9.1. above presents the fourteen (14) specific norms that emerged from a thorough analysis of the data and that were categorised according to Desmidt's (2006) typology. These norms were derived from the three data collection tools used for triangulation purposes. Sixty-two (62) instances of reasoned verbalisations gathered and analysed from the participants' audio-transcriptions were highlighted as relevant and then contrasted with further instances from the post-experiment questionnaires, and comments in the researcher's diary. Table 9.2. (see Appendix IX, p. 390) lists examples from triangulated data, whereas Table 9.3. below illustrates the frequency of each norm in each FG in numbers (n) and percentages (%). This table (Table 9.3.)

involves only instances of specific norms detected in participants' (P) verbalisations, totalling sixty-two (62) norm-related verbalisations, or external verbal manifestations of norm-related behaviour, during the translation process.

Table 9.3.
Frequency of Translators' Specific Norms
Governing the Process of Humour Translation in ChLT

	FG1		FG2		FG3		Total numbers of verbalisations	
	P		P		P			
Norms	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
1. Naturalness	0	0	2	3.22	1	1.61	3	4.83
2. Fluency	1	1.61	4	6.45	0	0	5	8.06
3. Sound of language	1	1.61	5	8.06	1	1.61	7	11.28
4. Coherence	1	1.61	1	1.61	0	0	2	3.22
5. Simplicity (simple language, structure, etc.)	2	3.22	3	4.84	0	0	5	8.06
6. Comprehensibility	2	3.22	1	1.61	1	1.61	4	6.44
7. Appropriateness/Correctness (language content, etc.)	4	6.45	5	8.06	3	4.84	12	19.35
8. Toning down	2	3.22	0	0	2	3.22	4	6.44
9. Didacticism/ Usefulness (provision of knowledge)	0	0	1	1.61	0	0	1	1.61
10. Same meaning, Equivalence	0	0	3	4.84	3	4.84	6	9.68
11. Accuracy	0	0	2	3.22	0	0	2	3.22
12. Authenticity	1	1.61	1	1.61	0	0	2	3.22
13. Convenience	1	1.61	0	0	0	0	1	1.61
14. Familiarity	2	3.22	3	4.84	3	4.84	8	12.90
Total numbers of verbalisations	17	27.38	31	49.97	14	22.57	62	100⁴⁶

In a first instance, it is interesting to note that the expert group, FG3, appears to have relatively fewer norm-related verbalisations than FG1 or FG2. This could be a result of expert translators having internalised their norms, as seen in the literature review (Chapter 6, section 6.1.3.2.2., p. 173). In addition, the fact that FG1 has seventeen (17) instances of norms could result from the fact that beginner translators are not as aware as competent translators are of the importance of norms in the translation process, but they have less automatised behaviours than experts. It could be a feature of the fact that FG2 are in the process of becoming experts, and subsequently have an increased awareness of normative behaviours and hence, in comparison to the other two FGs, have the highest number of norm-related verbalisations.

⁴⁶ As all of the numbers were rounded up to the hundredth place, this does not equal exactly one hundred percent (100%), but to ninety-nine point ninety-two (99.92%). Rounding up was applied for illustrative purposes.

Interestingly, as Tables 9.1. and 9.3. suggest, the most prevalent specific translators' norm that seems to govern the process of translating humour for ChL is appropriateness/correctness, which makes up 19.35% of the reasoned verbalisations. The second most prevalent norm is familiarity, which makes up 12.90% of the verbalisations, and the third is sound of language, making up 11.28% of the TAPs. Following these three prevalent specific HT norms, i.e. appropriateness, familiarity, and sound of language, data suggests that same meaning/equivalence (9.68%), simplicity (8.06%), and fluency (8.06%) follow, with comprehensibility and toning down having the same percentages (6.45%). Naturalness, coherence, accuracy, and authenticity seem to be less present regulating norms (3.22% each), and didacticism and convenience do not seem to feature much in the process of translation in this experiment (1.61% each).

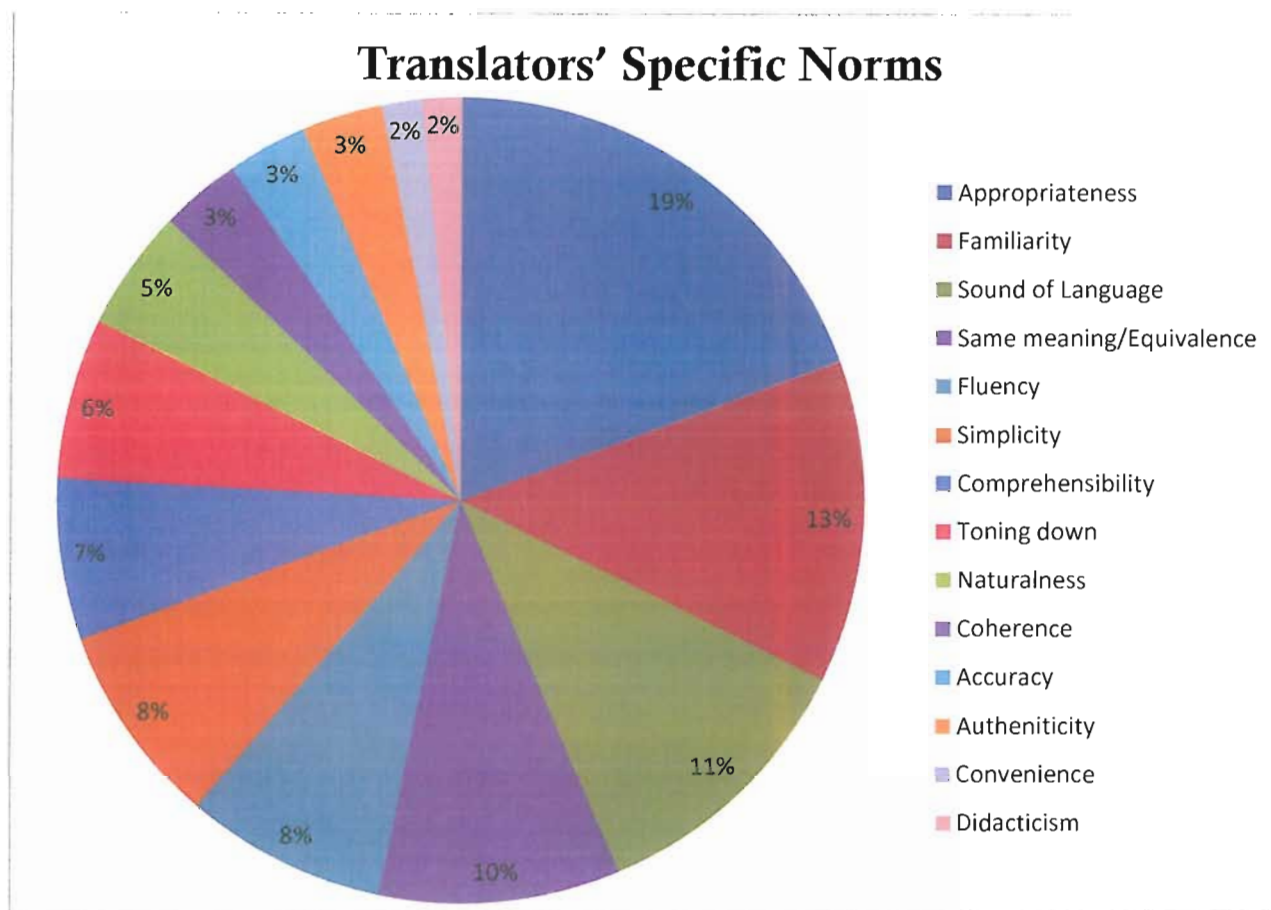
In reordering the list of translators' specific norms in terms of their importance, as revealed in this study, the following table (Table 9.4.) shows prevalent norms:

Table 9.4.
Prevalent Humour Translation Specific Norms in the Context of ChLT
Revealed in the Study

Norms	%
1. Appropriateness/Correctness (language content, etc.)	19.35
2. Familiarity	12.90
3. Sound of language	11.28
4. Same meaning/Equivalence	9.68
5. Fluency	8.06
6. Simplicity (simple language, structure, etc.)	8.06
7. Comprehensibility	6.44
8. Toning down	6.44
9. Naturalness	4.83
10. Accuracy	3.22
11. Authenticity	3.22
12. Coherence	3.22
13. Convenience	1.61
14. Didacticism/Usefulness (provision of knowledge)	1.61

The prevalent translators' specific norms governing the process of ChLT can also be seen in the following figure (Figure 9.2.):

Figure 9.2.
Prevalent Translators' Specific Norms in the Context of Humour Translation
in ChL Revealed in the Study



What is important to notice at this point is that some specific norms are shared only by certain individual groups or participants, whereas others are of a more general nature. For example, the findings of this study suggest that the leading translation norms shared by all FGs are those of: fluency, sound of language, simplicity, comprehensibility, appropriateness/correctness, toning down, didacticism, equivalence, and familiarity. The first two FGs share the norms of coherence and authenticity, whereas the second and third FG, share the norm of naturalness. When pinpointing norms of an individual nature, it can be detected that FG1 is the only group where reference is made to convenience, whereas in FG2 there are two references to accuracy. A detailed overview of the instances of norms that governed the decision making of each participant for each FG can be seen in Tables 9.5.a., 9.5.b., and 9.5.c. in Appendix XII (pp. 415-417).

As a more exhaustive discussion of these findings will take place in Chapter 10, in what follows, a model of HT norms in the context of ChL is proffered based on the findings of this study.

9.1.2. Presenting and Analysing Norms that Govern Translators' Strategies and Approaches, Accompanied by Representative Examples from Data

In this section, the fourteen (14) specific norms detected from the sixty-two (62) instances of norm-related verbalisations (p) will be presented and analysed, and how they relate to the participants, with further illustrative examples from the triangulated data, the post-questionnaires (pq), and the researcher's diary (rd) to demonstrate their presence and expression.

It should be noted that for all of these sixty-two (62) verbalisation extracts, the way in which the researcher identified an instance of specific norm (i.e. naturalness, fluency, didacticism, etc.) being enacted was by selecting keywords within the data (e.g., for the norm of naturalness, the keyword is 'natural'; for the norm of fluency, the keyword is 'fluent'; for the norm of didacticism, the keyword is 'teach' or 'educational'; and so forth). In addition to this, the researcher's own judgment was employed in terms of what constituted the norm in question within the verbalised data⁴⁷. It should also be mentioned here that, due to the small numbers involved in the analysis, the numerical results are useful but cannot be said to be statistically significant.

- **Naturalness**

As established in Chapter 3, the norm of naturalness occurs when the translator attempts to make the TT read (or sound) naturally. A close analysis of the data highlighted that explicit mention of naturalness was made twice by FG2 participants in the verbalised protocols making up the 3.22% of FG2's verbalisations. This is 3.22% more than the number of naturalness verbalisations noted in FG1 and 1.61% more than FG3. Indeed, two competent translators mentioned the need to render a 'natural' TT, and tried to make choices that added 'more naturalness' (P5, FG2, p), or that had 'the most natural rendering' (P4, FG2, p). Underlining the significance of this norm, P8 in FG3 mentioned in her verbalisations that 'what is necessary in a text like this is for language to be as natural as it gets...' (P8, FG3, p). The strength of the norm in question for these three (3) participants was felt by the researcher during the experiment, as her diary refers to it: 'P4 insisted on natural renderings, putting more emphasis on the norm of naturalness (P4, FG2, rd), and 'P5 also keeps naturalness in mind' (P5, FG2, rd). For further data referring to this norm, please refer to Table 9.2. in Appendix IX (p. 390) for a detailed review of the instances in the triangulated data, and Tables 9.5.a., 9.5.b., and 9.5.c. in Appendix XII (pp. 415-417) for a list of individual participants' translation norms. In the context of TS, naturalness is found to correlate with two further norms; fluency and sound of language (Xeni, 2000). These are presented below.

⁴⁷ It should be noted that no study has yet formulated a 'proper' way to detect norms in verbal protocols and that keywords have been used by a number of other researchers.

- **Fluency**

The norm of fluency addresses either the text ‘for the text to flow better’ (P3, FG1, p) or the language: ‘... this is certainly an expression with an equivalent one in Greek, and that sounds natural in the language flow...’ (P4, FG2, p). As revealed in the transcription and pointed out in the above section, fluency is linked to naturalness and the sound of language: ‘translation will flow easily and will be better heard as a target text...’ (P2, FG2, p). Akin to naturalness, a close analysis of data reveals that fluency is a norm encountered in competent translators’ protocols at a percentage of 6.45%. This is 4.84% more than beginners and 6.45% more than experts who made no reference of this norm at all. In the researcher’s diary, it is reported that fluency was a norm that guided one participant’s decision-making in FG1 and four participants’ decision-making in FG2. Data referring to fluency can be found in Table 9.2. in Appendix IX (p. 390).

- **Sound of Language**

Data collected revealed that the text or language sound seemed to be highly important in the process of translating humour for children and YA, especially for FG2 participants (8.06%). Three participants in FG2 made remarks to indicate the importance of this norm: ‘As I was writing the sentence, I realised that in Greek it sounds better if I put...’ (P3, FG1, p) and ... ‘It doesn’t sound good at all!’ (P5, FG2, p). At times, how the language sounded was found to be linked with the norm of naturalness or fluency: ‘“is coming for tea tomorrow”... In Greek ‘my grandmother is coming for tea tomorrow’, doesn’t sound that good, I guess ‘she is coming for a visit’, is more Greek...’ (P5, FG2, p), or the norm of simplicity which will be discussed below: ‘I think the first sentence wouldn’t sound well if I had started with the subject... It might sound too simplistic...’ (P3, FG2, p). The presence of the sound of language as a norm was also reported by the researcher in her diary: ‘How the language sounds, was a norm that P3 took into account while translating’ (P3, FG1, rd), ‘P3 thought much about how well the language sounded’ (P3, FG2, rd), and ‘The sound of language guided at times P5’s decision-making’ (P5, FG2, rd). Table 9.2. (Appendix IX, p. 390) presents further examples from the data with regards to the sound of language.

- **Coherence**

A coherent TT is a verbalised norm shared by one participant from FG1 (1.61%) and one participant from FG2 (1.61%). From quoting participants’ protocols: ‘I will stop somewhere here and re-read it, so as to see if up to this point the meaning is coherent somehow...’ (P3, FG1, p), and ‘ok, I will go for a free translation here... as if someone was torturing mice... so as to be

coherent' (P8, FG2, p), it is obvious that coherence sometimes regulated the participants' decision-making in the course of translating humour in ChL, although this may not have always been explicit. This was also felt by the researcher, who reported it in her diary: 'Coherence came to be a norm that P3 followed while translating humour for children' (P3, FG1, rd), and 'A free translation was chosen by P8 so as to serve coherence purposes' (P8, FG2, rd).

- **Simplicity**

Simplicity in the context of TS is a norm that mainly addresses the non-complex language, structure, plot, etc., which texts, particularly for a young readership/audience, are expected to have (Shavit, 1986; McDowel, 1991; Oittinen, 2000; Lathey, 2006; Cámara Aguilera, 2008). In the literature review in this thesis, simplicity was also discussed as a long-standing characteristic of ChL by all involved parties, i.e. scholars, parents, teachers, grandparents, etc. (see Chapter 1, section 1.1.5., p. 23). From what is revealed in the data, simplicity was a norm that governed some participants' decision-making while translating humour in ChL. It has been noted that participants showed concern for avoiding difficult language. In beginners' protocols, for instance (3.22%), the following are representative examples: 'Maybe this 'decelerate' is a tough word for the kids' (P3, FG1, p), and 'Unless if I put *part of* and not *some*, because I think it is more difficult for the child's language' (P7, FG1, p). Competent translators, two of whom also discussed simplicity (4.84%), stated the following: 'For 'sniff of glue' I will use a verb, I guess, for the language structure to be more simple' (P6, FG2, p), and 'Something we must not forget is that language is written by a child, thus, that's how my rendering should be: particularly simple and comprehensible' (P6, FG2, p). What is notable is that in reasoning their decision-making with difficult language and structure, the norm of comprehensibility also emerged. The presence of the norm of simplicity and its linking to comprehensibility was felt by the researcher during the experiment: 'Simplicity is found in P5's verbalisations in the context of structure. It is also linked to clarity and comprehensiveness, implying that what is simple is clear and thus comprehensive for the child' (P5, FG2, rd), and 'Similarly to P5, P6 links simplicity to comprehensibility' (P6, FG2, rd). This holds true for experts as well. Although no example of verbalisation is available, it was reported in the researcher's diary that P8 from FG3: 'provides an additional example of a participant keeping up with a trend observed by other participants, to link simplicity with comprehensibility' (P8, FG3, rd). This highlights the fact that simplicity may have also been adhered to by FG3 participants, albeit not explicitly.

The need for the child to understand the text seemed to be a priority for a number of participants: 'During a discussion prior to the TAPs phase, P6 from FG1 admitted how anxious she was about

the whole research experience. She told me: “I need to remember, though, that I am doing this for children and young adults. They need to understand what they read, so simple language is a must!” (P6, FG1, rd). Another said, ‘You just need to remember to write as simple as possible, so as for the child to understand and get the message’ (P9, FG3, pq). This reveals that a number of participants insisted on simplicity and linked it to the norms of comprehensibility, didacticism, and usefulness. Indeed, a closer look at the data highlights the reason simplicity is seen as a ‘must’ by participants, and the presence of didacticism is clearly reported in the researcher’s diary: ‘What is important here is that P8 reveals expectations that adults have from literature: to teach children, to provide knowledge, to be didactic, and useful’ (P8, FG3, rd). P8’s post-experiment questionnaire further corroborates this: ‘Translating for children was a really hard task. I had to keep in mind that literature aims to teach children and YA, so the text had to be comprehensible, with a not too difficult structure and vocabulary’ (P8, FG1, pq), and ‘I tried to make it simple as we expect them to learn from literature’ (P8, FG3, pq). The norm of simplicity will be further discussed in Chapter 10, while discussing the main findings of the study. The norm of didacticism will be analysed later on in this section.

- **Comprehensibility**

As outlined in the literature review of this thesis, the norm of comprehensibility or understanding is related to issues of speakability and readability and thus to the translators’ ability to make the best possible choices, so as to provide a simple text in terms of language, style, and plot that is understandable to the child-reader (Shavit, 1986; Martin, 2001; Nodleman, 2008). As seen above, for a number of participants, comprehensibility is closely related to the norm of simplicity: ‘That’s how my rendering should be: particularly simple and comprehensible’ (P6, FG2, p), and ‘They [children] need to understand what they read, so simple language is a must!’ (P6, FG1, rd). This kind of thinking made some participants avoid translation choices that might be difficult for the child-reader to understand: ‘Maybe this ‘decelerate’ is a tough word for the kids’ (P3, FG1, p), ‘I will put full stop and I will go for a second main sentence so the meaning is better rendered’ (P3, FG1, p), and ‘You just need to remember to write as simple as possible, so as for the child to understand and get the message’ (P9, FG3, pq). Comprehensibility therefore, just like simplicity, seems to serve didactic purposes. This is what was revealed through a close analysis of P8’s post-experiment questionnaire, in which, she wrote that, as literature is said to teach children and YA, the TT needed to be comprehensible. Giving an explanation of what she meant by comprehensibility, she clarified that she aimed to create a TT containing a not too difficult structure and vocabulary. Tables 9.1. above and 9.2. (in Appendix IX, p. 390) provide further data referring to this norm. Due to their links, if one were to merge simplicity and

comprehensibility as norms, this would result in the second highest number of verbalisations focused on these norms, highlighting their importance, particularly for FG1 and FG2, who seemed to continuously remind themselves that their TT is aimed at children.

- **Appropriateness/Correctness (language, content, etc.)**

As already highlighted in Chapter 3 (see section 3.2., p. 90), appropriateness came to be the prevalent translation norm governing translators' choices in the process of translating humour for children and YA. Making appropriate choices in language, context, etc., was a norm shared by participants from all the different FGs, as revealed from their protocols (FG1, 6.45%, FG2, 8.06%, and FG3, 4.84%) and the researcher's diary. This norm was clearly revealed in a beginner's post-questionnaire, where he underlined that 'it [the text] had to be appropriate for the target readers' (P8, FG1, pq). Linking back to the literature review, the translator is expected to make appropriate decisions, so that the child (Stolze, 2003) and the children's literary system (Shavit, 1986) can accept the translated work: 'Also the action to put my foot down and insist I don't think is appropriate enough (...) If we say insisted perhaps?' (P7, FG1, p). In the context of appropriateness, participants speak of correctness and correct/proper/right decisions: 'Food that is bad for you?' I think this issue with spiritual is not very correct...' (P4, FG2, p), '...birthday money', this we do not use it in Greek, it's not a particularly correct expression...' (P8, FG2, p) and 'It doesn't sound right... better say unhealthy...' (P5, FG2, p), or 'because it doesn't sound right to me' (P2, FG2, p). Reference to this norm is also reported by the researcher: 'At one point P4 refers to correctness' (P4, FG2, rd), and 'What is or sounds right for the specific target group of children guides P2's decision-making, highlighting the norm of appropriateness/correctness' (P2, FG2, rd).

- **Toning down**

Another norm that could be detected at times in the translation process was a tendency to avoid 'tough' (P3, FG1, p), 'sharp' (P7, FG1, p) and 'heavy' (P8, FG3, p) language. (For some examples, see Table 9.2. in Appendix IX, p. 390). A beginner's post-experiment questionnaire reveals the reason behind this: 'Although TAPs was fun and a unique experience, I spent much thought on toning things down, as the text was for children and young adults' (P7, FG1, pq). The norm of toning down (Petrovits-Androutsopoulou, 1990) was encountered in FG1 and FG3 verbalisations as well as in the researcher's diary and in one participant's post-questionnaire (P7, FG1, pq). The researcher also noted that one participant linked the norm of toning down with the norms of simplicity and comprehensibility. This was reported in her diary as follows: 'Before the

beginning of the TAPs session, she looked at her watch and whispered: “Well, it won’t take that long. I’ll just tone things down and make them clear and simple!” (P5, FG2, rd).

- **Didacticism/Usefulness**

The norm of didacticism, as presented in the literature review of this thesis (see Chapter 2, section 2.1.3., p. 46), belongs to the traditional ‘family of norms’ (emphasis added) in the context of ChL and ChLT and, similarly to simplicity, is seen as a key characteristic of ChL and ChLT. It has conventionally been linked to morality and ethics and has been identified as what is good and useful for the child (Shavit, 1986; Klingberg, 1986; Stolze, 2003)

As seen when analysing the norms of simplicity, comprehensibility, and toning down, ‘we [adults] expect them [children] to learn from literature’ (P8, FG3, pq). Didacticism relates to the expectations of adults about what ChL and ChLT ought to do, or what is moral. This means that, as a translation norm, it has the potential to govern translation decisions. However, in the TAPs, only one obvious verbalisation was made that was related to didacticism, although a participant from FG3 and a participant from FG1 did develop on this theme within their post-questionnaires: ‘Translating for children to my surprise was a really hard task. I had to keep in mind that literature aims to teach children and young adults, so the text had to be comprehensible, not too difficult structure and vocabulary’ (P8, FG1, pq). The presence of the norm of didacticism was also felt by the researcher: ‘P4 underlines the aim of ChL and ChLT to provide knowledge’ (P4, FG2, rd), and ‘P8 acknowledges the aim of ChL and ChLT to educate and teach children’ (P8, FG3, rd). As a traditionally significant norm in ChL, it may seem odd that didacticism did not feature more prominently in the TAPs. This issue will be further discussed in Chapter 10.

- **Same Meaning, Equivalence**

As derives from the literature review in this thesis, equivalence has always been a prevalent norm in TS generally, and in norms typology in the context of ChLT in particular (Fernandez-Lopez in Lathey, 2006; Stolt in Lathey, 2006). It is frequently linked to faithfulness, a norm according to which the translator is expected to be faithful to the original text, the authors’ intentions, etc., by achieving an equivalent translation (Lathey, 2006; Pinsent, 2006). This was the case in this study, with participants from FG2 and FG3 (see Table 9.3. above for the frequency of the norm in each FG in percentages) verbalising equivalence as a norm that governed their decision-making whilst translating humour for children and YA from English into Greek. Although FG1 did not verbalise the norm, one participant did discuss it in her post-questionnaire: ‘difficult to always

achieve equivalence' (P8, FG1, pq). This participant expressed the difficulty of always achieving equivalence, especially when translating a culture-bound concept (CBC), such as humour for a specific audience such as children. From the FG2 and FG3 protocols, it was obvious that searching for equivalence was not a difficult task: 'Nice, interesting. It is equivalently rendered in Greek' (P9, FG3, p) or 'He must have money to burn', there's an equivalent collocation in Greek 'he must have money to throw or to waste', this is better, I guess' (P5, FG2, p). The researcher's diary also made reference to the fact that equivalence was another norm governing participants' decision-making (see Table 9.2., Appendix IX, p. 390).

- **Accuracy**

One particular participant from FG2 explicitly mentioned the norm of accuracy on two occasions. This is also a norm that is highlighted in the literature review in this thesis (e.g., Fernandez-Lopez in Lathey, 2006; Stolt in Lathey, 2006). Quoting a competent translator's protocol: '[This] has to be rendered precisely' (P4, FG2, p), and '... there is a certain rendering that is more familiar and more accurate...' (P4, FG2, p). As with equivalence, accuracy belongs to the 'family of traditional norms' (emphasis added), which as seen in Chapter 3 (see sections 3.1.5., p. 85 and 3.2., p. 90), were often discussed in norm typology in TS in general, and ChLT in particular. Although at first accuracy could seem to be a neglected norm by the remaining twenty-nine (29) participants, it likely does share some features with the norms of equivalence and correctness. Moreover, the fact that participants did not necessarily verbalise it as such, may not mean that they did not bear it in mind when referring to other norms, such as correctness.

- **Authenticity**

Providing an authentic translation equates to attempting to 'mirror the reality' of the original (P8, FG1, rd), i.e. language, structure, impact, etc. (Mallouri, 2006; Gavrielidou, 2010). Highlighted as important by two participants in FG1 and FG2, and in the researcher's diary, authenticity usually relates to reality in terms of what is happening and 'how things are in real life' (P8, FG1, rd): 'He wrote in my exit paper 'glue sniffer', 'glue sniffer' he s n i f f e d glue... he intook, intook... A doctor couldn't write something like that, never, he intook glue' (P8, FG1, p) and 'I guess I won't need to transfer the pounds in Euros, because this is a literary text and I will better render it with pounds... the English reality' (P7, FG2, p). A reference to authenticity will also be made in Chapters 10 and 11.

- **Convenience**

As revealed from the data, an additional norm that the translator can take into account is what is convenient for the child-reader whilst translating ChL and thus ChLT, i.e. the norm of convenience. Quoting from the data: 'As soon as he collects them, I could write gathers, but I want to make it more convenient to the children, so I will stick to collect...' (P3, FG1, p). Convenience seems to be linked to the norms of comprehensibility, understanding, suitability, and familiarity and is extensively elaborated in the literature review of this thesis (Shavit, 1986; Martin, 2001). Providing the child with a text that is adjusted to his levels of understanding, i.e. suitable regarding age and context, with familiar grounds, etc., are all norms that play a crucial role for the acceptability of a text for both sets of target readers, i.e. adults and children (ambivalence/dual readership, see Chapter 2, section 2.1.5.5., p. 62).

- **Familiarity**

Providing a familiar text for the child seems to be another concern for the translator of ChL. The norm of familiarity elicits the strategies of adaptation, domestication, and foreignisation (Klingberg, 1986; Venuti, 1998; Fernandez-Lopez in Lathey, 2006; Stolt in Lathey, 2006, Gavrielidou, 2010), which were explored in the literature review, and which will be further discussed along with the main findings in Chapter 10. A close analysis of the verbalisations reveals that competent and expert translators' decision-making is governed by the norm of familiarity at a percentage of 4.84% each. This is 1.61% more than the percentage of FG1 (3.22%). Some indicative examples from the protocols are the following: '...but then again I talk to kids. So, I want to make it more familiar to them' (P3, FG1, p), and 'in other words, it should be familiar... Personally, I would choose to leave it as pounds...' (P4, FG2, p). Competent and expert translators were not only concerned about children and YA per se, but additionally took into account the cultural aspect: 'I wanted readers to read familiar stuff, just to avoid a possible culture shock' (P9, FG3, pq), and the cultural background/origins of these children, i.e. Greek and Greek-Cypriot children and young adults: 'I should see what it means exactly so as to render it with something familiar to the Greek reader, and have an equivalence that won't bother him...' (P4, FG2, p), and 'To sniff the glue is what I will also put, I don't know how familiar Greeks and Greek-Cypriots are with this, with this reality let's say...' (P8, FG3, p). The presence and power of the norm of familiarity was observed by the researcher, who wrote in the diary: 'Providing a TT that will be familiar to the child is a concern for P3' (P3, FG1, rd), 'Familiarity is revealed to govern P8's decision-making' (P8, FG3, rd), and 'Familiarity was also important for P4 in the context of ChLT' (P4, FG2, rd). The power of the norm in question was also highlighted in the

following extract from the researcher's diary: 'Familiarity is important for P9 so a TT will read smoothly without causing a culture shock to the child-reader' (P9, FG3, rd). A detailed presentation of the triangulated data for the norm of familiarity can be found in Table 9.2., in Appendix IX, p. 390.

In conclusion, what is notable in terms of specific norm frequency in this study is that:

- In FG1: out of the seventeen (17) instances of verbalisations and four (4) participants who verbalised in relation to norms, in instances where at least two (2) participants verbalised norm-related behaviour, this concerned: appropriateness/correctness, simplicity, toning down, and familiarity.
- In FG2: out of the thirty-one (31) instances of norm-related verbalisations and seven (7) participants who verbalised in relation to norms, in instances where at least two (2) participants verbalised norm-related behaviour, this concerned (in decreasing importance by number of participants): appropriateness/correctness, fluency, sound of language, simplicity, same meaning/equivalence.
- In FG3: out of the fourteen (14) instances of norm-related verbalisations and two (2) participants who verbalised in relation to norms, the instances where both participants verbalised norm-related behaviour concerned only: same meaning/equivalence. Nonetheless, it is interesting to note that P8 also verbalised 6 times in relation to: appropriateness/correctness and familiarity.

As a result, it could be tentatively said that participants in FG1 and FG2 share concerns for issues of appropriateness/correctness and simplicity, while in FG2 and FG3 they share concern for issues of same meaning/equivalence. It could also be hypothesised that issues of appropriateness/correctness never really completely disappear, as adults are always concerned about what is or is not appropriate for children and YA (see Chapters 1 and 2). These assumptions, however, are clearly based on very small samples and could not be generalised. These findings are further discussed in Chapter 10.

In what follows, and based on the findings, an attempt to model HT norms in the context of ChL will be made, so as to address the first research question and aim of the present study. It is hoped that this model will contribute to research in the field of ChL, ChLT and humour studies at the national, European and international levels.

9.1.3. Modelling Humour Translation Norms in the Context of Children's Literature Translation

In an attempt to categorise the fourteen (14) specific norms detected, so as to meet the first research question and aim of the study and contribute to the field of ChL and ChLT at a national, European, and international levels, the following model was created (Table 9.6). In the proposed model, which derived from the literature review (see Tables 3.1., Chapter 3, p. 100, and 5.1., Chapter 5, p. 151), each one of the fourteen (14) specific norms from Table 9.1., are listed accordingly and are accompanied by the percentage indicating their frequency based on the data collection and analysis of the study. They seem to be encompassed harmoniously within the existing model of translation norms and to extend it so as to provide a systematic attempt to model HT norms in the context of ChLT.

Table 9.6.
A Systematic Model of Humour Translation Norms in the Context of ChLT

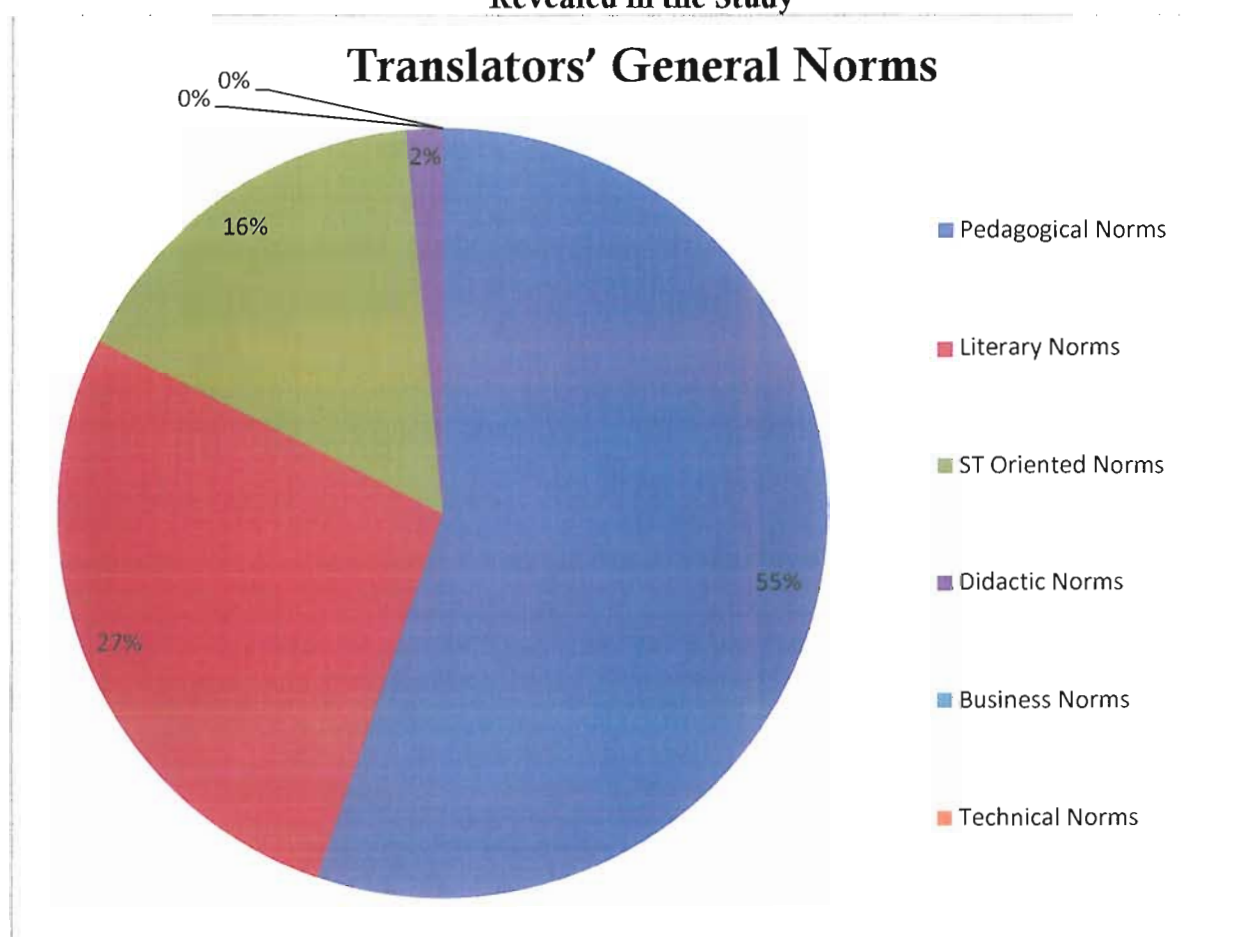
Humour Translation Norms in the Context of Children's Literature Translation					
source text-oriented norms	literary norms	didactic norms	pedagogical norms	business norms	technical norms
norms of fidelity/faithfulness, equivalence [9.68%], accuracy [3.22%], exactness, adherence to the original text, authenticity [3.22%], adequacy, reliability, validity, amusement/entertainment	norms concerning the aesthetic aspect, acceptability, naturalness [4.83%], fluency [8.06%], sound of language [11.28%], coherence [3.22]	norms focused on the moral aspect, (didacticism/ usefulness [1.61%])	norms that concern adjustments of language, readability, speakability, understanding, appropriateness/ correctness [19.35%], convenience [1.61%], familiarity [12.90%], simplicity [8.06%], toning down [6.44%], comprehensibility [6.44%]	norms of a commercial nature, editing, publishing, distribution	norms that refer to design making, illustrations, layouts, etc.

As already noted, this model, which was mainly inspired by Desmidt's (2006) list of ChLT norms in format and content, also included norms proposed by professionals (e.g., Martin, 2001 and Oittinen, 2000), and scholars in the field. It should be underlined that the suggested model incorporates not only the specific norms for ChLT that Desmidt (2006) proposes, but also her general norms, as it is believed that, in the context of this study, these norms offer a wider range of ChLT norms for the professional and academic world. This is the reason the model is conceived as the most systematic model of HT norms in ChLT for the purposes of this study.

If one analyses the model in terms of the frequency of general verbalised norms (see Figure 9.3. below) within the broader categories, it can be argued that translators in this study were predominantly concerned with pedagogical norms (54.5%). Indeed, the three FGs referred to a

number of pedagogical norms and expanded the existing column in the model. This implies that for ChLT, norms relating to appropriateness/correctness, familiarity, simplicity, comprehensibility, toning down, and convenience are key features of the translation process. The literary norms category (27.39%) was also expanded with the inclusion of sound of language, fluency, naturalness, and coherence, and to a lesser extent, ST-oriented norms (11.12%) were also expanded, so as to include the norm of authenticity. For business (0%) and technical norms (0%), no change was applied as they did not appear in the data.

Figure 9.3.
Prevalent Translators' General Norms in the Context of Humour Translation in ChL
Revealed in the Study



The norms that resulted from a triangulation of the data collected for the purposes of this study are products of the issues discussed in Chapter 2, while reviewing relevant literature: Shavit's (1981) suggested principles (see Chapter 2, section 2.1.4.2., p. 51), the status of ChL (see Chapter 1, section 1.1.6., p. 26), the issue of simplicity (see Chapter 1, section 1.1.5., p. 23) and aspects of the missionary role of ChLT (see Chapter 1, sections 1.2.1.3., p. 34 and section 1.2.2.2., p. 40, as well as Chapter 2, section 2.1.3., p. 46). All these are long-standing issues in ChLT and will be discussed Chapter 10.

9.1.4. Final Remarks on Norms in the Context of ChLT

This section presented and analysed translation norms detected during the data analysis phase. In the context of this study, it is believed that although it is not usually possible to read translators' minds as they translate so as to pinpoint their translation norms, in the realm of think-aloud studies and TAPs methodology verbalised norms can be reported. By asking the translators to articulate their translation strategies and reason them so norms can be revealed, and by searching for possible norms in post-experiment questionnaires and in the researcher's diary it was possible to detect the presence of:

- **Specific norms** governing translators' decision-making – at every level of development – **when translating humour in ChL** in particular (Tables 9.1., 9.2. and 9.3., 9.5.a. – 9.5.c., Figures 9.1. and 9.2.). In more detail, **appropriateness, familiarity, sound of language, equivalence, fluency, comprehensibility, toning down, naturalness, coherence, accuracy, authenticity, convenience, and didacticism** were found to be the specific norms governing translators' strategies and approaches in the process of translating humour in ChL in particular.
- **Specific norms** governing translators' decision-making – at every level of development – **when translating ChL** in general (Tables 9.1., 9.2., 9.5., 9.5.a. – 9.5.c., Figures 9.1. and 9.2.). In more specific terms, **appropriateness, familiarity, sound of language, equivalence, fluency, comprehensibility, toning down, naturalness, coherence, accuracy, authenticity, convenience, and didacticism** were found to be the specific norms governing translators' strategies and approaches in the process of translating ChL in general.
- **General and specific prevalent ChLT norms** governing translators' decision-making **in the process of HT** in particular (Tables 9.3., 9.4., 9.6., Figures 9.1. and 9.2.). To be more specific **pedagogical norms (i.e. appropriateness/correctness, familiarity, simplicity, comprehensibility, and toning down), literary norms (e.g., sound of language and fluency), and source-text norms (e.g., equivalence)** were revealed to be the most prominent general and specific norms governing the translators' strategies and approaches in the process of translating humour in particular.
- **General and specific prevalent ChLT norms** governing translators' decision-making **in the process of ChLT** in general (Tables 9.3., 9.4., 9.6. and Figures 9.1. and 9.2.). In more specific terms, **pedagogical norms (i.e. appropriateness/correctness, familiarity,**

simplicity, comprehensibility, and toning down), literary norms (e.g., sound of language and fluency), and source-text norms (e.g., equivalence) were revealed to be the most prominent general and specific norms governing the translators' strategies and approaches in the process of translating literature for children and YA in general.

Also, according to the theoretical perspective of this study, these norms are of a prescriptive nature in that they can regulate the translators' strategies and practices employed. Detecting strategies that translators at three levels of competence employ when translating humour in ChL is the second research question of this study and is tackled in the next section.

9.2. Translators' Strategies for Translating Humour in Children's Literature from English into Greek

The second research question of this study, which is related to the second aim, entailed detecting the strategies participants (at the three levels of expertise) employ when translating humour in ChL. From the strategy classifications presented in Chapter 4 (see section 4.1.3., p. 108) a model of process-oriented translation strategies was formed for the purposes of this study (Table 5.3., Chapter 5, p. 156). This model was inspired by Séguinot's model (2000) (see Table 4.1., Chapter 4, p. 114) and strategies derived from the literature review (see Table 5.2., Chapter 5, p. 155). The process-oriented strategies model conceived enabled the researcher to analyse the data by organising the latter in accordance with the categories of the model.

In what follows, general and specific HT strategies that translators at the three levels of competence are found to employ when translating humourous extracts from *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾* are presented. Along with the process-oriented translation strategies, the participants' reactions towards them are discussed, accompanied by illustrative examples from the TAPs (p), post-questionnaires (pq), and the researcher's diary (rd), to demonstrate main statements.

9.2.1. Listing Process-Oriented Humour Translation Strategies in the Context of ChLT

The model in Table 9.7. below, indicates the general strategy that each FG employed, whereas the specific strategies that were found to be employed in the course of translating the humourous ChL texts are in bold.

Table 9.7.
A List of Process-Oriented Humour Translation Strategies in the Context of ChLT
Revealed in the Study

STRATEGIES	FIRST FOCUS GROUP	SECOND FOCUS GROUP	THIRD FOCUS GROUP
Communication Alterations, Modifications, Changes (additions, omissions, shifts , reductions, enlargements , substitution, replacement) Reproducing Adaptation /Cultural Context Adaptation Domestication vs. Foreignisation (Alienation/ Exoticism) Literal translation Free translation Sentimentalisation & Prettification Modernisation Purification	•	•	•
Search dictionary internet glossary client etc.	•	•	•
Monitoring Observing and Examining their Work	•	•	•

From what was illustrated in Table 9.7, FG1, FG2, and FG3 participants would employ communication, search, and monitoring strategies to a certain degree in trying to communicate messages effectively from the ST to the TT. In terms of search strategies, a small number of participants would either use the dictionary or the internet, search for glossaries, and even ask the client (in this case the researcher). Lastly, a number of FG1, FG2, and FG3 participants would spend time monitoring and evaluating their choices.

The frequency of general and specific process-oriented translation strategies can be seen in Table 9.8., below. It should be noted that, due to the relatively low number of verbalisations, this is not a statistically meaningful sample, but it serves to illustrate the presence of strategies in this context-bound experiment.

Table 9.8.
Frequency of Process-Oriented Translation Strategies in Translating Humour in ChL

	FG1		FG2		FG3		Total numbers of verbalisations	
	P		P		P			
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Strategies								
Communication								
1. Additions (single words vs. explanatory translation, within text vs. footnotes)	1	2.63 ⁴⁸	5	13.16	1	2.63	7	18.42
2. Enlargements	1	2.63	1	2.63	0	0	2	5.26
3. Omissions	1	2.63	2	5.26	1	2.63	4	10.52
4. Shifts (grammatical level, syntactical lever, etc.)	0	0	0	0	3	7.89	3	7.89
5. Adaptation	1	2.63	0	0	0	0	1	2.63
6. Exoticism (foreignising)	0	0	3	7.89	1	2.63	4	10.52
Search								
1. Dictionary	0	0	1	2.63	1	2.63	2	5.26
2. Internet	0	0	1	2.63	1	2.63	2	5.26
3. Glossary	1	2.63	0	0	0	0	1	2.63
4. Client	0	0	1	2.63	0	0	1	2.63
Monitoring	4	10.52	4	10.52	3	7.89	11	28.95
Total numbers of verbalisations	9	23.68	18	47.37	11	28.95	38	100 ⁴⁹

For participants (P), communication strategies were the most often employed in this study. Communicating the ST message for the target readers effectively was a major concern especially for competent translators, as six of them made comments in relation to communication strategies (see Table 9.10.a. in Appendix X, p. 397). For communication to be achieved, several specific strategies were found to apply.

Additions, omissions, and exoticism were the most frequently mentioned communication strategies amongst the TAPs, with competent translators employing the highest percentage and beginners the lowest. In terms of communication strategies, two participants in FG1 and three participants in FG3 made relevant verbalisations. With regards to searching, one participant in FG1 discussed the glossary, three participants in FG2 referred to the dictionary, the internet, and the client, and one participant in FG3 made reference to these search tools as well. More competent translators undertook searching than did professionals and beginners. In terms of monitoring, FG1 and FG2 produced more verbalisations in this respect than FG3. However, it is

⁴⁸ These individual percentages are derived from the total number of verbalisations and not from the total for that particular category.

⁴⁹ As all of the numbers were rounded up to the hundredth place, this does not equal exactly one hundred percent (100%), but to ninety-nine point ninety-seven (99.97%). Rounding up was applied for illustrative purposes.

interesting to note that with four participants making relevant verbalisations in FG2, awareness and use of the monitoring strategy was higher within this FG.

In reordering the list of strategies in terms of their frequency, as revealed in this study, the following Figure (9.4.) and Table (9.9.) illustrate the strategies:

Figure 9.4.
Prevalent Translators' General Humour Translation Strategies in ChLT
Revealed in the Study

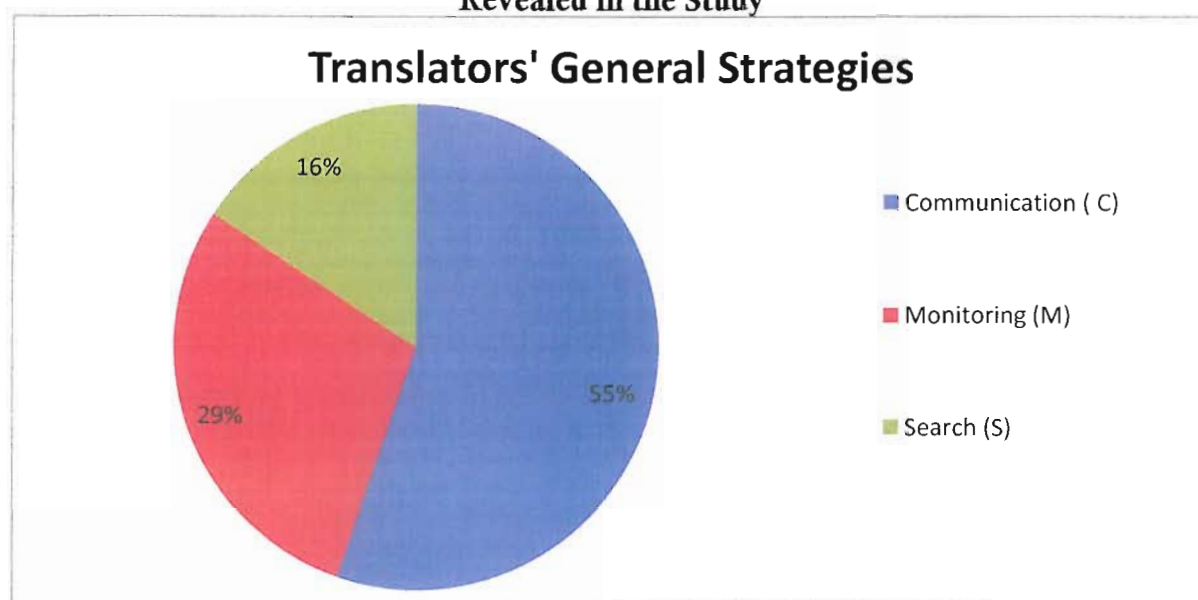


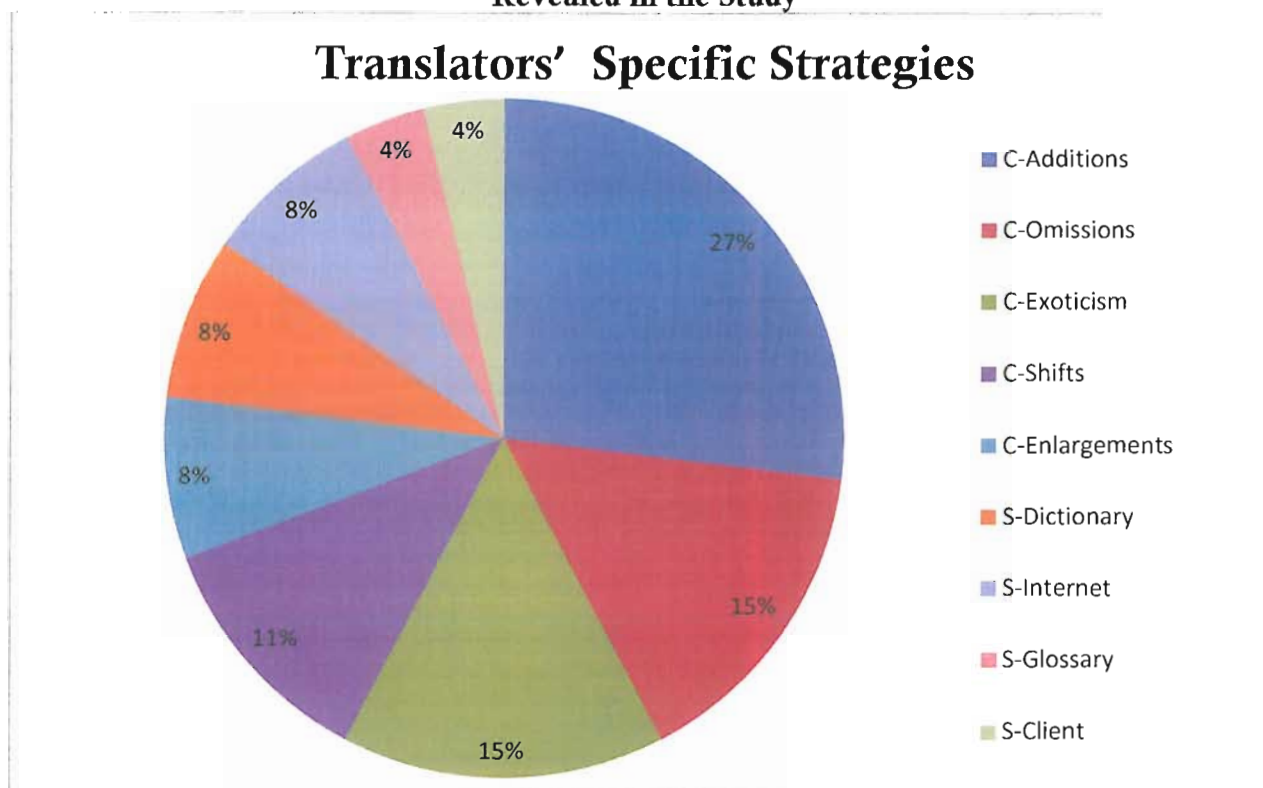
Figure 9.4. above illustrates the general process-oriented translation strategies that participants of the study employed while translating humour in *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾* from English into Greek. The following Table (Table 9.9.) presents the specific process-oriented translation strategies that the participants of this study used, starting with the most prevalent ones.

Table 9.9.
Prevalent Specific Process-Oriented Humour Translation Strategies
in the Context of ChL Revealed in the Study

Strategies	%
1. M-Monitoring	28.95
2. C-Additions	18.42
3. C-Exoticism	10.52
4. C-Omissions	10.52
5. C-Shifts	7.89
6. S-Dictionary	5.26
7. C-Enlargement	5.26
8. S-Internet	5.26
9. C-Adaptation	2.63
10. S-Client	2.63
11. S-Glossary	2.62

In Figure 9.4. below, the frequency of specific HT process-oriented translation strategies is presented, and the prevalent ones as revealed in this study are illustrated:

Figure 9.5.
Prevalent Translators' Specific Humour Translation Strategies in ChLT
Revealed in the Study



In what follows, the process-oriented translation strategies along with representative examples from the data will be presented. All thirty-eight (38) instances of process-oriented translation strategies as detected in the triangulated data can be found in Tables 9.10.a, 9.10.b, 9.10.b.i. and 9.10.c. (see Appendix X, p. 397). Individual participants' choices in the course of the study are illustrated in Tables 9.11.a., 9.11.b. and 9.11.c. (see Appendix XIII, p. 418).

9.2.2. Presenting and Analysing Translators' Process-Oriented Translation Strategies with Representative Examples from Data

As already mentioned, in Séguinot's (2000) terms, strategies detected are categorised into both general strategies, i.e. communication, search, and monitoring, and specific ones subsumed under the communication and search categories. Both types of strategies are presented below and are accompanied with representative examples from the triangulated data: protocols (p), post-experiment questionnaires (pq), and the researcher's diary (rd).

- **Communication as a Process-oriented Humour Translation Strategy Detected in the Context of ChLT**

A close analysis of the verbalisations highlights that communication strategies are explicitly employed by the translator, in order to better communicate the message and to provide a communicative translation (Séguinot, 2000). In this the general communication strategy is explicitly employed by FG2 participants 11 times (28.95%). This is 13.41% more than FG1 participants (amongst which it is employed on 4 occasions) and 13.15% more than FG3 participants (amongst which it is employed 6 times). From the thirty-eight (38) verbalisation instances regarding participants' strategies, twenty-three (23) instances involve the communication strategy. This use of this strategy makes up more than half of the verbalisations for the three strategies put together. The communication strategy involves specific strategies, such as additions, enlargements, omissions, shifts, adaptation, and exoticism. These are presented separately below.

- **Additions**

According to Séguinot (2000), this specific strategy involves anything from adding single words to employing explanatory translation within text and footnotes. A close analysis of the verbalisations reveals that 13.16% of the verbalisation in FG2's protocols referred to additions, so as to communicate the message better, i.e. three participants made explicit use of it. Some chose single word additions, such as in the following examples where FG2 participants P6 and P7 add the word 'supermarket' while translating 'Sainsbury's': 'and I could possibly put a note that this is a supermarket' (P6, FG2, p) and '...so I have ...to write that it is a supermarket (...) I will write that we went to the supermarket Sainsbury's, because Greeks might not know this [...] This is what I will write to the Greek audience when I translate into Greek' (P7, FG2, p). The tendency for single word additions was observed by the researcher too, as a diary entry highlights the case of P7: 'P7 went for word addition for comprehensibility purposes mainly' (P7, FG2, rd).

In certain cases, participants felt that adding word was not enough with regards to children's comprehensibility. Thus, they opted for explanatory translation within the text, and explanatory translation out of the text. The following example from P8 is indicative of the use of a parenthesis and a footnote respectively: 'It is better, though, if it is shown in a parenthesis as well... He forced me to write on the back place (...) 'IOU', meaning I Owe You, I will write in the parenthesis (I Owe You) and perhaps on a footnote on the back of the page a translator's note that 'IOU= I owe you' (P8, FG2, p). This is also noted as a critical episode in the researcher's diary: 'Adding a

‘within text explanatory translation’ (parenthesis) was a strategy P8 went for. She also applied an ‘out of text translation’, inserting a footnote on the same issue’ (P8, FG2, rd). For a number of participants, footnotes were thought to be more effective for communicating the message to children and YA. This might be viewed as a sign of a lack of experience of translating this text-type, as based on what was seen in the literature review, it is odd to add footnotes in a child’s book (Xeni, 2000). Footnotes involved either a single word: ‘and I could possibly put a note [to say] that this is a supermarket’ (P6, FG2, p), or more: ‘I would possibly transfer this into Euros because ... or maybe not, I wouldn’t, I would leave it as pence, just like in fairy tales I read when I was a kid, there is no reason to change the currency, I can simply write a footnote that it is the currency of England’ (P6, FG2, p). Only one participant in FG1 and one participant in FG3 explicitly mentioned additions. A detailed list of examples of the triangulated data can be found in Appendix X (p. 390).

- **Enlargements**

Enlargements, i.e. attempts to make longer sentences by combining ST sentences, were found to be limited in the TAPs experiments and were only observed in the TAP of one participant in FG1 and one participant in FG2. This is possibly a result of simplicity, because as seen in the literature review (Chapter 1, section 1.1.5., p. 23), it is rare that ChL contains long sentences (Nodelman, 1996; Oittinen, 2000; Cámara-Aguilera, 2008; etc.). The following examples from the data are indicative of this specific strategy: ‘I chose to combine two sentences... for the text to sound more Greek’ (P1, FG1, p), and ‘I don’t think it is something that is said in Greek, so I will combine the two sentences...’ (P3, FG2, p). As revealed in both examples, this strategy was applied so as to serve a norm already seen in this thesis, the norm of the sound of language (see section 9.1.2. above, p. 271). As opposed to English, Greek writing style is sometimes more elaborated and these participants seemingly aimed to replicate this.

- **Omissions**

Similarly to enlargements, limited activity was observed in terms of omitting words and phrases. As revealed in participants’ verbalisations, omission was a strategy that only one FG1 participant employed. Two participants in FG2 and one participant in FG3 also employed this strategy. When reasoning their omissions, participants referred to communicative reasons and to norms already discussed in this thesis, such as the sound of language or fluency: ‘I think I will delete this ‘I had to put my foot down’ and only keep ‘insist’, because in this way the translation will flow better, it will be heard better as a target text... (P2, FG2, p), ‘Since it has ‘Sainsbury’s ‘I will not

leave it 'Sainsbury's' because in Greece and Cyprus it is possible that nobody knows Sainsbury's... So I think I will simply put it 'supermarket'...' (P8, FG3, p). This specific strategy was picked up by the researcher, who wrote in her diary: 'P8 omitted the name of the supermarket to better cater to the child-readers' needs' (P8, FG3, rd). The use of omissions, therefore, seemed clearly linked to specific dominating norms.

- **Shifts**

Speaking of shifts, in the model devised for the purposes of this study (see Table 3.2., Chapter 3, p. 114), shifts refer to the grammatical or syntactical level (Séguinot, 2000). Both types of shifts were observed in one of the professional's verbalisations: 'Me and my father, or better say, my father and I, in Greek we usually put 'me' first, meaning the first person' (P7, FG3, p), and "I nearly finished it', I have almost finished it when, I said that with 'experimental' I will make a verb out of it and I will make it 'to experiment or to try'" (P7, FG3, p). What is interesting to note, is that shifts were only encountered in FG3's data, indicating the experts' commitment to a communicative TT and to achieving the best possible translation, contrary to non-experts who, as seen in the literature review of the thesis (see Chapter 6), were seen to "problematise relatively little" (Jääskeläinen, 1996, p. 67) and avoided cognitive load (Künzli, 2003).

- **Adaptation**

As seen in the literature review of this thesis, adaptation (see Chapter 4, 4.1.4.2., p. 118) is a strategy that is frequently employed by translators in the context of ChL (Shavit, 1981; Klingberg, 1986; Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998; Economidou, 2000; etc.). As Thomson-Wolgemuth (2009) asserts, adaptation comes into play in ChL and ChLT, so as to bring the child-reader and the text closer. Although a recurrent specific strategy in ChLT, in the course of this study it was not employed often, as it was only observed in one participant's verbalisations and involved an adjustment of register, as the following example shows: 'The next sentence has something very informal, so I might have to adjust it, since I was told it is supposed to be read by children and young adults' (P3, FG1, p). A close analysis of the data revealed that adaptation was the least verbalised strategy of all. This may seem odd, but it could be the result of automation. This issue is further discussed in Chapter 10 while discussing the main findings of the study.

- **Exoticism**

The element of the exotic is associated with ChL and ChLT (Klingberg, 1978; Xeni, 2000; Nord, 2003; Malarte, 2007; etc.). As seen in the literature review, most times exotification (i.e. the term

used by Séguinot (2000) in her model), or exoticism (the term used for the purposes of this study) is seen as beneficial for children (Cámara Aguilera, 2008; Painter in Lathey, 2006; Sas, 2010). A close analysis of the data of this study reveals that the element of the exotic was mentioned by one participant in FG2 and one participant in FG3. From the following examples, it can be argued that participants chose to keep the exotic or 'strange' (P4, FG2, p) element, either because it is beneficial for the child-reader to learn to adjust: 'In other words, when he reads a book from a foreign country, he finds himself in a situation where he has to adjust to this fact' (P4, FG2, p), or because, in the context of humour in ChL, it will make the child reader laugh: 'So it's something that should at least cause humour, so we can use something that sounds strange in Greek as well... Perhaps glue intakes, something that will cause foreignness the same way, to have the same impact...' (P4, FG2, p).

Exoticism seems to be a problematic issue for participants, e.g., 'I was preoccupied with the translation issues I encountered (i.e. translating for children, foreignising, etc.) and tried to verbalise my thoughts. I hope I did well' (P4, FG2, pq). To keep or not to keep the exotic element, led two participants to employ domestication or foreignisation, one from FG2 and one from FG3. Although domestication, i.e. removing foreign and exotic elements, was seen by some scholars as a negative process in the course of ChLT (e.g., Shavit, 1981; Klingberg, 1986), for P8 in FG3 it was seen at first as an option: 'So he owes me 80 pounds, this should be translated into Euros for Cyprus if it is a book that will be published and if it is something that will end up in kid's hands. Of course, if the spirit of the book is reality and the English culture, it wouldn't be a bad idea to leave pounds... 80 pounds and 38 cents could mean, could mean, thirty-eight and a half? I guess and thirty eight and a half cents' (P8, FG3, p). P8's first option, to employ domestication was quickly abandoned, as the participant decided to support foreignisation, and thus exoticism, for the sake of authenticity and reality: 'At first P8 attempted to go for domestication for communication and comprehensibility purposes, but then she decided to foreignise and stick to the exotic element, i.e. English pounds' (P8, FG3, rd).

The tendency by a couple of competent and expert translators not to domesticate seems to contrast with the findings of Epstein's study (2010), based on which translators for children manipulate texts, leading the target audience to have a different reading experience than the source audience. This issue is linked to the need to promote different cultures as part of didactic/pedagogical issues, and it will be further discussed in the next chapter (Chapter 10).

- **Search as a Process-Oriented Humour Translation Strategy Detected in the**

Context of ChLT

Interestingly, five participants in the present study searched for supporting material. Three of them were in FG2, and that FG presented the highest search strategy frequency in their verbalisations. When the strategy was employed, this was immediately after encountering a problematic issue or it was left for later and undertaken with the use of supporting materials of the participants' choice. As seen in the literature review, the term 'supporting material' in the realm of translation practice commonly entails the use of dictionaries and glossaries, assistance or advice from the client and, of course, the use of the internet and technologies in general (Séguinot, 2000). Interaction with technology is essential in translation practice, and, as highlighted earlier in this study (Chapter 6), translators are supposed to be able to use the material effectively.

The data analysis of this study indicated that FG1 participants did not bring supporting materials with them to the TAPs session, whereas participants from the other two groups (FG2 and FG3) had brought dictionaries and glossaries with them. They tended to use them when they encountered a problem (e.g., an unknown word or phrase): 'I guess it means his credit card, but this should be checked also...' (P4, FG2, p), and whenever they needed to check their options and find the best possible solution: 'So I will search the dictionary now, and make sure that I put the right word...' (P2, FG2, p - electronic dictionary), 'Searching for a solution, P8 turns to Oxford Dictionary' (P8, FG3, rd). These findings are in line with Jääskeläinen's (1996) observations and the results of two unpublished dissertations (Gerloff, 1988 and Jääskeläinen, 1990). According to these studies, professional and semi-professional translators, who produce good quality translations, consult dictionaries more often and in more sophisticated ways than novice translators. As a result, novice translators translate quickly and effortlessly, and perhaps wrongly, depending on the difficulty of the task. Due its importance in translation research, practice, and pedagogy, this issue will be tackled in Chapter 10, while discussing the main findings of the study.

What is interesting, however, is that participants often acknowledge the role of searching and of supporting material in the process of translation (please refer to Table 9.10.b.i. in Appendix X for an overview of relevant data). For example, as pointed out by the researcher in the critical episodes she reported in her diary, a small number of beginners and competent translators acknowledged the importance of searching for what they did not know, or what they were unsure about, e.g. 'I think this should be checked' (P4, FG2, p), and 'First of all what is 'IOU' and then what is 'till roll'. Some research is needed' (P5, FG2, p). They also regretted not having brought

supporting material to the session. The following examples from the verbalisations and post-experiment questionnaire are indicative of the latter: ‘I am so unfamiliar with these terms, I should have searched for this too. If only I had a dictionary’ (P7, FG1, p), and ‘It was sad I did not bring any supporting material (P7, FG1, pq). This issue will be further discussed in Chapter 10, and relevant implications will be tackled in Chapter 11.

- **Monitoring as a Process-oriented Humour Translation Strategy Detected in the Context of ChLT**

The last translation strategy, according to the proposed model of process-oriented translation strategies for the translation of humour in ChL, is ‘monitoring’, which makes up (eleven) 11 of the (thirty-eight) 38 verbalisation instances, or close to 30%. This general strategy entails participants observing and examining their work (Séguinot, 2000). As shown in Table 9.10.c. in Appendix X, a number of participants spent time commenting on their work, e.g. “I had to put my foot down’, ‘I had to hit my hand on the table, maybe I can find a better alternative... a solution or phrase for ‘I had to put my foot down’” (P4, FG2, p). What is more, in certain cases they attempted to evaluate their work by commenting on the actual quality of solutions provided, e.g.,: ‘today I cleaned the house with my father’ it’s the best of all (...)’ (P3, FG1, p), and ‘That keeps me alive, It’s a little extravagant, however’ (P6, FG2, p). Monitoring can be considered a high-level strategy in the sense that it involves the translator having a certain amount of self-awareness. As a result, it is interesting and perhaps revealing that competent translators (i.e. in the process of being trained) seem to be particularly in tune with this strategy. In fact, four of them mentioned monitoring (as opposed to two in FG1 and two in FG2). Being in the process of learning expert behaviours and becoming professional translators themselves may render the participants in FG2 to be more self-aware than the other two FGs. A closer look at what monitoring entails in this context will be discussed in the next chapter.

To conclude, what is notable in terms of strategies and frequency of use is that:

- In FG1: out of the nine (9) instances of strategy-related verbalisations and three (3) participants who verbalised in relation to strategies, in the instance where at least 2 (two) participants verbalised strategies-based behaviour, this concerned **monitoring**.
- In FG2: out of the eighteen (18) instances of strategy-related verbalisations and eight (8) participants who verbalised in relation to strategies, in the instance where at least two (2)

participants verbalised strategies-based behaviour, this concerned **monitoring** as a general strategy, and **additions** and **omissions** as specific **communication** strategies.

- In FG3: out of the eleven (11) instances of strategy-related verbalisations and three (3) participants who verbalised in relation to strategies, in the instance where at least two (2) participants verbalised strategies-based behaviour, this also concerned **monitoring**.

As a result, it could be tentatively said that translators at all levels of development employ monitoring while translating humour in ChL from English into Greek. It could also be hypothesised that, when translating ChL, in their attempt to provide an appropriate text for children and YA that would enable them as readers to be familiar with the plot, context, and language, translators make additions and omissions. However, here again, these assumptions are based on very small samples and, thus, cannot be generalised.

Based on these findings, an attempt to model process-oriented HT strategies of ChLT will be made in the next section, thus addressing the second research question and aim of this study. It is hoped that this model will contribute to the research in the field of ChL, ChLT and humour studies at the local, national, and international levels.

9.2.3. Modelling Translators' Process-Oriented Humour Translation Strategies in the Context of Children's Literature Translation

The presentation and analysis of the data of this study can be seen in the following model of process-oriented translation strategies in translating humour in the context of ChL:

Table 9.12.
A Systematic Model of Process-Oriented Humour Translation Strategies in the Context of ChLT

Communication [55.24%]	Search [15.8%]	Monitoring [28.95%]
Alterations, modifications, changes (additions [18.42%], omissions [10.52%], shifts [7.89%], reductions, enlargements [5.26%], substitution, replacement) Reproducing Adaptation [2.63%]/Cultural Context Adaptation Domestication vs. Foreignisation (Alienation/ Exotication [10.52%]) Literal translation Free translation Sentimentalisation & Prettification Modernisation Purification	Dictionary [5.26%] Internet [5.26%] Glossary [2.63%] Client [2.63%] etc.	Observing and examining their work

As already highlighted in the literature review (Chapter 4), this model of process-oriented translation strategies for translating humour in ChL was inspired by Séguinot's (cf. 2000) model of process-oriented translation strategies (see Figure 4.1., p. 127), and encompasses ChLT strategies and HT strategies as revealed in the literature review in the context of this study. It is a systematic model that consists not only of general process-oriented translation strategies, but also specific, so this model served as the basis for the analysis of the data collected from the participants' protocol transcriptions, the pre- and post-experiment questionnaires, and the researcher's diary.

As Table 9.12. illustrates, all three sets of general strategies were detected in the course of this study, as translators at all levels of development employed communication strategies, search, and monitoring. The participants also employed specific strategies, so as to better communicate the ST message. If one analyses the model in terms of the frequency of verbalised strategies within the broader categories, it can be argued that the translators in this study were predominantly concerned with communication strategies, and more specifically additions, omissions, and exoticism. This implies that in the process of HT for children and YA, translators are concerned with providing a TT that will communicate well any message to the child or YA reader. Thus, they either avoid what might lead to miscommunications, or make additions in order to avoid communication barriers.

These process-oriented translation strategies that resulted from a triangulation of data, and the main findings of this study, presented and analysed in this chapter, will be discussed in Chapter 10.

9.2.4. Final Remarks on Strategies in the Context of ChLT

This section presented and analysed the process-oriented HT strategies that translators employed in the context of ChLT, thus addressing the second research question of the study and meeting its first aim. In the context of this study, it was possible to detect the presence of:

- **General process-oriented translation strategies** that translators (at every level of development) employ **when translating humour in ChL** in particular (Tables 9.8, 9.10.a. – 9.10.c., 9.11.a. – 9.11.c. and 9.12. and Figure 9.4.). To be more specific, translators employ **communication, monitoring and search strategies** as they translate humour in ChL in particular.

- **Specific process-oriented translation strategies** that translators (at every level of development) employ **when translating humour in ChL** in particular (Tables 9.8, 9.10.a. – 9.10.c., 9.11.a. – 9.11.c. and 9.12. and Figure 9.5.). In more specific terms, translators mainly employ **additions, omissions, and exoticism** in the process of translating humour in ChL in particular.
- **General process-oriented translation strategies** that translators (at every level of development) employ **when translating ChL** in general (Tables 9.8, 9.10.a. – 9.10.c., 9.11.a. – 9.11.c. and 9.12. and Figure 9.4.). To be more specific, translators employ **communication, monitoring, and search strategies** in the process of ChLT.
- **Specific process-oriented translation strategies** that translators (at every level of development) employ **when translating ChL** in general (Tables 9.8, 9.10.a. – 9.10.c., 9.11.a. – 9.11.c. and 9.12. and Figure 9.5.). In more specific terms, translators mainly employ **additions, omissions, and exoticism** in the process of ChLT.

The main findings of the study will be discussed in Chapter 10 and the implications in Chapter 11.

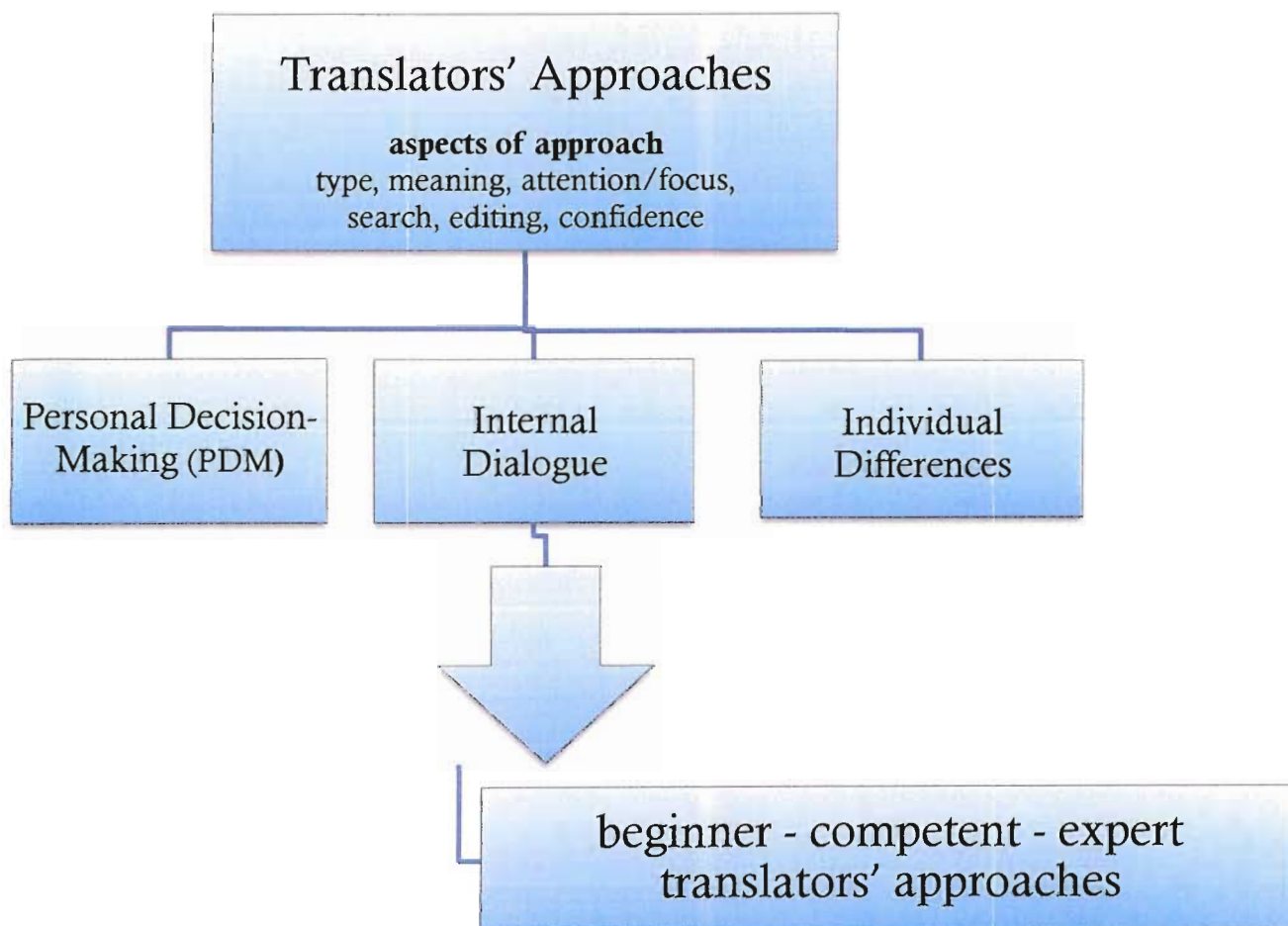
9.3. Translators' Approaches for Translating Humour in Children's Literature from English into Greek

In this section, the third research question of the study is presented and analysed, i.e. to detect approaches presented by each FG while translating the humorous extracts from English into Greek. In addressing this research question which is related to the third aim of the study, data analysis is based on the researcher's diary (Appendix VII, p. 388), the participants' protocols (Appendix VI, p. 383), and participants' post-experiment questionnaires (Appendix II, p. 378). All provide useful insights into the translation approaches of the participants, both in groups and individually. As already mentioned, with the use of three data collection tools, the data could be triangulated enhancing in this way the study's epistemological validity. It should be noted that the approaches of individual participants were not taken into consideration for the purposes of analysis. In contrast, there was an attempt to group collected data for analysis (this chapter) and discussion (Chapter 10).

In the following lines, aspects of the participants' translation approach will be discussed on the basis of Table 6.1. (see Chapter 6, section 6.1.3.2.3., p. 182) of this thesis. Referring back to Chapter 6, this table was created after reviewing literature in an attempt to systematise experts and non-experts' translation approach in the context of the gap phenomenon in translation expertise. Without the aspect of time, which was not taken into account in this study, other aspects of expert, competent, and beginner translators' approaches to be discussed are the following: type of approach, meaning, focus, search, editing, and confidence. An attempt will also be made to expand Table 6.1. (p. 182) with the competent translators' approach, as this is a new level of competence examined in this study.

Following a thorough study of the literature review in the field of expertise performance and the gap phenomenon, the data analysis will be developed according to Figure 9.6. below:

Figure 9.6.
Forming the Data Analysis of Translators' Approaches



9.3.1. Aspects of Translators' Approaches

Taking into account the aspects of translators' approaches as indicated in Figure 9.6., data will be analysed (this chapter) and discussed (next chapter) according to the type of approach, attempts by participants to construct meaning, their focus while translating, their searching – already discussed as a strategy in section 9.2. – and editing attempts, as well as their confidence while undertaking the given task. Data concerning three further parameters considered important will also be analysed: Personal Decision-Making (PDM), Internal Dialogue, and Individual Differences. This will enable a discussion of additional information on what constitutes expert, competent, and beginner translators' approaches, thus addressing the third research question and first aim of the present study. This knowledge will contribute to expertise research, focusing on realities of translation performance, decision-making, and problem-solving.

9.3.1.1. Type of Approach

- **Top-Down, Holistic Approach and Bottom-Up Approach**

The most common translation approach is the top-down approach (AT-D), where the participant after a first reading of the ST, immediately attempts to translate it. As seen earlier in this thesis, the top-down approach (AT-D) has the characteristics of the holistic approach (AH), where the participant firstly reads the whole of the ST and then starts translating it. As shown below (Table 9.13.), participants of all FGs generally start translating soon after reading – and hopefully understanding – the whole of the ST or a large part of it.

Table 9.13.
Top-Down, Holistic Approach

FG1	FG2	FG3
<p><u>To begin with I read the text once carefully...</u> I underline the sentences that give us a hard time... I read the text twice... trying to understand it better... I start to translate the first text... (P1, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>From her thinking-aloud it was obvious P1 used an AT-D.</u> (P1, FG1, rd)</p> <p><u>First of all I will read the text so as to understand what it is about...</u> As I read the text I underline some words I don't know and as a next step I watch out for their translation... (...). Then I begin to translate... (...) (P3, FG1, p)</p>	<p><u>Normally I read 2-3 lines because that's what I always do.</u> (P2, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>Having read the text twice I will try to make a preplan of the translation...</u> (P3, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>I begin reading the full paragraph once... mainly so as to get the feeling of the text, how hard, complicated its language is, etc.</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>It would help me to know all... the whole story of the book,</u> so as to justify the nature of the feelings of this boy... (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>P4 feels it is more convenient to follow an AH, AT-D approach.</u> (P4, FG2, rd)</p>	<p><u>I have just gone through the text...</u> (P8, FG3, P)</p> <p>As soon as the TAPs session started, P8 went for an AT-D approach. (P8, FG3, rd)</p>

As opposed to the top-down approach (AT-D), the bottom-up approach (AB-U), i.e. the tendency of participants to work in a non-holistic way when translating a given text, is the preferred approach adopted by participants – especially novice – in case of a problematic issue. In this case, as shown in Table 9.14., the participants change their strategy from working on a unit-level to working on text-level, either for evaluation purposes or to clarify the meaning.

Table 9.14.
Examples of Bottom-Up Approach

FG1	FG2	FG3
So, <u>I have to read it all over again</u> , so as to understand the meaning of the paragraph... (P3, FG1, p)		OK, <u>I read it all from the beginning</u> and I got back to the difficult point... P8, GF3, p)

As previously suggested, the participants adopt a bottom-up approach when facing problems. It is frequently observed that most of them start by using a top-down or holistic approach, but revert to a bottom-up approach as soon as they encounter the first major problem in translation. This approach is seen as trivial, as it illustrates a frequent context in translators' approaches (Smith, 2004, 2007).

- **Leaving Problematic Issues for Later**

In terms of risk-taking, it can be said that even though a small number of participants provided a solution the first time they came across a problematic translation before proceeding to the next sentence, the majority of the participants in FG1 and FG2 showed a tendency to leave problematic issues aside in order to return to these at a later stage, thus following a bottom-up approach: 'I will write it and I shall see' (P4, FG1, p), 'I wonder how to write this. (...) I will leave it for later' (P7, FG1, p), 'I intend to fix it later...' (P7, FG1, p), and 'I will leave it to come naturally to me as I re-read them later on' (P4, FG2, p), 'I will look at it again later' (P5, FG2, p), 'For you', for whom? Bad, for whom, I don't know, I will see that later' (P6, FG2, p).

The examples in Table 9.15. (see Appendix XI, p. 403) indicate that this 'tendency to leave problematic issues for later' (P7, G1, rd) is frequent in beginners and competent translators but not in experts. As seen in the literature review, experts do not seem to avoid risk-taking nor cognitive load, and they are more decisive in terms of problem-solving and decision-making (Jääskeläinen, 1995; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007; etc.).

Returning to problematic elements at a later stage is an approach much encountered in think-aloud studies, where there are set time constraints. As time was not a variable tested in this study, the participants' tendency to rush to finish their translation and return to difficult issues later was either out of habit: 'This 'and given' I leave a gap now and I will do it then anyway' (P7, FG1, p); or anxiety: 'I was embarrassed, actually he was embarrassed because the others stared at him and he was heard with that. So, I was embarrassed, they were hearing it, they were hearing me, I was embarrassed for that sound, I was embarrassed that the others were hearing that ... I will look at it again later' (P5, FG2, p); and 'My father chose food that it is bad for you...' My father chose food, better say food stuff, that is 'bad for you' is bad for you? 'For you', for whom? Bad, for whom, I don't know, I will see that later' (P6, FG2, p). In other cases, the tendency to leave things for later was due to desire to 'get it right': 'It squeak', this 'squeak' is something I will possibly need to think later. There might be another verb describing 'squeak' better' (P8, FG3, p).

- **Returning to Difficulties Encountered while Working on a Subsequent Section**

Interestingly, another observation made was the return to problematic issues that had provoked lengthy reflection, even while apparently translating a subsequent section. This is an interesting issue that highlights the presence of mental processes difficult to gauge with TAPs, but which constitute avenues for further research. Figure 9.7. provides examples of this process:

Figure 9.7.
Dealing with Previous Issues while Working with the Next Ones

'I take my hat off to Sainsbury's'... hmm what is Sainsbury's; It's a place, I suppose... This is an expression we have in Greek as well "to take the hat off"... to someone we feel he did something significant? Could it be a shop? Ah! Could it be a shop? (P3, FG2, p)

I have to say, but I have to say that I took my hat off to the supermarket Sainsbury's ... **Ah! I can write down 'supermarket' from the beginning ... and and then the problem is solved...**(P6, FG2, p)

A tendency to deal with problematic issues faced at an earlier stage while working on current ones was encountered in P6's translation approach during the TAPs session. (P6, FG2, rd)

From all of these findings, the translators' approaches can be said to have involved the top-down, holistic, and bottom-up approaches. Beginners and competent translators show a tendency to leave problematic issues for later, whereas competent translators return to difficulties encountered while working on a subsequent section. In what follows, the aspect of meaning is investigated, in an attempt to understand the experts versus non-experts translators' approaches and at the same time make sense of the process of ChLT.

9.3.1.2. Data Revealing Meaning Making: Misunderstandings Leading to Mistranslations

An additional pattern, noticeable in the TTs, consists of translations that reflect misunderstandings of the ST meaning. The most apparent pattern of mistranslation due to misunderstanding was encountered in the following set of verbalisations of P7 from the second FG:

Figure 9.8.
Misunderstandings and Mistranslations

Ah! I see what it is, it's the phonemic writing of 'IOU' because he owes him money.
'Till roll' should be the receipt paper. OK, ... The kid had a hat... maybe it is a little bit old,
But then again, no, since we talk about Sainsbury's... I thought maybe this occurs in a previous period...
I don't know what 'vicar' is... 'vicar', it might mean... Where he mentions 'vicar' he then contrast him
to the poor, ... Maybe he is a person of a higher class, belonging to a higher social class... (P7, FG2, p)

Having misunderstood the ST meaning, P7 ended up mistranslating the word 'till roll' ... (P7, FG2, rd)

The fact that TTs so often alter the sense of the STs, or do not even render the meaning at all, indicates that something happens during the transferring process. Whereas most translators mistranslate due to a lack of understanding, at one point or another, the behaviour shared by many participants in this study, which consisted of writing down something that does not make sense in the context, was a pattern which, it seems, often resulted from the participant not being able to 'step back' from his work, and hence not seeing a problem in context, preferring to focus on individual words. This is a pattern more relevant to the bottom-up than the top-down approach, and thus an approach more linked to novice translators. Data revealed that, in terms of meaning, competent translators' misunderstandings are found to lead to mistranslations.

Data linked to PDM highlight further information with regards to the types of approaches taken by participants, and is discussed below.

9.3.2. Translators' Approaches Based on Further Parameters: Personal Decision-Making, Internal Dialogue, and Individual Differences

Based on Figure 9.6., translators' approaches can be analysed from further parameters: Personal Decision Making (PDM), Internal Dialogue, and Individual Differences. In what follows, these parameters will be discussed, to outline a better understanding what constitute translators' approaches.

9.3.2.1. Personal Decision-Making (PDM)

As previously detailed (Chapter 6), in think-aloud studies, participants are asked to verbalise their thoughts and decision-making processes, highlighting a research area known as personal decision-making (PDM). As PDM is linked to translators' strategies and self-awareness, problem-solving, critical thinking, etc. (Wolham, 1982; Karlsson, 1988; Klein et al, 1993), focusing on PDM can possibly shed light on these issues. The findings of this study reveal that PDM links to Kemdal and Montgomery's (1997)⁵⁰ list of assumptions (see Chapter 6, p. 180), which are based on the notion that the relationship between a to-be chosen alternative and the other available alternatives changes over time. To begin with, the findings of the study correlate with the first assumption, as it refers to attempts to structure and restructure available information in order to support the final choice. Participants from all groups worked and re-worked target choices in order to provide the best possible translation. Table 9.16. in Appendix XI (p. 404) presents some representative examples from the data.

The findings here are also in line with Kemdal and Montgomery's (1997) second assumption (see Chapter 6, p. 180). As can be seen from the examples in Table 9.16. (Appendix XI, p. 404), participants' final decisions are partly based on personal values (e.g., 'We'd better not get away from the original' (P8, FG2, p)) and viewpoints that led them to opt for the final choice amongst many (e.g., 'for the text to flow' (P1, FG1, p)). It is interesting to note that the decision-making process has three main phases: a pre-decision phase (initial situation), a during decision phase (i.e. the time period from the initial situation until the decision was made), and a post-decision phase. The following examples are indicative of these phases: 'So when I put 'so' although it does not exist, it is for the text to flow [pre-decision phase]. (...) it is not the continuation of a procedure, but facts one after the other. I delete it [during decision phase]'. When we went to the exit... [post-decision phase] (P1, FG1, p), and 'I think I will not put what a hypocrite [pre-decision phase], I will put what a hypocrisy, I do not like it, why putting hypocrisy, [during decision phase] I will leave what a hypocrite! [post-decision phase] (P8, FG3, p).

Kemdal and Montgomery's (1997) third assumption on the role that emotions can play in the decision-making process (see Chapter 6, p. 180) could also be encountered in various ways in the data. As shown in Table 9.17. (Appendix XI, p. 404), participants often verbalised their emotions either in forms of likes and dislikes, e.g. 'I don't like 'along with my father', so I will delete it and it will stay as 'with my father'' (P3, FG1, p), and 'Oh! I do not like it that much...' (P5, FG3, p),

⁵⁰ What can safely be said is that results in this study cannot confirm or refute Kemdal and Montgomery's assumptions, as protocols were taken at a specific moment in time, thus offering only a snapshot of participants' PDMs.

or they talked about fears, worries, and joys, e.g. 'As I felt, time put much pressure and stress on me...' (P9, FG1, pq) and 'I do not know why, but I feel as if I have someone on my head and this stresses me...' (P8, FG3, p). Linking this with theory in process studies, this kind of highly emotional, and often very personal input, seems to be a characteristic feature of TAPs, as Hansen (2005) and Jääskeläinen (2010) for example, also noted its presence and potential impact on personal decision-making. The diary entries, which were used in this study as an extra record of events, backed up observation of distress: 'Some emotional factors seemed to influence P9's decision-making' (P9, FG1, rd), and 'Emotions drove her personal decision-making...' (P5, FG3, rd).

Kemdal and Montgomery's (1997) fourth assumption on the participants' personal involvement with the texts (see Chapter 6, p. 180) is also encountered in this study. Based on the findings, participants seem to frequently refer to their background knowledge and personal experiences (VSA) (to be discussed later on in this chapter), and the level of their personal involvement with the text is high. The extracts from the researcher's diary below are indicative of the level of certain participants' involvement with the two humorous texts during the TAPs session: 'She does get involved with the text, laughing on several humorous incidents.' (P4, FG1, rd), 'She smiled twice as she silently read the ST and kept smiling as she was trying to translate the incidents that made her laugh in the TT' (P8, FG1, rd), and 'She got involved with the text and kept laughing with the ST's humorous incidents' (P8, FG3, rd).

What derives from Table 9.18. in Appendix XI (p. 466) is that characteristics of personal involvement focus either on linguistic or extra-linguistic indications. Table 9.19. (p. 355) illustrates verbalisations that highlight personal involvement, focusing on linguistic indications that mostly refer to personal experience or background information or even personal comments on the text: 'She made references to her personal experience as she translated' (P8, FG2, rd), and 'All in all 'P9' got quite involved with the text as she revealed in various cases background and personal information' (P9, FG2, rd). Examples indicating personal involvement focusing on extra-linguistic indications, such as facial expressions (e.g. smiling, rolling eyes, etc., i.e. code PE in the Protocol Analysis Coding System), are the following: 'She smiled twice as she silently read the ST and kept smiling as she was trying to translate the incidents that made her laugh in the TT' (P8, FG1, rd). Other examples indicating body movements like hand gestures, head-titling, pen-chewing, etc. (i.e. code PB in the Protocol Analysis Coding System) are the following: '...Whenever she stopped reading the ST to give the translation a thought, she would put her hands on her head or do some pen-chewing' (P8, FG1, rd).

PDM is a factor of high importance in systematising expert, competent, and non-expert translators' approaches, in order to better understand the complexities of translation performance and problem-solving. As seen above, the participants' PDM was involved in structuring and restructuring data, so as to provide the best possible translation, and it often involved participants' emotions and personal relationship with texts. Linking back to Figure 9.6. (p. 297), it can be said that data from PDM is a further parameter in the participants' approaches that can shed light on aspects of the translators' approaches and at the same time assist TS in an attempt to understand the process of translation.

Along with PDM, the participants' internal dialogue is discussed below as a further parameter of the translators' approaches.

9.3.2.2. Internal Dialogue

Even though literature on TAPs reveals that it can be difficult for participants to think aloud (e.g., House, 1988; Toury, 1991; Ericsson & Simon, 1993), the great majority of participants in this experiment – with the exception of a number of FG3 participants – were talkative and verbalisations flowed well. Immediately after the brief introduction to the think-aloud method and the warm-up exercises, many participants commenced the TAPs session with seeming ease. The presence of the researcher-observer did not seem to worry them, and some participants even made humorous remarks on their approach and performance.

As observed, the participants often generated internal speech spontaneously and then sometimes vocalised it. This internal speech entailed either self-instructions, such as: "Let me see", "Wait a minute", or more extensive self-dialogues in line with what Ericsson and Simon (1993) note:

When heeded information is already encoded orally, we claim that the internal activation associated with attending to this information provides input for a process (VOCALISE) without additional central processing. In talk-aloud we assume that verbalisation starts as soon as the internal activation takes place. (p. 227)

According to Werner and Kaplan (1963), the self-directed verbalisation has been found to be more idiomatic and to use more idiosyncratic referents than communications directed to others. The category in which a particular example of verbalisation falls may depend on the subject's interpretation of the instructions, as well as upon the actual content.

Interestingly, those who successfully gave voice to their thoughts and explained what went on in their mind as they translated opened up avenues for researching various types of verbalisations. In brief, internal dialogue that is externalised in the form of concurrent verbalisations is highlighted, and its various types are made obvious amongst several examples detected in the participants' verbalisations. These verbalisation types are schematically presented in Table 9.19. below:

Table 9.19.
Types of Internal Dialogue in TAPs Process

Types of Verbalisations	
1.	Commenting on Texts (ST/TT)
2.	Internal Explanations, Verbalising Logic and Efforts to Understand (VL/EU)
3.	Comprehension-Monitoring
4.	Recognising Limits
5.	Admission of Lack of Knowledge
6.	Reference to Background Knowledge, Personal Experience
7.	Self-Assessment Comments
8.	Self-Supporting Comments
9.	Uncertainty (VU)
10.	Managing Conflict

As participants generate a dialogue with themselves in TAPs sessions, the above types of verbalisations can be detected and categorised. Internal dialogues can involve participants' comments on either the ST or the TT (Table 9.19.a., Appendix XI, p. 405), internal explanations revealing the logic and effort to understand the ST or TT requirements (Table 9.19.b., Appendix XI, p. 406), and comprehension-monitoring. Other types of verbalisations may indicate that participants recognise their limits, admit a lack of knowledge (Table 9.19.c, Appendix XI, p. 408), refer to background knowledge and personal experience (Table 9.19.d., Appendix XI, p. 409), assess their own translation efforts or choices with self-assessment comments (Table 9.19.e., Appendix XI, p. 410), give themselves support with self-supporting comments (Table 9.19.f., Appendix XI, p. 411), express uncertainty (Table 9.19.g., Appendix XI, p. 412), risk-taking, or conflict. All these types of verbalisations are explained in the following pages, where examples from the data are discussed.

- **Commenting on Texts**

Beginner and competent translators are the main ones who comment on the texts, compared to the experts, because they verbalised their thoughts as required (see discussion on automation below). Their comments mainly referred to the level of linguistic difficulty, e.g. 'The next

sentence is simple enough' (P3, FG1, p), 'Sentences are short...' (P5, FG2, p), or the meaning, e.g. 'I made him write an IOU on the back of the till roll. This is indeed too hard, I have no idea what this can be' (P6, FG2, p). On the whole, the non-experts' approaches were non-holistic ones, as their 'thinking-aloud involved commenting on the text's linguistic difficulty' (P9, FG2, rd). This is in accordance with previous TAPs research (Dam-Jensen & Heine, 2009). These verbalisations mainly take place spontaneously and have the form of an internal dialogue.

- **Internal Explanations, Verbalising Logic and Efforts to Understand (VL/EU)**

Table 9.19.b. (see Appendix XI, p. 467) gives another example of internal speech, as in this case, the verbalisations presented derive from internal explanations, where participants verbalise their logic and efforts to understand. A representative example can be the one from FG1, in which P3 speaks out her attempts to understand what 'bad for you' is all about: 'My father chose food... chose unhealthy food, I guess, because what else could 'bad for you' mean? Poisoned? Since he is his father, ... I don't like 'he chose it' that much, so 'bought' maybe? Or even better 'preferred?'' (P3, FG1, p). As highlighted in the researcher's diary, 'It was obvious that P3's internal speech revealed her efforts to understand what 'bad for you' meant' (P3, FG1, rd). To the researcher, P3 'showed no problem in verbalising her thoughts. Her internal speech at times, also revealed a tendency to explain things to herself and make herself understand' (P3, FG1, rd). The following example illustrates P3's ease with this kind of internal dialogue: 'When we went to the ex... he couldn't find, it's a weakness, inability, so he wants to show an inability the fact that he lost his credit card... I will write that he simply couldn't find it, when we went to the exit he couldn't find his credit card' (P3, FG1, p). In the same group, P8 was another participant who 'verbalised her logic and efforts so as to get the message' (P8, FG1, rd). The following examples highlight this approach: 'He could buy a packet, buy something, buy the blank, the white, the simple, in other words and give the difference to a poor...' (P8, FG1, p), 'I had almost finished, meaning I had just finished, yes, I had just finished' (ibid.), and 'Nothing spiritual happened, yes, that had to do with his spiritual clarity, in other words, yes...' (ibid.). The use of repetition can be conceived of as a means to better understand.

Similar examples can be found in FG2. Quoting the researcher's diary: 'At a point P6's verbalisation exposed her efforts to understand (i.e. banking card incident)' (P6, FG2, rd): 'When we went to the till he couldn't find his banking card or bank's card? His bank's card... The treasurer couldn't accept a check without it... The fact that the treasurer did not accept a check without the bank's card is somehow awkward to me' (P6, FG2, p). Also, 'He has money to burn, what he means is that he spent, he bought something very expensive and he didn't need to buy

something that expensive, so he has money to spent, to throw, to throw, because it's 'burn' (P6, FG2, p).

In the verbalisations of FG3, importance was given to understanding the meaning of the given texts, so as to provide the best possible translation: 'Casualty' how should I say this? How will I write it, God! What? The casualty? I'm spending some time thinking about how to write it...' (P5, FG3, p), and 'Sniff'... How can you say 'sniff'? Sniff? Suck? Smell? Sniff sounds... as... everyday speech... of course we have surfing... from serf... but this ... sniffer, OK, how can you say that?' (P9, FG3, p).

As participants verbalised their thinking while translating humour for children and YA from English into Greek, they verbalised attempts to use logic and efforts to understand the meaning of the given texts, so as to provide the best possible solution for the TT. Viewing the examples above, it can be said that the pattern observed in the verbalisations of all FGs is more or less common: participants speak out their internalised questions and explanations in order to understand, move their task forward, and provide the best possible translation. This finding, i.e. the documentation of this pattern, is of major significance, as it contributes to understanding the translation process (see Chapter 10).

- **Comprehension-Monitoring**

In doing what is noted above, i.e. verbalising questions and explanations in the process of translation, so as to proceed to the best possible translation, participants sometimes monitor their comprehension. This can be seen in the examples below: 'Because what else could 'bad for you' be about?', and 'Let me just get what it says...' (P3, FG1, p). As seen in section 9.2., comprehension-monitoring (28.95%) was the second most verbalised process-oriented HT strategy revealed in this study, and it involved participants observing and examining their work (Séguinot, 2000). A number of participants, especially competent translators, attempted to comment on their work and even evaluate it by commenting on the actual quality of solutions provided. This is an interesting finding, as monitoring is considered to be a high-level strategy, in the sense that it entails the translator having a certain amount of self-awareness, i.e. a trait of translation expertise (see Chapter 6). The process of making competent translators into professionals seems to have a positive influence on matters of self-awareness. The process of competent translators acquiring professional translators' traits and behaviours, so as to become expert translators themselves, seems to impact on their behaviour and thinking, revealing a concern in the process of translation for issues that beginners do not address. This is further

developed in the next chapters when discussing the main findings (Chapter 10) and the implications of the study (Chapter 11).

- **Recognising Limits**

In several cases, and especially when participants were aware of what was really happening and what they were really doing, their verbalisations revealed that they could recognise their limits, thus being aware of what they were doing: 'At any case I've realised that it is about a diary, so the register of the text is cool and informal. So ... that's exactly how my translation choices will be oriented...' (P1, FG1, p) and 'The person in charge had to intervene to stop the fight? I don't know if it is a fight, for the person in charge, though, to come... there must have been tendencies, so I will put fight and not talk because we then mean talk in a low voice (...)' (P8, FG2, p). Similarly to comprehension-monitoring, as seen above, recognising limits is related to a translator being self-aware and is thus a characteristic of the expert translators' approaches.

- **Admission of Lack of Knowledge**

In the realm of student-centred studies and student-centred pedagogy, self-awareness is a key issues (e.g., Maslow, 1987; Hoppe, 1995). In certain pedagogical environments, it is considered to be a transferable skill, closely related to self-esteem, self-confidence and self-reliability (Barret, Webster, & Wallis, 1999). In these contexts, all these skills together advance the 'self'. In developmental psychology, the development of self-esteem is said to be influenced by significant others: members of the family, friends, school authorities, etc. (Branden, 2001; Burke, 2008). The relationship the individual has with these significant others as well as the role he plays in creating his life, inform the individual about his own values (Burke, 2008). The higher these are, i.e. the more the individual considers them to be significant, the more successful the individual is in various sectors of his life. In this realm, the individual has a need for self-esteem, self-confidence, and self-awareness to perform successfully. This can be linked to Chesterman's discussion of translators' awareness during the process of translating (cf. Chesterman, 2000). As this issue has various implications, it will be further tackled in Chapter 11.

In certain verbalisations, the participants would admit a lack of knowledge. Data in Table 9.19.c. in Appendix XI indicate that this approach was shared by all FGs. All FGs seemed to acknowledge a lack of knowledge with regards to lexis: 'I don't understand what the verb *'steer'* means in this sentence' (P1, FG1, p), 'How can we say that in Greek now? (...) ... Well, at this point, I'm stuck!' (P3, FG1, p), and "Sniff...How can you say 'sniff'? Sniff? Suck? Smell? Sniff

sounds... as... everyday speech... of course we have surfing... from serf... but this ... sniffer, OK, how can you say that?' (P9, FG3, p). Interestingly, culture-bound terms caused troublesome situations: 'I don't understand what 'IOU' means in the next sentence, and I have no idea what 'till roll' is...' (P1, FG1, p), 'I made him write an IOU on the back of the till roll'. This is really tough, I have no idea what this can be' (P6, FG2, p), and 'I made him write he owes me on the back of the 'till roll' that I don't know what it means...' (P5, FG3, p). Further examples indicating participants' admission of lack of knowledge can be found in Table 9.19.c. in Appendix XI, p. 469.

Interestingly, in most examples, participants either 'did not know' (P6, FG2, p) certain aspects, or 'could not understand' (P1, FG1, p), admitting their lack of knowledge. In other cases, 'having no idea' (P8, FG2, p), or 'no clue' (P3, FG1, p) as to how to go about finding a solution, they would either give a solution in haste or leave it and check it later. This issue is linked to uncertainty, an aspect that can explain the lack of knowledge, and thus will be discussed in a later section.

- **Reference to Background Knowledge, Personal Experience**

In cases where participants felt the need to further reflect until they made some sense of what seemed to be tricky or unknown during translations, a reference to their background knowledge or personal experience was an approach that helped them solve the problem encountered. As derived from data, this was an aspect of a more mature approach, as it was encountered in competent and expert translators' verbalisations (see Table 9.19.d., Appendix XI, p. 470). Some representative examples of participants referring to their background knowledge can be the following: 'Pence'... to be honest, I don't know how this is translated ... pence, ... Ah!, pence, I have heard of this before... He owes me then, and thirty-eight' (P3, FG2,p), '...there may be a particular reason for Sainsbury's because it is relatively more expensive than Tesco and Asda, for instance, and it has better people...' (P8, FG3, p), and 'He chose a purple pack of three-ply toilet paper, isn't it that how they say it on that TV advertisement?' (P9, FG2, p). Participants' reference to personal experience is a frequent trait in the process of translating, that seems to help them with finding the best possible solution: 'I will leave 'pence' just like in fairytales I was reading as a kid (...) that reminds me of my own diaries...' (P6, FG2, p), 'I guess this is a kind of contract kids do... Because from personal experience, when I was a kid I wrote myself fake contracts, I promise I do this and that and stuff like that...' (P9, FG2, p), and 'A solution came out of personal experience: 'we call this basket in Cyprus'' (P8, FG3, rd).

- **Self-Assessment Comments**

As can be seen below, the participants were making references to their own experiences during the TAPs, trying to solve the problematic translation areas. Their spontaneous verbalised thinking also included a number of self-assessment comments, as can be seen in Table 9.19.e. in Appendix XI, p. 471. These comments either refer to their own performance: ‘What a dummy I am, now I understand’ (P7, FG1, p), and ‘“Vicar”, what? Should I call it a church priest or am I saying something stupid now?’ (P8, FG3, p), or to the perceived quality of the ST: ‘I don’t like ‘along with my father’, so I will omit ‘along’ and just leave ‘with my father’ (P3, FG1, p), ‘...today I cleaned the house with my father’, it’s the best of all’ (P3, FG1, p), ‘It may be a supermarket. A market? No, (...) It foreignises a bit...’ (P4, FG2, p), ‘There is an equivalent collocation in Greek (...), I guess that’s the best’ (P5, FG2, p), ‘Love is the only thing that keeps me sane, it doesn’t sound good, though... That keeps me alive. It’s a little extravagant, however’ (P6, FG2, p), and ‘Love is the only thing that keeps me sane? OK’ (P8, FG3, p).

- **Self-Supporting Comments**

Besides comments on the ‘self’ that were of an evaluative nature, self-supporting comments made spontaneously by participants in all focus groups were of an encouraging nature in an attempt to ‘boost self-confidence during the TAPs session which was a new experience’ (P8, FG1, rd) to them. For example: ‘I’ll leave the sentence as it is. Yes, why not’ (P3, FG1, p), or ‘My father chose food bad enough for health, good’, keep up with the TAPs experiment and the translation, e.g. ‘I don’t know that ‘vicar’ means... Let’s give it a try, I will try the second one...’ (P5, FG3, p), and make their utmost to provide the best possible translation: ‘“He must have money to burn’. There is an equivalent collocation in Greek ‘πρέπει να έχει λεφτά για ξόδεμα’, I guess that’s the best’ (P5, FG2, p). Further examples that can be found in Table 9.19.f. in Appendix XI, p. 411, show how participants from all FGs kept encouraging themselves in the context of this study.

- **Uncertainty, Self-Awareness, Self-Confidence**

Participants who gave themselves encouraging comments in the process seemed to benefit from a boost in their self-esteem and self-confidence to keep on translating. This behaviour is not always common, especially for novice translators, who seem to be quite uncertain: ‘I have scribbles all over my paper, I don’t know if this is a problem...’ (P3, FG1, p), or ‘Where should I put emphasis on? Action or time? (P3, FG1, p). Indeed, according to Kussmaul (2005), and as seen in Chapter 6, translation students can have ‘weak’ personalities. In line with this finding, the following examples of verbalisations, as derived from Table 9.19.g. (see Appendix XI, p. 412),

reveal a lack of self-confidence and self-awareness. Uncertainty, in the context of this study, is expressed either by internal questions or repetitions of words and approaches. Verbalised uncertainty is either triggered by issues that the participants do not know how to solve (unknown incidents), e.g., ‘... money I took from my birthday? Pocket money?’ (P5, FG1, p), or do not remember how to resolve (known incidents), e.g. ‘... so 4 p.m. Hm, is it before lunch or after?’ (P8, FG1, p). A number of studies have indicated that protocol excerpts frequently show that students are, in many cases, uncertain and highlighted various uncertainty markers (Tirkkonen-Condit, 2000; Künzli, 2003; etc.). Such uncertainty markers can be, for instance, explicit questions (e.g., “why do they write a colon here?”), hedging (e.g., “probably the colon has the function of describing the next procedure”), or admissions of lack of knowledge (e.g., “I don’t exactly know what the point of it is...”).

On the other hand, more confident participants showed a tendency to take risks. An example of an observed tendency towards risk-taking, as revealed by the verbalised strategies and the uncertainty markers in the TAPs, is illustrated below: ‘When we went... (...) my father couldn’t find his... How do we call this card they use to withdraw money? I think that if I did this at home, I would ask someone for help with the exact term, but here and now, anyway, I will wish myself luck...’ (P3, FG1, p). In line with findings from other studies (Jääskeläinen, 1995; Künzli, 2003; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007), risk-taking in this study seems stronger among the students group (FG1), who tended to avoid cognitive load by giving either translation options in haste, or was more prone to guesswork. It can be highlighted, though, that this behaviour could be a result of the circumstances under which the experiment took place: students might have felt uncomfortable or stressed, and thus were in a hurry to complete the task.

- **Managing Conflict**

What is more, participants were confronted with conflict situations, where they had to show flexibility in their approach, and resolve the issues they encountered and struggled with in a rather different manner than they initially thought. Research on conflict situations in the course of the translation process indicates that translators “demonstrate the conflict” (Weil-Barais, 1999, pp. 556-557) that can exist with the criteria that they take into account when evaluating appropriate strategies in view of making a decision. In various cases, textual information is not always in accordance with the translators’ linguistic knowledge on the one hand, and reality on the other. In this case, the translator is called to manage conflict and make decisions. The following example is indicative of this attitude:

When we reached the till he couldn't find his credit card.
 Ah! No! 'banker's card' I have no idea what this means... What is 'banker's card'?
 Here we open a dictionary to check on 'banker's card'.
It may not be a credit card according to my first, my preliminary impression,
or it may be some sort of identity, although it... 'Banker's card' ...
 'another term for check's card'. Thank you very much Oxford Dictionary... Card ... (P8, FG3, p)

In investigating the translators' attitudes in the process of translating humour in ChL from English into Greek, several types of verbalisations were detected and categorised. As seen above, these involve: internal dialogues consisting of participants' comments on either the ST or the TT, internal explanations revealing the logic and effort to understand the ST or TT requirements, and comprehension-monitoring. Further types of verbalisations reveal that participants may recognise their limits, admit a lack of knowledge, refer to background knowledge and personal experiences, or assess their own translation efforts or choices with self-assessment comments, and provide themselves with support by making self-supporting comments. They may also express uncertainty, risk-taking, or conflict. What is interesting in this study is that the three FGs corresponding to the three levels of translation competence are compared and differences in behaviours in relation to these issues are highlighted. This is the third research question and aim of this study that will be further discussed in section 9.3.3.2. below.

Internal dialogue, as revealed in the lines above, provides insight into the process of translation and what goes on in the translators' minds while translating. Verbalisations enable a better understanding of the approaches that translators adopt. Linking back to Figure 9.1. (this chapter, p. 413), aspects of type, meaning, confidence, editing, and evaluating are apparent. Participants' attempts to structure and restructure data is linked to the translators' type of approach, and the uncertainty they express or, on the contrary, the risk-taking they express, both highlight issues of confidence. Although this might not at first seem groundbreaking, what makes this study worthwhile is the difference in behaviours between the three FGs, i.e. the comparative analysis and the conclusions it enables the researcher to draw about translators at different levels of competence. What is more, the findings in relation to participants recognising their limits, making efforts to understand, and monitoring comprehension, reveal a concern for meaning transfer, whereas participants' self-encouraging comments raise issues of confidence as well as information about editing behaviour and evaluation of choices. The differences between different FGs will be tackled in section 9.3.3.2., which addresses the third research question and aim of this study.

In addition to PDM and internal dialogue, individual differences are a parameter that provides useful data for better understanding the translators' approaches while undertaking a translation

task. Individual differences, presented below, reveal aspects of self-confidence and self-reliability, which link back to the attempt to systematise expert and non-expert approaches (see Table 6.1., section 6.1.3.2.3., p. 182).

9.3.2.3. Individual Differences

In order to gain an understanding of the translators' decision-making processes and to report on their translation approaches, strategies, and norms, it was necessary to carefully analyse the verbalisations. These provided a useful tool to detect translation approaches, strategies, and governing norms. Verbalisations were either successful or non-successful as participants either verbalised their thoughts as required, or did not, revealing several individual differences (IDs).

Among the various IDs revealed (see Table 9.20., Appendix XI, p. 413) was the fact that some participants did not verbalise their thoughts as required (i.e. P6, FG1, p and rd; P9, FG1, rd; P10, FG1, p and pq, etc.), either due to automation of the whole translation process after many years of working practice (e.g., P7, FG3, p and pq) as they admitted, or because they got tired of speaking as they translated (P2, FG3, pq; P6, FG3, rd; P7, FG3, rd), as it was revealed in the triangulation of data. Others admitted that it was not possible for them to verbalise their thoughts due to embarrassment (P5, FG1, pq; P7, FG3, p and pq; P7, FG3, pq; and P10, FG1 pq), confusion (P3, FG2, p; P2, FG3, p and pq; P6, FG3, pq), and discomfort (P4, FG1, pq and P1, FG3, pq,) caused by experiencing TAPs for the first time.

The difficulties of generalising about problem-solving from data obtained from individual protocols cannot be disregarded, and are an integral part of the method of protocol analysis. The complexity of problem-solving processes is a psychological fact: it is widely acknowledged that human beings differ in the experience they have, or knowledge they possess, and the knowledge they evoke and apply in particular problem solving situations (Hubscher-Davidson, 2007).

When discussing IDs in TS, Vermeer (1996) states that translating depends on "a partly individual and subjective interpretation of a source text" (p. 80). This is highly relevant for the present study, as individual interpretations and choices are a key feature of the experiments. However, it seems from the data that translation involves more than partly subjective and individual choices. Although some translators have similar training experience and training profiles, and thus formed part of the same FG, no two translators are ever identical as no two experiences or people are exactly the same. Hence, individual and subjective interpretation is an important part of translation, implying that the translator's mind and personality play a major

role in the process. As a result, it is important to keep in mind that attempts to systematise group approaches may obscure individual differences at play.

As seen in this section, the types of verbalisations differ from individual to individual and from FG to FG. A certain number of participants successfully verbalised their thoughts as required, when others failed to do so, or decided against it. It is noteworthy that a small number of participants quit either in the middle or at the end of the warm-up stage (e.g., P1, FG3, rd), apologising to the researcher. Others quit at the beginning of the actual TAPs session for similar reasons as those previously mentioned (P6, FG3, pq and P7, FG3, rd). In certain cases, participants did not complete the session and had to leave earlier due to unexpected situations (e.g., P3, FG2, p). All of these cases still form part of the experiment and data relevant to these cases can be extracted from Table 9.20. in Appendix XI, p. 474. A discussion of possible reasons for not verbalising will be generated in the next chapter.

9.3.3. Attempts to Systematise Beginner, Competent, and Expert Translators' Approaches

Issues revealed above allow a better understanding of the translators' approach at the three different levels of expertise. Data collected and analysed foregrounded aspects discussed in the literature review that contribute to translators' approaches while translating (Table 6.1., Chapter 6, section 6.1.3.2.3., p. 182). The data analysis enabled an attempt to systematise expert, competent, and non-expert translators' approaches, which is the focus point of this section, and addresses the third research question and aim of this study. Starting with a discussion of the commonalities detected in translators' approaches, each competence level approach is critically discussed on the basis of themes revealed in the data analysis.

9.3.3.1. Commonalities in Experts' versus Non-Experts' Approaches

In terms of the expert versus the non-expert approaches, what is revealed is that, first of all, although differences are apparent, FGs also have aspects in common. Commonalities in features of professional and non-professional translators' processes have been reported in previous research attempts in the context of think-aloud studies (cf. Lörscher, 2004), highlighting common ground at different levels of translation expertise.

As revealed in the data analysis, participants struggled to provide the best possible translation (see Table 9.17., Appendix XI, p. 405). As participants verbalised their thinking while translating humour for children and YA from English into Greek, they demonstrated their logic and efforts

to understand the meaning of the given texts. Viewing the examples in Table 9.19.b. (Appendix XI, p. 406), it can be said that the way of proceeding observed in the verbalisations of all FGs was more or less the same: participants verbalised their internalised explanations in order to proceed with their task and provide the best possible translation. In doing this, they sometimes monitored their comprehension. Another common feature revealed in this study was their spontaneous verbalised thinking, which included a number of self-assessment comments, i.e. comments aiming to assess their performance or the TT they produced (see Table 9.19.e., Appendix XI, p. 410).

Beginner and competent translators' approaches presented a number of common traits in this study. Both FGs would adopt a bottom-up approach when encountering problems. It was frequently observed that most of them started by using a top-down or holistic approach, but reverted to a bottom-down approach as soon as they encountered the first major problem in translation. When faced with a problematic issue, the majority of FG1 and FG2 participants would leave it aside and tackle it later (see Table 9.15., Appendix XI, p. 404). In terms of risk-taking, it can be said that, even though a small number of participants provided a solution when initially coming across a problematic translation, similarly to the experts, the majority of participants in FG1 and FG2 showed a tendency to leave problematic issues aside in order to return to them at a later stage. As previously suggested, returning to problematic elements at a later stage is an approach much encountered in think-aloud studies where time constraints are set. As time was not a variable tested in this study, participants' rush to finish their translation and return to difficult issues at a later stage was either out of habit, or anxiety, and even uncertainty to get it right. Whatever the reason, it seems to be a feature of less experienced translators' processing behaviour, i.e. beginner and competent translators.

Another commonality in participants' approaches concerns their evaluative comments as they translated. For beginners and competent translators, there were occasions when their comments to themselves were encouraging (Table 9.19.f., Appendix XI, p. 411). As previously suggested, this kind of encouragement seemed to boost their self-esteem and self-confidence, something which was not always the case with novice translators. Indeed, according to Kussmaul (1995), and as seen in Chapter 6 of this thesis, translation students can have 'weak' personalities, and thus requiring constant encouragement. This is an issue with pedagogical implications that will be further discussed in Chapter 10.

FG1 and FG2 participants were found to be uncertain (Table 9.19.g., Appendix XI, p. 412). This was revealed through data, where a number of participants expressed uncertainty. A number of

studies have indicated that non-professionals are in many cases uncertain, either due to uncertain incidents or to known incidents that they cannot recall at the time (Kussmaul, 1995). Similarly to the issue of weak personalities, uncertainty has pedagogical implications and is thus further discussed in Chapter 10.

In the lines below, the expert versus the non-expert approaches will be described based on thematic analysis of the triangulated data, addressing the third research question of the study referring to systematising expert, competent, and beginner translators' approaches.

9.3.3.2. Differences in Experts' versus Non-Experts' Approaches

Discovering the experts' retrieval structures and procedural knowledge and extracting the specific features of expert translation performance and effective problem-solving is a challenging task in the realm of TS research, pedagogy and practice. Experimental studies on how experts actually translate are certainly a very efficient way of understanding the complex matters of decision-making and problem-solving in translation (Kussmaul, 1995; Shreve, 1997; Jääskeläinen, 2000; Jarvella et al., 2002; Smith, 2004, 2007; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). As the translation expert has an increased ability to recognise multifaceted problem-solving activities, represent them mentally and resolve them, research into expertise will undoubtedly contribute important insights into the true nature of translation performance, and open up new directions for research. Furthermore, the discovery of specific aspects of translation performance which can be improved by intentional practice has the advantage of being immediately applicable to translation pedagogy. This is why the attempt of the present study to unravel what constitutes expert translation behaviour is remarkably challenging.

Findings presented in this thesis reveal important clues concerning the translation behaviours of professionals, and thus the results of this study may contribute to translation expertise research, translation pedagogy, and translation practice (see Chapters 10 and 11). Aspects of experts' approaches that will be discussed below involve parameters revealed from the data: problematic verbalisations and automation, participants' strategic approaches, using resources, and editing.

- **Problematic Verbalisations - Automation**

A number of studies have examined the effects of verbalisation in judgment and decision-making tasks (e.g., Ericsson & Simon, 1984, p. xxiv). Anderson (n.d., p. xxv) found that the amount of verbalised information increased with experience. This study, however, found opposite results. As

noted earlier on in this chapter, participants with shorter verbalisations or non-successful verbalisations (those who quit either during the warm-up stage or as soon the actual TAPs process started) were FG1 participants, i.e. beginners (16.67%), but also FG3 participants, i.e. experienced translators (20%). For beginners, embarrassment and discomfort due to the circumstances were factors that worked against verbalising their thoughts as required. What worked against experts verbalising their thoughts was, according to the data: fatigue (e.g., after a difficult day at work) (9.99%), but also discomfort felt by some (6.67%), who expressed that they felt exposed during the TAPs session, or even confusion (9.99%) caused by the nature of TAPs, where it is required to listen to your voice while you translate. Other TAPs studies using expert participants have encountered similar factors (e.g., Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Kussmaul & Trikkonen-Condit, 1995; Hansen, 2005).

A common reason put forward for the lack of verbalisation or process-related verbalisations amongst experts is automation (Börsch, 1986, p. 207; Toury, 1991, p. 69; Kovačič, 1997, p. 237). This links back to section 6.1.3.2. Chapter 6 (p. 198). Research has revealed that the translation process of professional translators is highly automatised (Hurtado Albir, 2002; Pym, 2003). In the case of automation, actions and reactions occur instantly, therefore either giving no time to think, analyse, and explain, or not providing sufficient time for cognitive processes to take place (e.g., think, comment, analyse, compare, explain). In line with studies discussing the automation factor in professionals' TAPs (Jääskeläinen, 1995; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007), this study also showed that most experts found it difficult to break down the process and their thoughts into its components and sequential cognitive steps. This can be the reason why some scholars believe that it is not easy for these participants to reason their choices explicitly (cf. House, 1988; Toury, 1991; Ericsson & Simon, 1993). Nonetheless, it is clear that there is a divergence in opinion in the field, with some scholars arguing that professionals' verbalisations can still be filled with interesting cognitive information (Jääskeläinen, 1995).

- **Strategic Approach**

When discussing the experts' approaches and translation efficiency, both Matrat (1992) and Tirkkonen-Condit (1996) acknowledge that proficient translators are more likely to have a strategic approach as they translate, which is something acquired with experience. This issue was discussed in Chapter 4, where competence was said to be closely associated with strategy. Indeed, in this study, experts worked strategically. According to their strategic plan, they predominantly paid attention to the macrostructural level of the text in a first instance, before focusing on the

microstructural, thus following a top-down approach and a sense-oriented procedure focusing on longer text segments (phrases, clauses, sentences). This finding is in accordance with similar studies presented in Chapter 6, where the issue of the gap phenomenon was initially addressed (Lörscher, 1997, 2005; Smith, 2004, 2007).

In the context of this strategic approach, expert translators displayed reiteration (Lörscher, 1997, 2005; Séguinot, 2000), i.e. the ability to seek and find a solution for a translation problem while working on a different part of a text. As they focused on different parts of the text while reflecting on previous problems/solutions, this seemed to be a holistic approach, because they were not focusing on word structures and grammar, but thinking about other parts of the text simultaneously. This is a highly complex mental process, which non-experts could not do, as they constantly tried to avoid cognitive load.

As revealed from the data, competent translators began their translation task by using a top-down approach, but reverted to a bottom-up approach as soon as they encountered the first major problem. Resembling beginners, they showed a tendency to leave problematic issues for later (Table 9.15., Appendix XI, p. 404). This indicates their inability to handle a high cognitive load, and their need to postpone complex decision-making for a later stage.

Interestingly, a typical approach of FG2 participants was to return to problematic issues that had provoked lengthy reflection, even while apparently translating a subsequent section. Like experts, competent translators displayed reiteration and returned to difficulties encountered while working on a later task. As a result, it can be argued that competent translators may, on the one hand, present features of beginners' approaches and, on the other, features of experts. They are effectively still learning how to behave strategically.

- **Meaning-Making Tendencies**

Based on the data, all participants verbalised their logic and efforts to understand the meaning of the given texts and to decide on the best possible solution for the TT. In the course of understanding the meaning, they frequently referred to their background knowledge and personal experience (VSA), and the level of their personal involvement with the text was high. These aspects of their approach towards meaning-making are underlined as a trait that enables them to overcome difficulties and continue their task.

Thus, a reference to background knowledge and personal experience as well as a personal involvement with the text are seen as successful behaviours in the process of translation. At certain times, experts managed to monitor comprehension, a trait that can also enable them to overcome difficulties encountered in the process and, as such, is considered a successful translator behaviour. These successful behaviours will be discussed in the next chapter (Chapter 10) as good practices in the context of the beneficiary outcomes of this study.

Participants from all groups struggled with structure (see Table 9.16., Appendix XI, p. 406). Data from PDM adds another piece of information regarding the participants' approaches. Structuring and restructuring data, so as to provide the best possible translation indicates a trait of translators' approaches that, in terms of analysis, can be linked with issues of confidence, competence, and editing. It can either be assumed that constant reformulating mirrors uncertainty, absence of self-confidence, and translation competence, or it can mean a systematic attempt to edit and evaluate the TT. This is another example of a competent translator's approach. On the one hand, the lack of certainty, self-confidence and translation skills are often acknowledged as a feature of the beginners' approach (Kusssmaul, 2005). On the other hand, indication of editing and evaluating efforts can be linked to expertise (*ibid.*).

Similarly to FG2 and FG3 participants, from Table 9.19.b. in Appendix XI (p. 406), it is apparent that FG1 participants provided internalised explanations in order to proceed with their task. Their internalised explanations revealed several aspects of novice behaviour: comprehension-monitoring (Table 9.19.a., Appendix XI, p. 405), admission of lack of knowledge (9.19.c., Appendix XI, p. 408), or self-assessment (Table 9.19.e., Appendix XI, p. 410), and self-encouraging comments (Table 9.19.f., Appendix XI, p. 411). Another feature of FG1 participants concerning meaning was their tendency to avoid cognitive load by giving either translation options in haste, or choosing guesswork. Meaning-making in this task, therefore, seemed to be closely related to individual differences, both cognitive and affective.

- **Editing/Evaluating the Text**

Based on expert translators' approaches, editing and evaluating the text are seen as further instances of successful translators' behaviours and thus good practices in the context of expertise research. A majority of experts managed with ease to adopt a holistic approach, where they stepped back from the translated text and reviewed it for improvement and evaluation purposes. This trait of experts is in accordance with similar studies (e.g., Lörscher, 1997, 2005; Séguinot,

2000). This is not the case for non-professionals, though, who as will be highlighted below, paid no attention to editing in general.

The tendency to provide rushed solutions or to avoid problems and cognitive load left beginner translators in this study no space for editing, revising, or improving their work. As seen, above, a commonality in all participants' approaches was their comments as they translated, which were of an evaluative nature. Just like FG2 participants, FG1 participants' comments to themselves were of a supportive nature (Table 9.19.f., Appendix XI, p. 411).

- **Search/Use of Resources**

Expert translators were also found to use a much wider range of resources compared to non-experts (Smith, 2004, 2007). The tendency of professionals in the course of this study was to use the internet to decide on the best possible translation. This is another example of good practice, as being acquainted with new technologies is a requirement in the translation profession (Pym, 2003). Data justifying this trait is presented in Table 9.10.b. in Appendix X (p. 461) whereas relevant implications are discussed in Chapter 11.

The data (see Tables 9.10.b., p. 400 and 9.10.b.i, p. 401, in Appendix X) indicates that FG1 participants did not rely on dictionaries and other supporting materials while translating. The fact that they had a choice but did not bring any with them to the sessions either means that they thought that the translation task, being concerned primarily with humour and ChL, would not be difficult task and did not require supporting material, or that they did not value supporting material in the context of translation. As revealed, the former is likely to be the case, as on several occasions participants referred to the simplicity of the task. A number of beginners also regretted not having brought a dictionary to the TAPs session, admitting that using supporting material in the translation process was otherwise their habit.

Beyond this, though, they translated quickly and seemingly effortlessly, indicating that they were a FG that “problematise[d] relatively little” (Jääskeläinen, 1996, p. 67). Relevant studies report that as soon as novice translators start the TAPs session and encounter the first problematic translation issue (Kussmaul, 1995; Jääskeläinen, 2000; Jarvella et al., 2002), few of them make use of resources such as the internet or contacts (an agent, a customer, etc.), although they are permitted to do so. When looking for assistance, students usually rely exclusively on general dictionaries in print form, as opposed to technology (Smith, 2004). This is an important aspect with mainly pedagogical implications, which will be discussed in Chapter 11.

- **Lack of Knowledge**

In certain verbalisations, participants admitted a lack of knowledge. The examples in Table 9.19.c., in Appendix XI (p. 408), indicate that this approach was shared by the first two FGs. Beginners and competent translators either 'did not know' certain aspects (P2, FG1, p; P3, FG1, p; P7, FG1, p; P8, FG1, p; and P5, FG1, p) or 'could not understand' (P1, FG1, p and P8, FG2, p), admitting their lack of knowledge. In other cases, 'having no idea' (P6, FG2, p) or 'no clue' (P3, FG1, p) as to how to go about finding a solution, they would either give a seemingly random solution or, as seen above, leave it and check it later. In cases where participants attempted to further reflect until they made some sense of what seemed to be tricky or unknown, a reference to their background knowledge or personal experience was an approach that, as seen earlier, helped them solve the problem encountered.

- **Awareness and Recognising their Limits**

Another trait that FG2 shared with FG3, highlighting the similarities between the competent and expert approaches, is that participants of FG2 could recognise their limits. In various cases, they showed through their verbalisations that they were aware of what was really happening and what they were doing. In the realm of student-centred studies and student-centred pedagogy, self-awareness is amongst the prevalent issues (Maslow, 1987; Hoppe, 1995). In certain pedagogical environments, it is considered to be a transferable skill, closely related to self-esteem, self-confidence, and self-reliability (Barret, Webster, & Wallis, 1999). Similarly to the admission of lack of knowledge seen earlier in this chapter, all of these personal qualities boost the 'self' and thus allow the individual to develop self-esteem, self-confidence, and self-awareness (Burke, 2008). As this is an issue with various implications, it will be further discussed in Chapter 11.

What has transpired in this study is that competent translators do not always have a clear approach discrete to themselves. Their complex and mixed approaches share characteristics of the approach of beginners and experts, revealing on the one hand the 'immature' and 'inexperienced' nature of the competent approach, and on the other hand the 'proficient' one. As derives from the data of this study, the competent translator is still 'in between' worlds as he translates humour for ChL: the novice world and the expert world. If we take into account what was stressed above, i.e. that expert behaviour is a result of years of experience, then this study and similar ones provide a remarkable opportunity to outline the prevalent aspects of the expert's approach and expertise behaviour so as to advance translator training curricula and settings. This is a beneficial outcome of this study that will be discussed in Chapter 10.

In this study, participants expressed uncertainty (Table 9.19.g., Appendix XI, p. 412) either by internal questions or repetitions of words and approaches (e.g., comments of self-support, as noted above). Verbalised uncertainty was either generated by issues the participants did not know how to solve (unknown incidents), admitting at the same time a lack of knowledge (see below), or did not remember how to resolve (known incidents). A number of studies have indicated that non-professionals are in many cases uncertain (Tirkkonen-Condit, 2000; Künzli, 2003), a behaviour that is also linked to (a lack of) self-awareness, which is found to be a key expert trait in this study as well.

In several studies on 'non-experts', issues of awareness and consciousness are raised (e.g., Tirkkonen-Condit, 2000; Künzli, 2003; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). Students' mistakes and misconceptions, and thus mistranslations, are often attributed to a lack of awareness of their own weaknesses, of their lack of understanding or contextualising (Lörscher 1997; Smith, 2004). Even when they do show some awareness of this however, they often do not know how to solve the problem; they are not willing to take risks and they end up just leaving the mistake in their translation. As will be discussed in Chapter 11, this is an aspect that should be taken into account in translator training classes.

Studies investigating the gap phenomenon underline that novice translators spend a lot of time wondering or checking and rechecking words, wasting their time on things they already know or things that are of no importance. (Kusssmaul, 1995; Livbjerg & Mees in Alves, 2003; Smith, 2004, 2007; Olk, 2009). In most cases, these behaviours are linked to their uncertainty and lack of self-confidence. Livbjerg and Mees speak of students having "insufficient confidence in their linguistic abilities" (in Alves 2003, pp. 123-136), whereas Kusssmaul (1995) refers to students of "weak personalities" (p. 19), who avoid efforts and cognitive load, that is to say students not being dynamic and adventurous, and thus not easily taking risks in the process of translation (Jarvella et al., 2002).

9.3.3.3. Systematising Expert, Competent, and Non-Expert Translators' Approaches

As seen in the literature review of this thesis (Chapter 6), studies investigating expert translation approaches reveal that it is a combination of knowledge base, advanced cognitive skills, and an accumulation of experiences with texts, which is qualitatively different from that of competent translators, beginners, and non-translators. This is also the case in this study. In her work, *Expertise and Explicitation in the Translation Process*, Englund Dimitrova (2005) offers a report on a TAPs-centred study on translation proficiency; she discovers that expert translators' skills (i.e.

background knowledge, speed, translation quality, etc.) were much more advanced. As the scholar notes, it takes many years for the construction of the expert translators' approaches and the development of translation competence. Background knowledge, cognitive skills and experience, along with other skills of translation competence or super-competence, take time to acquire and mature.

Discussed in the lines above, the endeavour to systematise expert, competent, and non-expert translators' approaches, addressing the third research question and aim of this study, leads to the following illustration:

Table 9.21.
Systematising Expert, Competent, and Non-Expert Translators' Approaches

Aspects of Approach	NON-EXPERT TRANSLATORS' APPROACH	COMPETENT TRANSLATORS' APPROACH	EXPERT TRANSLATORS' APPROACH
Type	Mixed approach (Start with top-down approach, change to bottom-up when focusing on a translation problem)	Mixed approach (Start with top-down approach, change to bottom-up when focusing on a translation problem)	Strategic approach (Mainly top-down/holistic) Automation Reiteration
Meaning	Do not always grasp the meaning (misinterpretations/ mistranslations, misunderstandings)	Do not always grasp the meaning (misinterpretations/ mistranslations, misunderstandings)	Grasp the meaning
Focus	Focus on linguistic characteristics and single words	Focus on single words	Focus on a sense-oriented procedure and longer text segments (phrases, clauses, sentences)
Search	Rely extensively on dictionary searching	Use of technology and supporting material	Use of technology and supporting material
Editing	Forget editing/revising	Forget editing/revising	Edit/revise
Confidence	Lack of confidence	Lack of confidence	Translate with confidence

Inspired by findings highlighted in Table 6.1. (Chapter 6, section 6.1.3.2.3., p. 182), Table 9.21. (p. 376) illustrates the aspects of expert versus non-expert translators' approaches as detected from the investigation for the purposes of this study. Similarities discussed above as well as differences in the approaches at all three competence levels can be easily seen, and a discussion on the gap phenomenon (as presented in Chapter 6) can be generated. This is what will be discussed in the following chapter (Chapter 10), as the gap phenomenon will be tackled in the implications of this study.

9.3.4. Final Remarks on Translators' Approaches in the Context of ChLT

In sum, the findings of this study are in agreement with what was highlighted in the introduction to Chapter 6, i.e. that studies on expert and non-expert translation approaches tend to reveal that expert translators present more successful behaviours and thus better practices in the translation process than students at all levels and aspects of their translation approach (Matrat, 1992; Kussmaul, 1995; Shreve, 1997; Jääskeläinen, 2000; Séguinot, 2000; Jarvella et al., 2002; Livbjerg & Mees in Alves, 2003; Lörcher, 1997, 2005; Pym, 2003; Smith, 2004, 2007; Englund Dimitrova, 2005; Olk, 2009; etc.). Differences between expert and non-expert translators' approaches are obvious and this is what establishes the gap phenomenon in the realm of translation competence.

Issues of translation expertise were discussed in the analysis of the translation process of the three FGs that were employed in the course of think-aloud studies to translate humour from English into Greek. The analysis of this process revealed aspects of competence and translation quality, which enables a better understanding of the progression from novice to expert and the skills that come (or do not come) to play a role in the translation process, highlighting the issue of the gap phenomenon (see Chapter 11).

9.4. Concluding Note

In this chapter, the main findings of the study were presented and scrutinised. Process-oriented translation strategies and approaches in the process of translating humour from English into Greek for children and YA, as well as governing norms, were illustrated and analysed in light of the emergent data. The presentation and analysis of findings was based on triangulated data, whenever possible, that consisted of beginners, competent, and expert translators' verbalised protocols, post-experiment questionnaires, and the researcher's diary. Attempts to systematically model translators' norms, strategies, and approaches in the context of HT in ChL from English into Greek were made, aiming to contribute to the existing gap in the field. Three models were suggested accordingly for norms (see Table 9.4, p. 269), strategies (see Table 9.12., p. 294), and approaches (see Table 9.21., p. 323), thus addressing the three research questions and aims set for the purposes of this study.

In the course of the data analysis, further outcomes of potential secondary benefit were found. In the next chapter, a discussion of the main findings will be undertaken, and a reference to beneficial outcomes addressing the aims and research questions of the study will be made.

Chapter 10

Chapter 10

Discussion of Findings

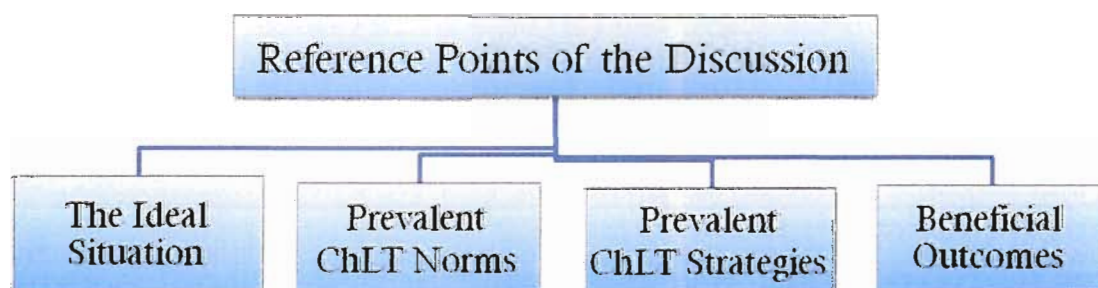
“As this world shrinks together like an ageing orange and all peoples in all cultures
move closer together (however reluctantly and suspiciously)
it may be that the crucial sentence for our remaining years on earth
may be very simply: TRANSLATE OR DIE.
The lives of every creature on the earth may one day depend
on the instant and accurate translation of one word”

(Engle & Engle in Genztler, 1993, p. 9)

10.0. Introductory Note

This chapter opens by a discussion of the main findings of the study with reference to key issues from the literature review (Chapters 1-7) so as to link the theory and the results from the analysis. The main ChLT norms that were found to govern the process of HT in this study as well as the most important underlying strategies are discussed. A focus also moves to interrogate the aspects of the approaches of the three FGs, with significant outcomes mostly serving to add to the current literature, as the study’s relevant findings confirm findings of other studies (e.g., Shreve, 1997; Lørscher, 1997, 2004; Smith, 2004, 2007; Englund Dimitrova, 2005; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007, 2008). The final section of the chapter highlights the outcomes of potential secondary benefit (beneficial outcomes) of the study that impact on translation pedagogy, translation research, and translation practice. Figure 10.1. below, illustrates the reference points of the discussion:

Figure 10.1.
Reference Points of the Discussion of the Main Findings of the Study



10.1. The Ideal Situation: Strategies (STR), Reasoning Decision-Making (R), Norms (N)

As highlighted in this study, participants who verbalised their thoughts, as required, spent a great deal of time working under particular norms and commenting on their hesitations, concerns, and decision-making procedures. They would often make reference to certain norms and highlight how these could affect aspects of the text they wanted to produce. When participants successfully verbalised their translation strategies and revealed their translation norms during the process of translation, the study was particularly productive.

In contrast to suggestions (Chapters 7 and 8) that it can be very difficult for participants to verbalise their principles and reason their approaches and choices (e.g., House, 1988; Ericsson & Simon, 1993), this study notes that the majority of participants not only succeeded in verbalising their thoughts (V), but they were also able to speak out their strategies (STR), explain and reason their decision-making and choices (R), and thus reveal their governing principles and norms (N). In certain protocols, the researcher witnessed the ‘ideal’ situation, where verbalising entailed the following components: STR, R, N. In this ‘ideal’ scenario, the participant verbalised a strategy and while giving reasons and explaining a specific choice, governing norms were revealed. The verbalisations below represent this ideal situation:

Table 10.1.
The Verbalisation of the Ideal Situation: STR, R, N

Protocols	Code	Researcher's Comments
I made a change again in the sequence, because it seemed to me that in the end it doesn't sound nice... I put the links 'and again' in front of 'this afternoon' (P3, FG1, p)	STR R, N STR	-shift (sound of language) -shift
Because it has 'Sainsbury's', I will not leave it 'Sainsbury's'. Due to the fact that in Greece and Cyprus possibly nobody knows 'Sainsbury's', I think I will simply put it as 'supermarket'... (P8, FG3, p)	STR R, N	-omission (familiarity)
OK. So, now we go to Google to see what comes up for 'bankers card', although I have the impression that since it is about children's literature, I shouldn't go for word-for-word, it's not the leaflet of the Bank of Cyprus that I am translating, for instance, so I think that at this stage it would be just enough, and I would be satisfied myself taking into account the target audience if it is for babies for kids let's say, maybe it will be just enough if I write simply identity, I think I will put identity. (P8, FG3, p)	STR, US R, N	-search, Google -simplicity of language

As Table 10.1. demonstrates, as soon as participants highlighted their translation strategies in the process of thinking-aloud, they were able to reason them. Reasoning them and explaining what led them to choose a certain strategy over another exposed the translation norms, which, in the course of this study, are believed to govern translators' strategies (see Chapter 3). The example in Table 10.1. is an encouraging finding in terms of translation pedagogy and practice, as it entails good practice that can take place in and out of the translation classroom. This result is also promising for translation research, as it shows the close relation between norms and strategies. It is also a significant outcome, as it strengthens the potentials of TAPs and think-aloud studies. These issues are further discussed in Chapter 11.

10.2. Discussing Prevalent Norms

As seen in Chapter 9, Table 9.1. (p. 267) and Table 9.3. (p. 268), in addressing the first aim and research question of the study, data suggests that the most prevalent translators' norms that seem to govern the process of translating humour in ChL from English into Greek are mainly pedagogical (54.50%), with appropriateness/correctness making up 19.35% of the reasoned verbalisations, familiarity (12.90%), and simplicity (8.06%), followed by comprehensibility and toning down with 6.44% each. The second most prevalent general norms are the literary ones (27.39%) with the sound of language (11.28%) and fluency (8.06%) being predominant, and naturalness and coherence with 4.33% and 3.22% respectively. Didactic norms (i.e. norms focusing traditionally on the moral rather than pedagogical aspect) governed the process of HT in ChL from English into Greek the least (1.61%), together with business and technical norms (0% each).

Thus, in this study, translators at all level of competence are found to believe that when translating ChL, the translator needs to provide a TT that:

1. Is mostly pedagogical, i.e.:

- Appropriate in theme, language, structure, and content (appropriateness/correctness, 19.35%)
- With a theme, plot, cultural references, etc., that the child-reader is familiar with (familiarity, 12.90%)
- Simple in language and structure, for children and YA to comprehend it (8.06%), and

2. Conforms to literary norms such as:

- Sounding good (sound of language, 11.28%) and reading fluently (fluency, 8.06%) and
- Having an equivalent humorous meaning to the ST (same meaning/equivalence)

These norms that resulted from a triangulation of the data collected for the purposes of this study link back to issues discussed mainly in Chapter 2: Shavit's suggested principles (section 2.1.4.2., p. 51), the missionary role of ChLT (section 2.1.3, p. 46), the issue of simplicity in ChL and ChLT (Chapter 1, section 1.1.5., p. 23), and the status of ChL and ChLT (Chapter 1, section 1.1.6., p. 26 and Chapter 2, section 2.1.5.1., p. 54). All these are long-standing issues in ChLT and will be discussed below.

10.2.1. Shavit's Diachronic Principles

To begin with, the translators' norms for HT in ChL revealed in this study are to a great extent in line with Shavit's (1986) constraints and requirements for a text to successfully enter the children's literary system (see Chapter 2, section 2.1.4.2., p. 51). According to the data collected, it seems that both of Shavit's (1986) principles hold true: "morality" (p. 122), leading to "an adjustment of the text to make it appropriate and useful to the child, in accordance with what society regards (at a certain point in time) as educationally 'good for the child'" (p. 113); and the "assumed level of the child's comprehension" (p. 122), leading to "an adjustment of the plot, characterisation, and language to prevailing society's perceptions of the child's ability to read and comprehend" (p. 113). Indeed, the fact that participants from all FGs made adjustments to the text, such as by replacing Sainsbury's supermarket with a local alternative (P4, FG2), or not wishing to translate 'a better class of person', so as not to emphasise underlying differences (P8, FG3), demonstrates that adjustments were made for morality and comprehension purposes. Shavit (1986) believes that the second principle of adjusting the text to the child's level of comprehension was more dominant in the late 1980s, when her work was published, whereas the first principle was more dominant in the past, when the concepts of appropriateness and didacticism in ChL prevailed. In this study, there still seemed to be concerns with both principles.

The findings of this study revealed that although didacticism (i.e. morality) does not govern the Greek and Greek-Cypriot translators' decision-making process and thus didactic norms (i.e. in terms of what is moral) are not prevalent, pedagogical norms (in terms of knowledge provision and teaching and learning) are very present. In other words, what is important is not what is moral (didacticism), but what teaches a child and provides knowledge (pedagogical). Indeed, appropriateness/correctness (19.35%) is the prominent norm, along with comprehensibility

(6.44%), but not in a prevalent position compared to Shavit's (1986) principles, as familiarity (12.90%) and simplicity (8.06%) make up a higher verbalisation rate, revealing their higher frequency in translators' minds.

This can imply that in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot ChLT contexts, translators make translation decisions according to what they feel is correct or right for the child to have and to read, thus "what is good for the child" (Shavit, 1986, p. 122). Although in Shavit's terms, appropriateness involved didacticism in terms of morality, in this study, as didacticism is not a prominent norm – making up only 1.62% in the 62 instances of norm-based verbalisations – it can be assumed that ChL and ChLT in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts might not be that far behind in developments in the field, as data from the study do not seem to support the presence of the traditional norm of didacticism (i.e. morality). Appropriateness does not seem to be linked to didacticism (i.e. what is moral/ethical), just as in Shavit's (1986) principles, but to what the child can be taught in terms of knowledge provision. In this way, the concept of appropriateness can be said to move away from the traditional concept of didacticism. In this study, appropriateness seems to take on a more contemporary character, where what is "good for the child" (Shavit, 1986) does not (only) mean what is morally good for the child, but what is appropriate and right in other respects: theme, plot, structure, language, etc.

Adjusting theme, plot, structure, and language was found to be important in this study, not only in the realm of appropriateness, but also in terms of comprehensibility. In line with Shavit's (1986) second principle, further predominant pedagogical norms were found to regulate the translators' choices, such as familiarity (12.90%) and simplicity (8.06%). Thus, elaborating on the second principle, and echoing what was noted for the case of appropriateness, this study expanded the concept, either with familiarity as a further norm of cognitive aspects or with literary norms (i.e. the sound of language and fluency), that in one way or another support comprehensibility. Therefore, the findings of this study corroborate Shavit's contribution to norm-based studies in ChLT and contribute, moreover, to them and to the development of the field generally by expanding these very concepts. Besides highlighting Shavit's diachronic contribution to the field, the study reveals a concern with the cognitive mission of translation in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts, touching upon another issue discussed in the literature review of the present study. This will be further elaborated below.

10.2.2. The Missionary Role of ChLT

The prevalent norm of appropriateness in this study can be said to be linked, as explained in section 10.2.1. above, to the didactic/pedagogical aspect of the role of ChLT (Shavit, 1986; Ben-Ari, 1992; Klingberg, 2008; Lathey, 2010). For this reason, in the following lines, appropriateness will be conceived of as a development of the traditional concept of didacticism. The norm of familiarity is in line with the cognitive aspect of the role of ChLT (Van Coille & Verschueren, 2006), which was explored in the literature review (see Chapter 2, section 2.1.3.4., p. 48). These two norms, i.e. appropriateness and familiarity, and their relation to the role of ChLT will be explored below.

- **The didactic/pedagogical aspect**

According to a number of scholars, the mission of ChL and ChLT is to communicate what is moral and to teach what is right, proper and good for the child (Shavit, 1986; Ben-Ari, 1992; Klingberg, 2008; Lathey, 2010). Although the findings of this study are not indicative of this norm, which was traditionally linked to ethics and the moral mission of ChLT, it can be suggested that, in this study, appropriateness expands the didactic/pedagogical mission of ChLT and even separates those two aspects as a development of the field in the course of the years. Didacticism is concerned with what moral is, and pedagogical means what is appropriate to teach as knowledge and information, in terms of the theme, plot, structure, language, etc. (see Chapter 9, Table 9.6., p. 280). A development in the concept of didacticism and thus the didactic mission of translation seems to take place based on this study's findings. As the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts are said to lag behind in developments in the fields of ChL and ChLT (Katsonis, 2008), this development is seen as an advance in the field and is a major contribution of the study in question. The notion of what is appropriate seems to be changing and developing in recent years. Findings suggest that what is appropriate is not necessarily what is didactic/moral, but it is knowledge and information that are worthy for a child to know, experience, learn and be taught.

- **The cognitive aspect**

The cognitive element is another prevalent aspect of the role of ChLT in the context of this study. This aspect is linked to the norm of familiarity that – as seen in Chapter 3 – is itself related to domestication versus foreignisation (Venuti, 1998). A tendency to produce a TT where 'the familiar' (i.e. what is already known) instead of the 'unfamiliar' (i.e. unknown, foreign and exotic) prevails, so as to avoid a 'culture shock', seems to have been the aim of the participants. Although, as pointed out in the literature review, the child who reads a translated book from another culture attempts to make sense out of it by activating cognitive skills, such as thinking,

analysing, making comparisons, etc. (Economidou, 2000; Stein, 2000; Jobe in Hunt & Bannister Ray, 2004; Mallouri, 2006; Sinfield & Hawkins, 2006), translators do not seem to know or act in accordance with this idea. This governing norm (i.e. familiarity) makes translators in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts favour the domestication approach (Venuti, 1998). This is contrary to the tendency that has recently been noticed in ChLT at the European and international levels, highlighting a move away from domestication to foreignisation (Gavrielidou, 2010). At the same time, this norm reveals that translators do not seem to be aware of the multicultural role of ChL and ChLT as discussed in Chapter 2 (see section 2.2., p. 65). The situation is indicative of – and confirms the situation in – the Greek and especially the Greek-Cypriot contexts, where developments are delayed compared to the rest of Europe and the world (Katsonis, 2008; Gavrielidou, 2010; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). In this respect, this study raises awareness of this situation and its impact on translator behaviour, in order to promote successful translator behaviour and training practices for ChL and ChLT, especially in the Greek-Cypriot context.

10.2.3. Simplicity

With many constraints to take into account, as mentioned in Chapter 2 of this thesis, the translation or adaptation of adults' texts for children is often thought to be a complex task (Shavit, 1986; Von Stockar, 1996; Kanatsouli, 1997; Lathey, 2006; Gavrielidou, 2010). This does not seem to be how the participants of this study saw it, however. When informed by the researcher that they would be translating for children and YA, participants seemed to believe that the tasks would, on the whole, be fairly easy (see Chapter 8). Indeed, participants from FG1 brought no supporting material with them, which could imply a reliance on the supposed simplicity of structure and language of ChL texts. This is a common attitude towards ChL, as people grow up with certain characteristic features of ChL in mind. Participants of FG3 seemed to possess some background knowledge resulting from what they have learnt throughout their school life, i.e. that ChL (and thus ChLT) is simplistic, optimistic, straightforward, mainly about childhood, expresses a child's point of view, does not contain adult themes and is child appropriate, didactic, and useful to the child, always enabling the reader's easy comprehension, and promoting their ability to read and speak (see Chapter 1, section 1.2.1.4., p. 34). It is interesting to note that the perceived simplicity of the task, or texts, by both FGs did not, however, necessarily translate into similar behaviours in terms of preparation and research. Indeed, some participants in FG3 brought supporting material with them.

As simplicity is a characteristic often associated with ChL (Croutch, 1962; Tucker, 1976; Petrovits-Androutsopoulou, 1990; McDowel, 1991; Nodelman, 1992; Xenii, 2007), the beginners

in this study thought they would not need any supporting material, a decision a number of them regretted. For the participants in the other two FGs, competent and professional translators, the perceived simplicity of the task became problematic during their verbalisations, as they slowly realised something which was contrary to their background knowledge and personal views: that translating for children and YA may not be as ‘simple’ as they initially thought, and that simplicity could be just a myth. The following extracts illustrate this situation clearly:

Table 10.2.
The Myth of Simplicity of Children’s Literature

FG1	FG2	FG3
<p>During a discussion at a prior TAPs phase ‘Maria 2’ admitting how anxious she was about the whole research experience she told me: “I need to remember, though, that I am doing this for children and young adults. <u>They need to understand what they read, so simple language is a must!</u>” (P6, FG1, rd)</p> <p>Although TAPS was fun and a unique experience, <u>I spent much thought on toning things down, as the text was for children and young adults.</u> (P7, FG1, pq)</p> <p>Translating for children was to my surprise a really hard task. I had to keep in mind <u>that literature aims to teach children and young adults, so the text had to be comprehensible, not too difficult structure and vocabulary.</u> (P8, FG1, pq)</p>	<p>Another interesting issue that comes up from Chris’s verbalisations is a well-known ‘myth’ about Children’s Literature Translation. According to this myth, <u>this is an area that is easy to deal with as it is of a very simple language and structure.</u> This is one of the reasons this area is undervalued and underestimated by many. (P3, FG2, rd)</p> <p><u>I can’t believe that I need a dictionary here!</u> (P3, FG2, p)</p> <p>‘It all started when I began to assemble my model airplane’. <u>That simple but at the same time that complicated!</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>Before the beginning of the TAPs session she looked at her watch and whispered: “Well, it won’t take that long. <u>I’ll just tone things down and make them clear and simple!</u>” (P5, FG2, rd)</p>	<p>OK. So, now we go to Google too see what comes up for ‘bankers card’, although I have the impression that <u>since it is about children’s literature I shouldn’t go for word-for-word, it’s not the leaflet of the Bank of Cyprus that I am translating, for instance.</u> So, I think that at this stage it would be just enough, and I would be satisfied myself taking into account the target audience. <u>If it is for babies, for kids let’s say, maybe it will be just enough if I write simply identity. I think I will put identity.</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p>I tried to <u>make it simple</u> as we expect them to learn from literature. (P8, FG3, pq)</p>

As noted earlier, in Table 10.1., it is clear that the issue of simplicity is raised in the participants’ verbalisations and poses a translation problem that becomes a cognitive load for the translator who needs to solve it and proceed with his task. The issue is twofold, however, as the problem encountered clashes with a personal view and pre-existing knowledge, which conceives of the translation of ChL as easy to undertake. As conflicts occur, then it becomes possible for misconceptions to disappear.

Another interesting point about simplicity which can be gathered from the data in Table 10.2. is the translators’ belief that in order for children to learn, things have to be made simple and comprehensible. There seems to be consensus that learning cannot be achieved through complexity. Although this may be true to some extent, it could also be argued that unless children are exposed, at some point, to some level of complexity, then they will not be able to properly

engage with complex thoughts, such as paradoxes, predicaments, etc., in later years. The idea that no learning at all can take place when language or concepts are not simple or fully understandable is debatable and deserves to be challenged, particularly if it is a norm influencing translator behaviour, as it could have long-term consequences for the translation of ChL.

10.2.4. The Status of ChL and ChLT

Interestingly, a number of participants refer to the status of ChL and ChLT and pinpoint the fact that, to many, ChLT is often ignored and undervalued (Shavit, 1986; Lathey, 2006; Pinsent, 2006). The extracts below (Table 10.3.) reflect this issue in the participants' thoughts and words:

Table 10.3.
Translating for Children: A Marginalised Area

FG1	FG2	FG3
	<p><u>I can't believe that I need a dictionary here!</u> (P3, FG2, p)</p> <p>Another interesting issue that comes up from Chris's verbalisations, is a well-known 'myth' about Children's Literature Translation. According to this myth, <u>this is an area that is easy to deal with as it is of a very simple language and structure. This is one of the reasons this area is undervalued and underestimated by many.</u> (P3, FG2, rd)</p> <p>It all started when I began to assemble my model airplane. <u>That simple, but at the same time that complex!</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p>	<p>OK. So, now we go to Google to see what comes up for 'bankers card', although I have the impression that <u>since it is about children's literature, I shouldn't go for word-for-word, it's not the leaflet of the Bank of Cyprus that I am translating, for instance.</u> So, I think that at this stage it would be just enough, and I would be satisfied myself taking into account the target audience. If it is for babies, for kids let's say, maybe it will be just enough if I write simply identity. I think I will put identity. (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p>TAPs session was a new experience! <u>And translating for children is always a happy routine break as I don't get to do that often. Not much demand, not many opportunities here. And it's really fun!</u> You just need to remember to write as simple as possible so as for the child to understand and get the message. (P9, FG3, pq)</p> <p>Interestingly, 'Thanos' admitted he had never experienced TAPs before and felt excited to be participating in research conducted within the realm of translation studies, an area that was unfamiliar to him as during his BA course there was no focus on research during translation theory lectures and translation practice workshops. Additionally, he admitted <u>he was impressed to be translating for children, something he saw as 'a break' from his everyday translation routine.</u> (P9, FG3, rd)</p>

The comments of the two competent translators during the TAPs session (P3 and P4, FG2) and the remark made by the professional translator (P8, FG3, p) clearly point out how translators undervalue and underestimate the area of ChL itself. Even the comment of the second professional translator (P9, FG3), i.e. that translating for children was a break from his daily routine, implies that translating for children and YA is not valued to the same extent as other translation jobs, or that it is not given the credit that an academic disciplinary area should have.

These comments can be linked back to Chapter 2, where it was highlighted that ChLT is not treated equally to other areas of TS. It suffers from low status and lack of prestige and it is undervalued (Shavit, 1986; Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998; Lathey, 2006, 2010; Pinsent, 2006). Although ChL is an area of importance to society with many benefits for the child's developmental life, it does not seem to be given the place it deserves in translation theory and practice (O'Connell in Lathey, 2006; Stolt in Lathey, 2006; Thomson-Wolgemuth, 2006, 2009).

Translating children's books from and into other languages increases the number of truly excellent literary works available to young people, introduces them to segments of life in other cultures, fosters an international outlook and an understanding of both the uniqueness and the universality of human experience, and enables children to join worlds where they can fulfill their needs (Wells, 1986; Bassnet, 1993; Jobe in Hunt & Bannister Ray, 2004; Lundin, 2004; O'Sullivan, 2005; Desmidt in Pinsent, 2006; Xeni, 2006e, 2007, 2010; Luckens, Smith & Coffey, 2012). Therefore, as argued in Chapter 2, translated literature is a vital part of children's and YA's lives and should continue to develop as such, leading parents, grandparents, educators, librarians, academics, teachers, editors, publishers, translators, etc., to make literature (original or translated) more accessible (Lehman, 2004; Lundin, 2004; Nodleman, 2008; etc.)

10.2.5. Final Remarks on Norms

As seen above, the main findings regarding the first aim and research question of this study reveal prevalent norms that fuel discussions covering issues, such as Shavit's (1986) diachronic principles, the missionary role of ChLT, simplicity in ChL and ChLT, and the status of ChL and ChLT. What is interesting to observe, is that long-standing concepts, (e.g., didactic, pedagogical) and norms in TS in general and ChLT in particular (e.g., appropriateness, equivalency, familiarity, etc.) co-exist with new ones (i.e. aesthetic, business, technical), providing a concrete list of ChLT norms (see Chapter 9, Table 9.6., p. 280), which was a crucial requirement for the purposes of this study. The fact that older concepts and norms can still be encountered as prevalent in the ChLT context (i.e. appropriateness, equivalency, simplicity, and comprehensibility) reveals their diachronic nature and acknowledges once more the contribution of scholars who first proposed them (Klingberg, 1978; Shavit, 1986).

In the discussion below, the main findings regarding the second and third research questions and aims of this study will be discussed. Thus, what was significant regarding translation strategies and approaches in the course of HT in ChL will be highlighted.

10.3. Discussing Prevalent Strategies

Investigating translators' strategies in the process of translating humour for children and YA was the second research and aim question. According to the model of process-oriented HT strategies in ChL devised in the literature review for the purposes of the present study – inspired by Seguinot's model (2000) – strategies that translators from all FGs employed were detected, analysed, and modeled (Table 9.12, Chapter 9, p. 294). Based on the strategies (i.e. communication (55.24%), monitoring (28.95%), and search (15.78%)) a specific sub-strategy of the prevalent communication ones that ought to be discussed in this chapter, is exoticism. Indeed, this prevalent communication strategy was employed by FG2 and FG3 in the process of translation.

10.3.1. Exoticism

Based on the process-oriented HT strategies model designed for the purposes of this study (see Table 9.12., Chapter 9, p. 294) and the literature review in this thesis, exoticism (Séguinot, 2000) was shown to be linked to foreignisation (Painter in Lathey, 2006), which is a trend in the European and international ChL and ChLT context. As seen in the previous section and in the literature review, in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts (Gavrielidou, 2010), translators chose to employ domestication, however, as their decision-making was found to be predominantly governed by the norm of familiarity (see Chapter 9, section 9.1.2., p. 271).

Exoticism could still be witnessed, as it was the third prevalent specific process-oriented strategy that translators employed when translating humour. This indicates, perhaps for the first time, the potential for the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts to follow the trends in Europe and the rest of the world, albeit belatedly and gradually. This tendency is also in line with the multicultural mission of ChL and ChLT respectively as it was presented in Chapter 2 (see section 2.2., p. 63). This gives hope that the Greek and Greek-Cypriot ChL and ChLT research and practice framework might not continue to lag behind European and international developments for long. In this study, progress in terms of ChLT in Greece and Cyprus was demonstrated, and the increasing use of exoticism seems to be a clear indication of progress, which is why it is highlighted as an important finding and a promising process-oriented translators' strategy for translating humour in ChL.

10.3.2. Final Remarks on Strategies

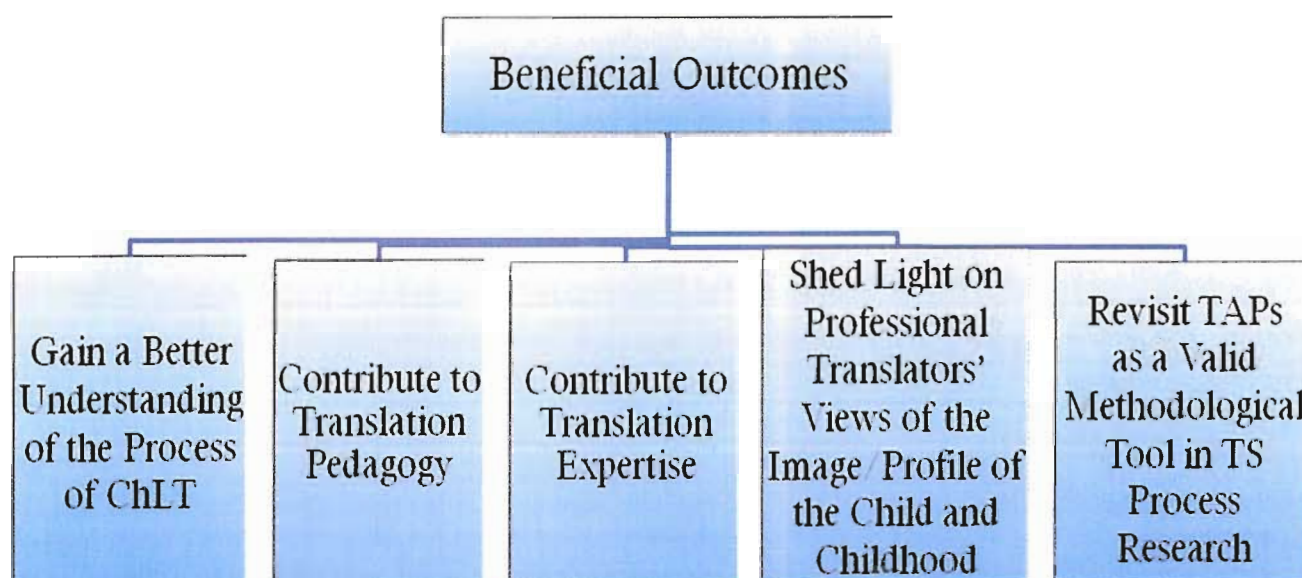
In addressing the second research question and aim of the study, the findings in relation to the use of exoticism as a translation strategy mark an important change in the translation tradition of the Greek and Cypriot contexts. Exoticism, which is closely related to foreignisation, and thus a European and international trend in the context of ChLT, is seen as a promising outcome as it is – to our knowledge – the only link to global contemporary developments in ChLT. Exoticism is also addressed in section 10.4.2. below.

In addition, outcomes of potential secondary benefit were found to be worthy of discussion in the context of this thesis. These are elaborated in the following section.

10.4. Outcomes of Potential Secondary Benefit

The investigation of norms, strategies, and approaches of translators at three levels of expertise as they worked on the translation task given in the context of this translation process-oriented study, also revealed outcomes of potential secondary benefit. The beneficial outcomes of relevance to three TS areas (TS research, pedagogy, and practice) are illustrated in Figure 10.2. below and discussed in the following lines.

Figure 10.2.
Beneficial Outcomes of the Study



10.4.1. Gain a Better Understanding of the Process of ChLT

An aim of TS process-oriented research is to gain a better understanding of the process of translation. What happens in the process of translation, what the translator thinks, does (or does not), says or feels, what factors appear to have an impact in the process, etc., are all aspects of the translation process that, when investigated, unravel a number of elements occurring, enabling in many ways a better process know-how (Gambier, Shesinger, & Stolze, 2007; Hansen, 2005; Chesterman, 2008; Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009b).

As a less researched and a somewhat marginalised area at the European and international levels, (Hunt, 1990, 1992; Hearne & Sutton, 1991; Clark, 1993; Shavit, 1994; Thomson-Wolgemouth, 1998; Lesnik-Oberstein, 2004; O'Connell in Lathey, 2006), ChLT was chosen to be the focus of this study, which revealed aspects of the process by investigating, in the context of think-aloud studies, translators' norms, strategies, and attitudes while they translated humorous extracts from *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾*. With this investigation, the study contributed to ChLT in the Greek and especially the Greek-Cypriot contexts, as TS research in general and ChLT research in particular are still at a rudimentary stage. As for humour studies and HT, it can be said that this study is considered to be one of the first to address this issue, especially in the context of translation process research, TAPs, investigating participants at three levels of translation competence, and the combination of English and Greek as languages under study.

The study gave a clearer view of what takes place while translators translate humour for children and YA. As derived from the findings, translators employed more communication, and less monitoring and search strategies (see Table 9.8., p. 285). In addition, translators' strategies and attitudes were mostly governed by pedagogical norms (54.5%), i.e. appropriateness, familiarity, simplicity, comprehensibility, and toning down, and less by literary norms (27.39%), i.e. sound of language, fluency, naturalness, and coherence, or source text-oriented norms (11.12%), i.e. equivalency, accuracy, and authenticity). Didactic norms (1.61%), business norms, and technical norms were the norms that governed translators' decision-making the least.

These findings are important as they link back to traditional trends in ChL and ChLT seen in Chapters 1 and 2 (Shavit, 1986; Lathey, 2006; Pinsent, 2006; etc.), calling for a need for ChL and ChLT in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts to be developed (Katsonis, 2008; Gavrielidou, 2010; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). This highlights the significance of this study, which hopes to contribute to the body of knowledge in translation process research in ChL and TS more generally.

10.4.2. Contribute to Translation Pedagogy

Translation pedagogy is another area that this thesis contributes to. Quoting Mu Lei (1999): “[n]ot everybody recognises the importance of translation teaching, but there is perhaps no other discipline of language and literature that so comprehensively reflects new research in linguistics, literature, aesthetics and other areas” (p. 199).

The importance of translation pedagogy is therefore clear, despite debates over the years in relation to how it should be carried out (Hatim, 1989b; Mu Lei, 1999; Kiraly, 2000; Baer & Koby, 2003; Cook, 2010; Chesterman, 2008; Gile, 2009). For many years, translation was right at the heart of language teaching and learning (Cook, 2010). It was considered to be a means of testing and assessing foreign language skills and deepening students’ understanding of two languages and two cultures, learning both the foreign language and the mother tongue thoroughly, and enhancing students’ knowledge of linguistic structures, while simultaneously encouraging problem solving, critical thinking, as well as metalinguistic and metacognitive skills (Razmjou, 2004).

A better understanding of translation processes, such as thinking and decision-making, contributes to translation pedagogy as it may be the basis for supporting good practice in translation pedagogy contexts (Hansen, 2005; Gambier, Shesinger, & Stolze, 2007; Chesterman, 2008; Göpferich & Jääskeläinen, 2009b). An in-depth study of translation approaches detected during the process of translation can lead to significant improvement in translation teaching itself. Carrying out this type of study may lead to the design of new teaching approaches and methods that would help develop translators’ skills and improve their quantitative and qualitative performance. It may also sustain practices that support translation students’ needs.

As seen in Chapter 6, one of the goals of translation pedagogy is to guide students’ development through different stages from novice to competent, resulting in an expert translator (Smith, 2004, 2007; Englund Dimitrova, 2005; etc.). Translation expertise is further developed below.

10.4.3. Contribute to Translation Expertise

What characterises the cognitive processes of expert translators is an issue that scholars have been attempting to explore and understand so as to promote good practice in translation pedagogy, improve translation pedagogy curricula, and support translators’ further development. Taking this into account, the present thesis aimed to discover the translation strategies of beginner, competent, and expert translators as they translate humour in ChL from English into Greek, and

the norms underlying decision-making during the translation process, in order to enable a clearer understanding of what is required to become an expert translator.

In Chapter 6 it was highlighted that the skills required to become an expert translator are numerous and constantly evolving (Smith, 2004, 2007). A reference to translation competence and the sub-competences required was made, and it was explained that the development from beginner (novice) to expert involves acquiring the missing sub-competencies and re-structuring the existing sub-competencies (EMT expert group, 2009; Göpferich, 2009; PACTE, 2000; 2009; Massey & Ehrensberger-Dow, 2010, 2011).

Data from this study confirm similar studies in the realm of translation competence and translation expertise, highlighting that with increasing translation competence, translators have a clear strategic plan (Jääskeläinen, 1993; Hönig, 1995) according to which they approach the text in a less ST-oriented and linear fashion (Krings, 1986; Tirkkonen-Condit, 1992). They are also more aware of translation problems and are confident with technology and supporting material (Smith, 2004; 2007). Experienced and advanced translators can handle a large cognitive load and present metacognitive skills (problem-solving, decision-making, critical reflection, editing, revising, improving, self-assessment, risk-taking, etc.) (Gerloff, 1988; Jääskeläinen, 1999; Smith, 2004; 2007; Alves, 2005; Dam-Jensen & Heine, 2009).

10.4.4. Shed Light on Professional Translators' Views of the Image/Profile of the Child and Childhood⁵¹

In the literature review of this thesis it was highlighted that translators had been neglected for years in society (see Chapter 2). Although they are important players with a key role in forming childhood, they have always been placed on the periphery of the system. As it has already been stressed, translators belonged to “the great disappeared of history” (Lathey, 2006, p. 209), but “today they have a higher profile than any time in the recent past” (Pinsent, 2006, p. 1). This had also been the case for translation theory, research, and practice, as according to Stolt (in Lathey, 2006): “[i]n the theoretical works in the subject one hardly finds anything relevant on this subject” (p. 1). This is seconded by O’Connel (in Lathey, 2006), who asserts that “this area remains largely ignored by theorists, publishers and academic institutions involved” (p. 1). An attempt to investigate translators’ perspectives, such as the present study, is exceptionally important, as it

⁵¹ This section was presented and discussed at the First Interdisciplinary Postgraduate Conference at the School of Languages and Social Sciences at Aston University, Birmingham, UK, held on the 28th June 2012. A full reference of this is the following: Xen, E. (2012). The Image of the Child and Childhood in the Context of Translation Process Research. Paper Presentation at the First Interdisciplinary Postgraduate Conference of the School of Languages and Social Sciences at Aston University (1st IPC/LSS 2012) on “Making Research Count”, Aston University, Birmingham, UK, 28 June, 2012.

places the translator in the centre of the study, paying attention to his ideology, normative behaviour, and decision-making.

From the data collected and analysed, it was very interesting to see the image of the child and childhood formed from the translators' point of view. What was more interesting was to study the influence this image had during the decision-making process while translators translated the text given. This issue turned out to be a real challenge in this study as the topic itself – the image/profile of the child and childhood – has only been investigated very superficially from the point of view of parents, teachers, writers, librarians, editors, and has never been studied before from the professional translators' viewpoint (James & Prout, 1997; Mills & Mills, 2000; Kehily, 2004; James & James, 2008; Xeni, 2012).

Based on the findings of the study, the image held of the child, and childhood itself, affects significantly the decision-making process and translation choices of professional translators in the process of translating humour in ChL from English into Greek. As the emerging norms in this study suggest (see Chapter 9, section 9.1.1., p. 266, Figure 9.2., p. 270), for translators:

- The child should be exposed to appropriate texts in terms of language, and thus language needs to be comprehensible (and correct) and toned down, and the child needs to be familiar with the vocabulary (language).
- The child should be exposed to appropriate texts in terms of context, theme, and plot, and thus the child needs to be familiar with these three elements.
- In terms of translated literature, the child should be exposed to a TT that is of the same/equivalent meaning to the ST, and that reads naturally with a good sound of language.

In the context presented above, translators employed additions (single words versus explanatory translation, within text versus footnotes), omissions, and shifts (grammatical level, syntactical level, etc.). A number of them showed a tendency to use the Internet or the dictionary, so as to make a choice that would adhere to the image of the child that they had in mind. Surprisingly, some did not seem to adhere to familiarity in language or context, as it was obvious that they chose exoticism and decided to employ foreignisation. Although they did not seem to be consistent with their own image of child and childhood, in terms of research this is significant, as it is the only point where translators made reference to a more contemporary and less traditional, or conservative, image of the child and childhood. Indeed, the child is viewed by a few translators

as potentially able to take in and learn foreign ideas or language (Yamasaki, 2002; Gavrielidou, 2010).

Comparing to the European and international contexts, the image of child and childhood the 10 Greek and Greek-Cypriot professional translators have seems to be lagging behind in developments in childhood studies, ChL studies, language and literacy studies, etc. (Mills & Mills, 2000; Kehily, 2004; Lathey, 2006; Pinsent, 2006; James & James, 2008). Interestingly, the Greek and Greek-Cypriot adult contexts seem to be too protective and too conservative towards child and childhood. Nonetheless, for the most part, professional translators' choices were of an extremely protective nature, as they opted to make things (i.e. language, context, theme, and plot) better for the child-reader (and the adult-reader) in terms of comprehensibility and appropriateness. This links back to the years of the protected childhood and the period when the child was considered to be solely dependent on the adult (see Chapters 1 and 2). An interesting observation could be drawn from the translators' comments. In these, they kept on referring to literature or translation choices for 'the child', 'kids', or 'children', leaving 'YA' or 'teenagers' out of the picture. One particular interpretation of this can be that, for adults in a protective and conservative environment, a YA or a teenager is (still) considered to be a child. It could also be argued that viewing or imagining the entire readership as 'kids' or 'children' will have influenced the protective will to domesticate, thus skewing the source author's aim in translation, and potentially alienating part of the actual readership made up of older children unlikely to take kindly to being talked down to.

In this instance, the translators' view/image of the child may have distorted the entire translation process and resulted in an unsatisfactory translation, or, at least, one which may not fulfil all of its readers' needs and requirements. On the other hand, the translators who chose to exoticise, provided they were doing so strategically and not out of a lack of knowledge, give us some hope for the future. Their image of children as capable of being exposed to and learning new and different ideas is rather forward-thinking, and might open the way for the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts to meet the contemporary challenges in ChLT "by respecting and providing the best in translations or they [children and YA] will be cheated out of part of their global heritage" (Jobe in Hunt & Bannister Ray, 2004, p. 521).

10.4.5. Revisit TAPs as an Effective Methodological Tool in TS Process Research

From the presentation and analysis of findings, it could be said that TAPs provided a large amount of data that were correlated with post-experiment questionnaires and the researcher's diary for triangulation purposes. In this section, the main outcomes related to TAPs will be discussed as, in addition to the aims and the research questions of this study, the validity of TAPs as a methodological tool in TS and how participants' approached TAPs, its potential, etc., are also issues of interest. As will be pointed out in Chapter 11, findings concerning TAPs have an impact on the future of TS process research as well as implications for translation pedagogy and translation practice.

10.4.5.1. Testing the Validity of TAPs as a Methodological Tool

A beneficial outcome of this study was testing the validity of TAPs as a methodological tool as it can shed some light on the nature of the translation process and performance. As seen in this study, the researcher treated the protocol as a record of the subject's ongoing problem-solving behaviour and took what was said as an indication of the participant's strategies and norms while translating humour. A general observation that was made in relation to the verbalisations in this chapter is that each group of participants and each individual participant had their own specific ways of dealing with the given translation task. Data illustrating the participants' behaviours during the TAPs based on the researcher's observations were provided. During each TAPs session, it was possible for the researcher to make general and specific notes on the participants' verbalisations as well as translation norms, strategies, attitudes, and behavioural patterns appearing in/during the participants' work. As norms, strategies, and attitudes were found, presented, and discussed above, this attests to the validity of the research tool. In the following lines, further findings relevant to TAPs and its validity will be discussed.

10.4.5.2. Experiencing Research in Translation Studies with TAPs

One of the limitations of this study revolved around the professionals' attitude towards research in TS and in society in general (see also Chapter 8, section 8.4., p. 261). A number of professional translators contacted by the researcher refused to volunteer for the TAPs session at first. Surprisingly, however, the reasons they gave – apart from being quite busy at the time – revealed either a lack of knowledge and experience with regards to research and its potential, or a lack of esteem for the field of TS research. The examples in Table 10.4., below, are representative of this attitude:

Table 10.4.
Participants' Experience of Research in Translation Studies

FG1	FG2	FG3
<p>TAPs was a very good experience. Actually, this might help me in the future to report my thoughts and put an order in my written production easier. I <u>found it interesting to participate in a person's research activity</u>. (P3, FG1, pq).</p> <p>TAPs was a new experience to P3 in terms of research. An interesting one. (P3, FG1, rd)</p>		<p>I was totally convinced I wanted to experience TAPs session, <u>as I had never participated in research attempts in translation studies before</u>. Having graduated from a well known translation department long time ago, I have been working as a translator for many years now. <u>Interestingly research never crossed my way up until now and wow! I had no idea that there is such a thing in translation studies. I thought everything started and ended up with translation practice</u>. Although I tried hard in the warming up stage and managed some verbalising before entering the actual TAPs session, I was unable to continue, as this whole thing was confusing and exhausting to me. (P7, FG3, pq)</p> <p><u>To me the whole thing was an unrealistic task. In my everyday life I am locked in my house office and translate in peace and quiet on my own. As I translate I do not even think! For some years now as soon as I get the source text I have to translate, my fingers dance on the computer typewriter and with fast movements I see the text and translate it. There is no time to think as you translate. The clients do not wait! It's work, you know, it's not research!</u> (P7, FG3, pq)</p> <p><u>Interestingly P7 had no experience in research in TS. This had an impact to the whole approach adopted throughout the research experiment – a negative one towards TAPs that she found confusing.</u> (P7, FG3, rd)</p> <p><u>I had never experienced TAPs before and felt excited to be participating in research conducted within the realm of translation studies, an area that is unfamiliar to me as during my BA course there was no focus on research during translation theory lectures and translation workshops.</u> (P8, FG3, pq)</p> <p>Here comes another participant less (or not at all) experienced in research in TS! <u>She articulates that there was no research focus in her BA years.</u> (P8, FG3, rd)</p>

It is quite startling to still see this rift between theory and practice, and difficult to conceive that practitioners would have so little awareness of translation research. This lack of understanding of what research in TS actually is discouraged many potential recruits. A number of participants stated that they would be embarrassed to be exposed or they felt that the TAPs session would place them in a vulnerable position. Embarrassment, shyness, discomfort, and suspicion towards the TAPs methodology were all very obvious amongst the majority of professionals contacted, and even amongst those who eventually became volunteers after much negotiating. All these are relevant issues that impacted on the study and TAPs methodology, and will thus be addressed further in Chapter 11, as they have implications for translation research, pedagogy, and practice.

10.4.5.3. TAPs in the Eyes of the Participants: Pros and Cons

In addition to the reluctance to participate in the study and the acknowledged gap between theory and practice, participants' verbalisations revealed specific attitudes concerning TAPs. In line with the various advantages and drawbacks discussed in Chapter 7, participants from all FGs mentioned how embarrassing, exposing, and uncomfortable verbalising their thoughts felt to them. Professionals, more specifically, stressed that the TAPs session was tiring, time-consuming,

and set in unrealistic conditions. However, when commenting on the experience itself, as seen in the above section, many acknowledged that it was a unique, challenging, interesting, and significant one. The comments below illustrate these differing emotions and feelings:

Table 10.5.
TAPs in the Eyes of the Participants of the Study

FG1	FG2	FG3
<p><u>I found the TAPs session quite interesting</u>, and I can't wait to get a report on the results (P1, FG1, pq).</p> <p><u>This experience was a good one, but I don't think it represents real life conditions.</u> (P2, FG1, pq)</p> <p><u>TAPs was a very good experience.</u> It is really interesting to participate at a person's research activity. (P3, FG1, pq)</p> <p><u>To me, TAPs was a quite interesting experience.</u> (P4, FG1, pq)</p> <p><u>I found TAPS an interesting and unique experience.</u> (P6, FG1, pq)</p> <p>Of course, for my case, the second writing, or better say the third writing, comes as soon as I re-read the text after some time [...] <u>Now my working conditions are not realistic</u>, and I am not sure If I can be heard. (...) with fast rhythms and I am not sure if this works... it isn't ... (...) Let's keep on this way and we shall see... (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p>The TAPs experiment is <u>very interesting</u>. It must be a <u>significant experience</u> for the researcher, too, who might end up with remarkable theoretical results. (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p>P10 found that <u>the experience was a good one</u>, even though he commented <u>he never does this [verbalising his thoughts] in his everyday life as he translates.</u> (P10, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>TAPs session was very interesting! I <u>had a nice time. I found the tasks challenging.</u> (P2, FG2, pq)</p> <p>I had left several unsolved problems, as I could use limited supporting material in the course of the experiment. I could not get some advice from a colleague, <u>as it happens in real life</u>, so I just used the internet. (P3, FG2, pq)</p> <p><u>Reporting our thoughts is not an easy task.</u> I did not feel 100% comfortable to speak out every single thought I made every second at the same way I confess it to myself silently. (P4, FG2, pq)</p>	<p><u>The whole idea of me verbalising my every thought as I was translating was out of question! I cannot think of people really doing this! It's schizophrenic, needless to say it should take ages to actually translate a text this way! God, it felt so uncomfortable</u>". (P1, FG3, pq)</p> <p>Me verbalising my translation logic and effort was very confusing. <u>Being asked to do something I had never done before in my translation career and something that was not 'under my professional skin', I found the verbalising task extremely difficult and impossible to achieve.</u> Understanding, thinking, speaking my thought and writing the translation was too much for me and definitely did not make sense to me. (P2, FG3, pq)</p> <p><u>I translated with less speed than I am used to and I felt a bit tired as I tried to give voice to my thinking.</u> (P4, FG3, pq)</p> <p><u>Being asked to act like never before as I translated, it was definitely difficult firstly because it was a totally new experience</u> and secondly because listening to my very own voice was too very confusing. Understanding the ST, thinking how to translate, making a decision and speaking it out all the time was way too hard for me. (P6, FG3, pq)</p> <p>To me the whole thing was an unrealistic task. In my everyday life I am locked in my house office and translate in peace and quiet on my own. <u>As I translate I do not even think! For some years now, as soon as I get the source text I have to translate, my fingers dance on the computer typewriter and with fast movements I see the text and translate it. There is no time to think as you translate. The clients do not wait! It's work, you know, it's not research!</u> (P7, FG3, pq)</p> <p><u>a challenging experience</u>" (P8, FG3, pq)</p>

From reading the comments above, it seems that experts were much more negative towards TAPs than beginner and competent translators. Their comments highlighted the complex nature of TAPs, as to some of them it turned out to be 'extremely difficult' and 'impossible to achieve' (P2, FG3, pq), or 'way too hard' (P6, FG3, pq). It is interesting to note that some professionals expressed a dislike for TAPs due to its lack of authenticity, i.e. the fact that it does not mirror a 'real' situation. Clearly a research experiment is not going to reflect a professional practice

perfectly, nor is it always meant to. Although every care was taken to make the situation realistic, the aim was to investigate the process, to pick it apart, and not solely to reproduce a working context, but this aspect seems to have evaded the professionals.

A number of experts, realising that TAPs requires constant multitasking (e.g., 'Understanding the ST, thinking how to translate, making a decision and speaking it out all the time...' (P6, FG3, pq), found it tiring, e.g., 'I felt a bit tired as I tried to give voice to my thinking' (P4, FG3, pq). What is more, the aspect of verbalising their thoughts was to some 'schizophrenic' and 'uncomfortable' (P1, FG3, pq), or confusing, e.g., 'listening to my very own voice was too very confusing' (P6, FG3, pq). Although speed was not a parameter under investigation, some experts paid a lot of attention to it, highlighting it as another negative aspect of TAPs: 'It should take ages to actually translate a text this way!' (P1, FG3, pq), and 'There is no time to think as you translate. The clients do not wait!' (P7, FG3, pq). Although it is true that verbalising can delay the translation process, we have seen that it does not make it less effective (on the contrary), and it could therefore be argued that some level of discomfort is valuable if it enhances the translators' multitasking and reflective skills.

Quite sarcastically, P1 stresses that: 'It's work, you know, it's not research!' (P1, FG3, pq), underlining that in the professional world, speed is part of expertise, and hinting that in the academic world, this is not the case, even implying that research is not (valuable) work. This remark further highlights the lack of knowledge that professionals have of research and the low importance that they attribute to it, an aspect that is of much interest in terms of pedagogical implications in the context of this study and is thus further addressed in Chapter 11.

As with other issues raised in this chapter, the attitudes that participants showed for TAPs, and the pros and cons expressed, have a number of pedagogical and other implications that will be discussed in the following chapter.

10.5. Concluding Remarks

This chapter attempted to discuss the main findings of the study as well as beneficial outcomes emerging from the data analysis. For the purposes of triangulation, data was collected from three main tools: participants' verbalised protocols, post-experiment questionnaires, and the researcher's diary.

As stated in Chapter 7, contrary to studies showing that it is hard for participants to think aloud as they translate and rather impossible to reason their translation choices (House, 1988; Toury, 1991; Ericsson & Simon, 1993), in this study, not only did participants succeed in verbalising their approaches, but they managed to reason their choices and decision-making as well. Participants' verbalisations can therefore be said to, at least partly, reflect norms employed, contention consistent with and echoed by Nisbett and Wilson (1977).

In order to answer the three research questions of this study, an investigation was carried out into the translation norms that governed the translation strategies of the participants as well as their approach through their verbalisations in groups and on an individual basis. Every effort was made to respect the individuality of participants, and their efforts and willingness to join the session were much appreciated. The participants' norms, strategies, and approaches revealed particular aspects of translator behaviour and highlighted areas of potential secondary benefit.

Taking limitations into account, certain patterns of behaviour and trends in the participants' approaches were detected when the results obtained with the different data collection tools were compared. The same applied for translation strategies and governing norms since the participants translating humour in ChL dealt with reasonably challenging extracts from the well-known novel *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾* by Sue Townsend (1982). Thus, while investigating the participants' approaches, an overview of general and specific patterns of behaviour was provided, and a number of key strategies employed were detected and discussed. Monitoring and communication strategies (e.g., additions, omissions, and exoticism) came to be the prevalent strategies detected and analysed in the process of translating humour in ChL in the course of this study. As for translation norms governing these strategies, this study encountered pedagogical norms that are prevalent (e.g., appropriateness, familiarity, simplicity, comprehensibility, and toning down), but literary (27.39%) and source text-oriented (11.12%) norms were found to be less involved in the process of HT in ChL from English into Greek.

As suggested above, these findings revealed a number of issues worthy of further discussion in terms of implications for translation pedagogy, research, and practice. Individual differences in approaches, strategies, and norms, as well as differences in the types of thinking, and thus verbalising produced based on the translators' developmental stages, were detected, as well as findings that verify the use of TAPs in translation process research. These issues are further developed in the next chapter (Chapter 11).

Chapter 11

Chapter 11

Implications of Study

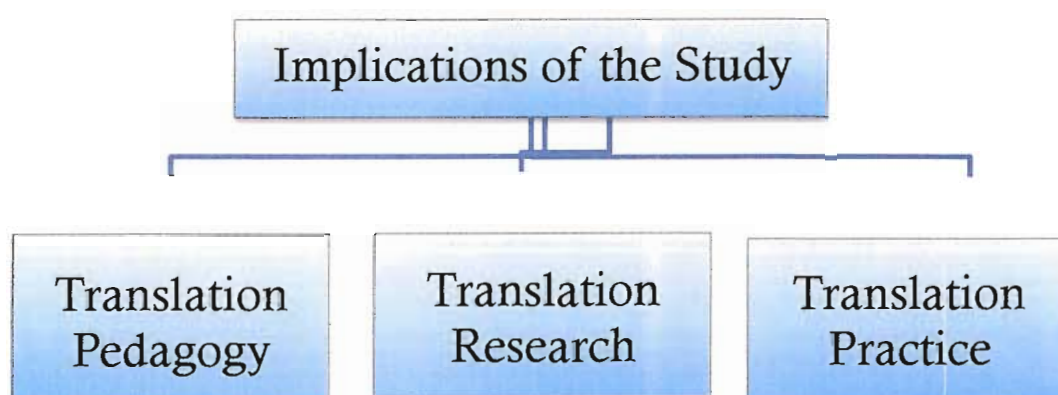
“We are only too ready to overlook translation,
even when it is staring us in the face.
We easily forget just how much translation
has gone into the making of our culture”.

(Hermans, 1999, p. 1)

11.0. Introductory Note

The evidence emerging from this study is consistent with studies which reveal the existence of the gap phenomenon in the realm of translation competence (e.g., Lörcher, 1991, 2004; Seguinot, 2000; Smith, 2004, 2007). This has clear implications for translation pedagogy, research, and practice, as well as policy-makers, scholars, researchers, trainers, students, and practitioners in the field. Implications also link with disciplines which are closely related to TS, such as cognitive science, text linguistics, psycholinguistics, and so forth. In Figure 11.1., the three areas where implications of the study are most apparent are illustrated:

Figure 11.1.
The Three Areas of Interest for the Implications of the Study



11.1. Implications for Translation Pedagogy

As will be highlighted in this chapter, implications for the present study are mainly of a pedagogical nature, as the research questions and aims of the study refer to issues that can have an impact on, and benefit, translation training curricula, translator trainers, and translation students significantly. This is what will be developed in the lines below.

11.1.1. Implications for Translator Training Curricula

Based on the study's findings, implications can be drawn concerning curriculum philosophy, skills required, the content of translation training programmes, teaching tools (translation tasks), and methodology – all aspects of translator training curricula.

11.1.1.1. Focusing on Experts' Approaches

As seen in Chapter 10, observing experts' approaches is an economical way to introduce the application of good practices in the translation classroom. Systematised experts' approaches as observed in this study should be enhanced, and extensive practice based on them should be given in translation classes at all levels.

According to the evidence obtained in this study, prevalent aspects of the expertise approach that translator training curricula should incorporate are the following:

- Extensive practice of specific translation skills to professional standards (e.g., the need to practice with strategies, texts from various fields, etc.)
- The development of metacognitive skills (problem-solving, decision-making, reflection, editing, revising, improving, self-assessment, risk-taking, etc.)
- The promotion of the use of technology and supporting material

These aspects are developed below.

- **Translation Tasks Deriving from Various and Varied Areas (e.g., ChL)**

According to comments made by a number of participants in this study, it was clear that there was an obvious misconception about issues surrounding the area of ChL, and, more importantly, an underestimation of ChLT. Comments such as the following highlight an undervaluing of ChL and ChLT: 'I can't believe that I need a dictionary here!' (P3, FG2, p) and 'since it is about children's literature I shouldn't go for word-for-word, it's not the leaflet of the Bank of Cyprus that I am translating for instance...' (P8, FG3, p). This attitude is reminiscent of times (Shavit,

1986; Thomson-Wohlgemuth, 1998; O'Connel in Lathey, 2006) when ChL and ChLT did not enjoy a high status within the field (see Chapters 1 and 2), and highlights the need for progress to be made in this area. For the Greek, and especially the Greek-Cypriot context, the results of the study call for a need to promote and support ChL and ChLT as it was seen that developments in both areas remain delayed in comparison to what happens at the European and international level (Katsonis, 2008; Gavrielidou, 2010; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). A clear example of this is the students' misconception of the difficulty of translating ChL, when its complexity has been acknowledged for some time in neighbouring countries.

In light of the above, it is felt that revisiting the issue of including literary and ChL translation tasks within translation courses is important, if the status and quality of ChLT is to improve in Greece and Cyprus. Adding ChL translation tasks within translation courses has been shown to greatly enhance students' competence in the activity, but also their deep-seated conceptions of this type of task (Thomson-Wohlgemuth, 1998). It is therefore felt that equal importance should be given to various text-types when students begin their translation classes, thus giving them an opportunity to obtain more extensive experience, and to experience first-hand what the specific issues involved in translating this text-type are. In this way, translators are less likely to underestimate the difficulties involved in translating this type of text in the future.

- **Enhancing Metacognition**

Discussion of the main findings in this study showed that students display a lack of metacognitive skills as, more often than not, the introduction and practice of metacognitive skills is absent from the translator training curriculum. Such specific skills are important elements of functional translation competence models (see Chapter 6), and are thus essential in translation training environments. Metacognitive skills are considered essential by many current translator trainers and scholars (Tymoczko, 2005; Shreve & Angelone, 2010; etc.) hence their inclusion in the design of the latest competence models (e.g., EMT expert group, 2009; Göpferich, 2009; PACTE, 2009; Massey & Ehrensberger-Dow, 2010, 2011). Thus, effective problem-solving, decision-making abilities, commenting, editing, revising, improving, and evaluating work should be a requirement in translation courses at any level.

To many, translation itself is a metacognitive activity or a task that doubtless requires a host of metacognitive skills (Gerding-Salas, 2000; Meijer, 2006; Echeverri, 2008; Shreve & Angelone, 2010). At a metacognitive level, students are expected to reflect on translation strategies and procedures used. They are expected to be able to discuss elements taken into account when

making translation decisions, as the ability to discuss translations in an objective way is central to a translator's competence (Kussmaul, 1995). According to Newmark (1998b), translation is for discussion and students should be encouraged to openly discuss the different versions proposed. The development of metacognitive skills is linked to self-control and self-awareness which are said to enable the student to know about cognitive phenomena. This is conceived as another area of best practice in translation pedagogy which is linked to (and is a prerequisite for) expertise, and thus, should be encouraged in the translation classroom (Shreve & Angelone, 2010).

- **Broad and Extensive Training in New Technologies**

As mentioned in Chapter 8, Translog – a computer-based technology – was not employed as one of the methods of data collection in this study, because most participants (especially FG1 and FG2 participants, i.e. the two student groups) preferred to translate in the 'traditional' way, with pen and paper, without using a computer. It is interesting to note that many students from the first FG (beginners) highlighted the following: 'It takes less time to do it [the translation] in pen and paper' (P1, FG1, p), 'I do not use the computer unless I am surfing and emailing' (P2, FG1, p), 'I pay for my work to be typed when this is a coursework requirement' (P3, FG1, p), 'No, it would take ages to use the computer and type!' (P5, FG1, p), etc. These somewhat surprising comments were already discussed in the previous chapter (Chapter 10). It should be noted, though, that the apparent reluctance to use digital technology, of any kind, may well have contributed to the sometimes poor performance of students. The benefits of research online, the speed gained by typing translations as opposed to writing these, etc., did not seem to have been considered by the participating students.

The fact that participants from FG3 were not aware of Translog, or TAPs, and mostly did not employ translation software professionally also raises questions in terms of technology and research methodologies that should be included in translator training at all levels. As noted in Chapter 6, one of the key skills a translator should have in order to be successful is competence in the use of technology in his field (Pym, 2003; Tymoczko, 2005; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). This is an aspect that should be seriously taken into account in the translator training curricula. Here again, a gap or delay can be observed in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts compared to other countries where the use of technology is much more established.

11.1.1.2. Placing Emphasis on Translation Theory

Findings of studies such as the present one, point to the fact that a wide variety of empirical experiences/case studies in addition to the teaching of discipline-related content, should be

incorporated in curricula if these are based on a combination of objective external evidence and solid theoretical grounding (Holmes, 1982). The inclusion and discussion of case-studies in class can raise critical awareness of problem-predicting and problem-solving processes. Rather than relying on intuition and experience, it is argued that experts and non-experts should be taught to base their practice on general theoretical principles, where an evidence-based model adapted for translation practice and research, supports the combination of theory and real life practices (Newmark, 1988b). Discussing practical examples with students, and linking these to theory in class, should illustrate their mutual benefits clearly (Kauz, 2000; Razmjou, 2004).

As seen in Chapter 4, Peter Newmark (1988b) openly places the blame on the theory of translation for any pedagogical inconvenience in TS, as for him theory is responsible for every lack (i.e. the lack of a theory or theory-driven methodology, inadequate teaching and poor textbooks). According to Newmark, even though various examples of translation theories can be encountered, there is a shortage of useful theories for translation practice. Grounding the theory in practice may be a way to bridge the gap.

Although the amount and level of theory that training requires is still debated, leaving out theory from the curriculum entirely is generally frowned upon (Newmark, 1988). This is assumed to leave translation students without a model to use to unify their knowledge and to develop a deeper understanding and appreciation for their work.

Boase-Beier (2006) states that knowledge of theory can affect the way translators translate. But far from being prescriptive, theories that function as a description of a translators' knowledge can become part of what an individual translator knows. This enables the translator to have greater awareness and also greater creativity in the act of translation. Certainly, feedback from participants in many TAPs experiments points to an appreciation of having engaged in a theoretical experiment and becoming more aware of how the process functions from a theoretical perspective (e.g., Hubscher-Davidson, 2007).

According to Fairclough (1989), theoretical knowledge enables translators to acquire an understanding of how linguistic choices in texts reflect other relationships between senders and receivers – such as power relationships – and how texts are sometimes used to maintain or create social inequalities. Because aspects of theory can raise awareness amongst students in relation to intercultural communication, power relationships, etc., it seems clear that acquiring some

knowledge of the theory behind the practice is necessary to produce well-rounded and ethical translators (cf. Sainz, 1994).

Kautz (2000) is amongst the few scholars who explicitly mention translation theory and methods as a translation competence component, implying that while translating, translators should theorise. When employing strategies, making decisions, going through alternatives, translators do and should have theory in mind. Wakabayashi (2003) also noted that an understanding of translation theory offers students principles, or tools, that function as a basis for their decision-making. The ability to explain and justify one's choices is also an essential skill when dealing with clients, and to this end students should be required to accompany their translations with commentaries, discussing any comprehension or formulation difficulties, and the steps taken to resolve these problems or the principles on which the decisions were based, as well as any reference sources used. This is already the case in the European context, but it is not a widespread practice in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts.

Mossop (2007)⁵² summarises precisely the importance of theory in translation pedagogy:

Mere practice cannot make a student into a successful translator. It's often said that practice makes perfect, but nothing could be further from the truth. In order to improve, you have to be able to criticise yourself. And to criticise yourself, you need to formulate your practices and reflect on them. And to do that – to think about translation and to discuss it with others – you need concepts and terms, which is where theory comes in. Theory, if well taught, can provide students with the conceptual tools they need for thinking about translation in an organised way.

From all of the statements above, it is clear that theory underlies the significant skills and abilities that a potential translator should acquire. When acquiring these skills, a translator moves forward so as to achieve quality.

11.1.1.3. Enhancing New Methodologies: The Case of TAPs

In this study, the benefits of employing TAPs in translator training environments have been extolled, as in many cases it was felt to be a highly useful tool for accessing and analysing students' thoughts and behaviours (Bernardini, 1999, 2001; Jakobsen, 2003, 2005; Smith, 2004, 2007; Englund Dimitrova, 2005; etc.). In addition, TAPs can support the development of critical literacy, thus making it a powerful tool for translation assessment (Xeni, 2012). It is also

⁵² Available at: <http://translationjournal.net/journal/23roundtablea.htm> – last accessed 30/07/2011

suggested that TAPs can be an important formative and/or summative assessment tool and a tool for feedback purposes as well. The translation process can be assessed with TAPs, and the result can help the trainer to gain a more in-depth understanding of issues faced by students, and therefore to better tailor their feedback (Hubscher-Davidson, 2007, 2008, 2009).

Even though the participants of this study were not assessed, as this was not in accordance with the aims and research questions of the study, insights into translators' thinking, presented in Chapter 9, could not have been obtained from an examination of responses to multiple-choice questions, nor solely from responses to open-ended questions, where participants are required to describe how they translate, to explain the strategies they used (or thought they used) while translating, or to pinpoint what their translation decision-making was based on. The latter method can provide information that is not always comprehensible or contextualised, and would therefore not have been sufficient to collect the kinds of data on performance that this experiment provided.

For trainers and students who have no experience with verbal protocol analysis, the first time in using this technique is likely to be labour-intensive and time-consuming (Lörscher, 1991; Ericsson & Simon, 1993), which is one of the drawbacks of this type of methodology. In addition, students verbalising their thoughts during problem-solving can find this type of methodology distracting (Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). After receiving practice, however, the methodology becomes less daunting and less complicated to follow and the verbalisations occur more naturally. As time goes by, silences become fewer. This is another indication that the individual eventually learns how to successfully apply, and make the most of, the methodology. A pedagogical implication of the present study is that emphasising the regular use of TAPs in a teaching context would be beneficial to would-be translators.

11.1.1.4. Supporting a Student-Centred Culture

In this study, instances of students lacking self-awareness and self-confidence, as well as examples of data where students confess uncertainty and weaknesses in dealing with given translation tasks, reveal a critical need for providing pastoral support to the student during translator training. This is because a lack of self-awareness, confidence etc., seems to impact negatively on task performance. In particular, it seems important to take into account Kussmaul's (2005) statement regarding students entering translation programmes with much confidence that is lost in the course of their studies. This underlines the responsibility of the curriculum philosophy and its

stakeholders. A culture should be established, whereby students are encouraged throughout their studies, and translation-specific student supervision/mentoring could be enhanced.

11.1.2. Implications for Translation Students

Obtaining broader training, enhancing critical skills/higher cognitive processing skills, and developing self-awareness are some of the prevalent immediate implications for translation students derived from the study's data analysis. These are discussed below.

11.1.2.1. Obtaining Broader Training

According to Nord (2005), undergoing more extensive training is a growing need for TS students. This is in line with the findings of this study. New demands from the work place require students to become proficient in new aspects of their field, be it in their area of expertise or in technical aspects, e.g., software programs (Pym, 2003). This requirement is translated into a series of major or minor changes in TS programmes at all levels, with the transformation of module content, and the creation of new modules focusing on various skills, previously absent from training programmes but now becoming essential to students' training (e.g., effective decision-making, time-management, task-prioritising, etc.). A call for broader training of TS students should be set as a priority in the Greek and especially Greek-Cypriot environments, which, as highlighted throughout this thesis, are lagging behind in terms of developments in TS research, pedagogy, and practice.

11.1.2.2. Enhancing Metacognitive Skills

As pointed out in the implications for translator training curricula, students suffer from a lack of metacognitive skills (Gerding-Salas, 2000; Meijer, 2006; Echeverri, 2008; Shreve & Angelone, 2010). In the literature review in this thesis (Chapter 6), it was pointed out that students often show weaknesses in identifying and solving translation problems, and the less experienced ones tend not to edit, revise or improve their work. In addition, they often do not understand what they do, how they do it, and why they do it. As the findings of the study are in line with received knowledge in the field, in the following lines some suggestions are provided regarding how to improve the situation and enhance students' metacognitive skills.

- **Investing in a Critical Literate Translation Studies Student**

In the context of extensive training in TS, TS undergraduate and postgraduate students should be able to investigate, analyse, select, make decisions, and so on, and possess all the skills that a

critical literate person should have, in order to carry out translation work in academic or non-academic environments, wherein the tendency to avoid cognitive load and problems is not an option (Razmjou, 2004). This should be the case with postgraduate TS students, whose critical literacy skills should be emphasised in their general and specific TS courses. Critical skills should therefore be a further priority, particularly in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts.

Clearly, it is important for translation trainers to provide opportunities to support and develop higher-level intellectual skills, such as reasoning, problem-solving, critical thinking, and creativity. To achieve this goal, task-based group activities, group presentations, feedback activities, reflection activities, etc., can be used as good practice, engaging trainees in teamwork, critical thinking, and reflection, which are important skills to develop (Gile, 2004; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007).

- **Achieving Higher Cognitive Processing Skills**

As previously alluded to, it may be that the TAPs methodology used could become a useful tool to develop cognitive processing, as it enables students to reflect on their decision-making and what led them to choose a strategy as opposed to another, and thus activate higher level skills such as comparisons, approving and disapproving, negotiating, decision-making, etc. (Gerding-Salas, 2000; Meijer, 2006; Echeverri, 2008; Shreve & Angelone, 2010). In the context of translation, these skills are not only necessary for the academic world, but also for non-academic contexts. Trainees may therefore be encouraged to use TAPs (and other effective methodologies) extensively in the classroom, and other practicing environments, and be asked to verbalise their thoughts as they translate and resolve various translation problems. The think-aloud method can provide a powerful indication of cognitive processes in action, and develop students' ability to think at higher cognitive levels (Massay, 2005; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007, 2009, 2010; Massey & Ehrensberger-Dow, 2011; Shreve & Angelone, 2010).

- **Developing Self-Awareness**

Another critical skill for TS students should be the ability to display self-awareness (Chesterman, 1997; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007), something that in the course of this study was often missing, especially in non-expert FGs. Students should be trained to know what they are doing, why, and how. They should be aware of self-assessing their decision-making processes and output, i.e. choices, material applications, TT, etc. As part of their background knowledge, students should be trained to be more aware of their own thought processes. Here again, TAPs can be used as a

valuable tool to develop this key skill of self-awareness and self-assessment. This would enhance TS students' ability to understand their needs, skills, and weaknesses, and to consciously make choices and decisions on risk-taking (Maslow, 1987; Hoppe et al., 1995; Barret et al., 1999).

In the following sections, implications for translation trainers will be outlined.

11.1.2.3. Implications for Translator Trainers

Implications for translator trainers, as derived from the data analysis, point to a changing and multifaceted role in future.

One of the contributions of this study is highlighting the central role that translators play during the process of translation. Through TAPs translators' norms revealed their decision-making and reasoning of choices, which, in turn, revealed the significance of the translators' individuality in the process of translating. In addition to their norms, their translation strategies highlighted the strength of their voices and the existence of their power in the process of translation, which has long been undervalued in TS theory, research and practice and, as a consequence, in society (O'Connel in Lathey, 2006; Stolt in Lathey, 2006; Thomson-Wolgemuth, 1998, 2006, 2009). An emerging turn to student-centred studies and translator-centred studies suggests that, in the coming years, the translator trainer will witness role changes. Adopting the role of the 'facilitator' and the 'partner' in the learning process, he will be called to support and encourage the teaching and learning experience of future translators following new pedagogical trends (Tymoczko, 2005).

- **Providing Effective Student-Centred Teaching**

The think-aloud method (and subsequent analyses) generally focuses on each individual participant at a time, unless the researcher decides to undertake TAPs for groups of participants, according to the aims of the study. In this study, TAPs gave voice to the participants who volunteered to undergo the experiment. It gave them the opportunity to reveal their inner thoughts and ideas regarding decisions they made as they translated the selected humorous extracts. It gave them freedom to comment on whatever came into their minds and thus highlighted the central position they, as translators, have within the translating process. According to Hubscher-Davidson (2007), if TAPs were to be used in a classroom environment, the student would be central to the method, and the learning experience would improve as a result in terms of: students' self-awareness, self-esteem, and confidence, etc. In line with this finding, the implications of the present study also point to the fact that familiarising students with the think-aloud method would undoubtedly enhance teaching effectiveness. Under monitored

classroom conditions, students could be prevented from feeling embarrassment, vulnerability, and shyness, as was the case with a small number of participants in the present study. The use of TAPs would provide trainers (and researchers) with useful insights to understand the processes students use to solve problems. This method can provide valuable answers about why students struggle or succeed with translation tasks. The TAPs method opens a window into each student's decision-making processes and is extremely useful in determining the kind of guidance that might prove most beneficial for the learning process (Olson et al., 1984). Information about decision-making, and students' developmental processes, enables trainers to create effective planning to meet individual needs, which have a central place in student-centred teaching and learning environments.

- **Boosting Translator Students' Self-Confidence**

If it is true that students may lose self-confidence when translating, then they should perhaps be taught not only to translate, but also to translate in a confident way (Kusmaul, 1995). This additional responsibility extends the role of the translator trainer, who is not then solely a knowledge mediator, but also a kind of life-coach, as Kusmaul argues that strengthening students' self-confidence can be achieved through theoretical studies. He suggests that textual analysis can shed some light on the most frequent errors made by translation students, such as interference, careless dictionary usages, incomplete paraphrasing, etc., and can provide an example of how translator educators can support their students. If, however, the reason for students' lack of self-confidence is linked to receiving negative feedback, then it might be useful for trainers who have a desire to support their students and raise their confidence in their knowledge and abilities, to be trained in the different ways of giving constructive, translation-focused feedback. This entails another element of best practice of a pedagogical nature, i.e. training the trainers. It is also important for students who suffer from a lack of self-confidence to learn to build their confidence levels with appropriate mechanisms. This is an aspect that the individual himself and the curriculum should enhance in all possible ways.

- **Enhancing Positive Criticism**

Clearly, trainers can learn to deliver positive criticism, i.e. comments on students' work, progress or even errors and gaps in a constructive way, as an example of good practice in translation and interpreting training environments. Weisinger (1999) notes that criticism is information that helps a person grow. In line with this comes the following quotation from Frank Clark: "criticism, like rain, should be gentle enough to nourish a person's growth without destroying their roots".

Translator trainers would therefore seemingly produce better results if they adopted a positive, motivating attitude, and nurtured a mutually beneficial experience that supported trust, self-esteem, and productivity. Training in the provision of constructive feedback could therefore be essential in fostering students' self-esteem and confidence in their own abilities, and is thus an important feature of the way translator training could be affected in years to come (Xeni, 2009ii). But trainers can also share the responsibility with students. For example, a plan of action could be drafted by students whereby they would note down what they do well, what needs improvement, and what actions they can take to achieve these improvements in view of a future task. This kind of innovative training method can build confidence, as it gives the translator more control and power over their learning experience, and could be used more widely by translator trainers.

According to research in developmental psychology, the 'significant others' have a very important role to play in advancing the 'self' of an individual (Andersen et al., 2002). These significant others (i.e. family, friends, etc.), should develop positive criticism in order to support individuals to become self-reliant in all the stages of their development. Even though it is widely accepted that criticism coming from significant others shapes the self-reliability of human beings, additional factors that can be inserted later on in life can either support or harm the individuals' self-confidence, self-esteem, self-reliability, and thus self-awareness (known as 'general self-concept' (Huitt, 2009). It entails an element of self-evaluation, informing the individual about his abilities and inabilities, as well as the positive and negative personality traits he possesses (Makri-Mbotsari, 2001). Although this is related to conceptions of the ideal self, which concerns personal desires and ambitions as well as future directions, a conflict between the ideal and the real might cause the individual anxiety, confusion and, as a consequence, low self-esteem, low self-confidence and low self-awareness (McCombs, 1991; Huitt, 2009). On the other hand, when the ideal is in line with the real, then the individual is self-fulfilled.

Positive criticism and self-assessment can support the positive view the individual has of himself and at the same time enables him to accept the way others view him (McCombs, 1991). Along with that, individuals should be given practice in dealing with problems and resolving these so as to build their self-esteem in a confident manner (Kusssmaul, 1995). They should practice facing failure and success, and learn how to enjoy success and accept failure. Self-confident individuals undertake responsibilities, have faith in their abilities, and are socially accepted (Rosenberg, 1986). On the contrary, individuals with low self-esteem are known to be socially isolated, anxious, and have less strength (Rosenberg, 1986; McCombs, 1991). Thus, high self-esteem increases self-confidence, maintains good social relations, and leads to success in various ways.

11.2. Implications for Translation Studies Research

Although the implications of this study are mainly relevant to pedagogy and educational practice, there are also direct implications for the field of TS research. In the context of this study, we have seen a turn to translator-centred research and to interdisciplinarity. Both of these points are discussed below.

11.2.1. A Turn to Translator-Centred Research

For years, TS research was focused on the ST and the TT and less focus was placed on the process of translation or the translator himself (Snell-Hornby, 2006). In this study, both the translation process and the translator were placed on central stage. The methodology used gave the researcher insight into the participant translators' decision-making process. In terms of translation pedagogy, research, and practice, this insight can facilitate student-centred and professional-centred research, revealing and explaining unknown areas or testing already known ones. Either way, it aims at moving research on translation process and the translator as the main actor of translation a step forward.

Recently, some studies have focused on consciousness (e.g., Tracy, Robins, & Tangney, 2007) and the hypothesis that language is a window into the mind (Bernardini, 1999, 2001; Jääskeläinen, 2000; Jakobsen, 2003, 2005, 2006; Göpferich, 2006a, 2006b; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). For many, the ultimate goal is to understand how the mind works. As Chesterman states (1997), "a translator should, above all, be self-aware" (p. 41). Hence the black box and self-awareness are at the forefront of brain research, something that future research should take into account.

11.2.2. A Turn to Interdisciplinarity

In light of new approaches to TS and emerging areas of research, scholars might need to abandon the limits of their own specialised areas and extend their knowledge so as to meet the emerging needs and enhance advanced research. As Tymoczko (2005)⁵³ puts it, scholars in TS are required to become familiar with research in other fields "so as to be able to transcend the current limitations of research in translation studies and remain at the cutting edge." Thus, increasing interdisciplinarity might be a reality soon to be experienced in the contexts of TS research.

⁵³ Available at: <http://www.erudit.org/revue/meta/2005/v50/n4/012062ar.html> – last accessed 30/07/2011

11.3. Implications for Translation Practice

Following the implications in translation pedagogy and research, implications for translation practice are discussed below with emphasis on a call for academia and the translation profession to join forces, and for practitioners to be given research experiences in the framework of continuing professional development (CPD) activities, or other research-based programmes.

11.3.1. An Immediate Need for Cooperation between Academia and the Translation Profession in Greece and Cyprus

As already pointed out in Chapter 8, several professional translators refused to participate in the TAPs session, giving either the reason that they were too busy over that period for ‘something like that’, that their exposure to the TAPs session and possible failure of the task might cause them career or ‘market’ problems, that they were hesitant as they had never joined a translation experiment before, and that they did not feel their participation could add something to their experience. Not only were a number of them against supporting research studies in their own field, but they also underestimated the role of research itself.

This unfortunate state of affairs highlights the need for an immediate ‘partnership’ between the academic world and the professional market. An answer to this can be the creation of market-oriented undergraduate or postgraduate programmes, perhaps with the inclusion of professionals within teaching groups or the provision of work placements. In environments like the Greek and Greek-Cypriot ones, this is something that has not been sufficiently developed, especially in Cyprus. This might provide an answer to several problems that translation researchers encounter, e.g., funding, gaining access to market environments, research opportunities, etc., and that translator trainers face, e.g., communicating with agencies and clients, networking, placement weeks, authentic projects, etc. It may also introduce new opportunities for translation professionals, e.g., theoretical framework support, lifelong learning opportunities, etc.

11.3.2. Providing Translators with Research Experiences during Lifelong Learning TS and Translation Research Courses

Contacting professionals for the purposes of this study (Chapter 8) revealed useful insights into the steps that need to be taken with regards to their future training, or life-long learning education. This study highlighted the fact that a number of professional translators contacted by the researcher refused to participate in the research, thus potentially underestimating or undervaluing the benefits of TS research for practice, and revealing at the same time a lack of knowledge about

the role of research in their own field and in society in general. Again, this could be something more specific to the Greek-Cypriot context, as continuing professional development (CPD) activities for translators have gained momentum in other countries, and initiatives have been developed to encourage lifelong learning (LLL). For example, the Institute of Translation and Interpreting (ITI) in the UK⁵⁴ expects its members to attend professional development courses, to partake in peer-support schemes, and to attend conferences. In contrast, a number of professionals in the present study expressed suspicion towards the research activity and a lack of willingness to engage in a different type of translation activity. Indeed, they argued that they would be embarrassed to be 'exposed' in this way, or they felt that the TAPs session would place them in a vulnerable position. Shyness, discomfort and suspicion towards TAPs methodology was very obvious amongst the majority of professionals contacted. This may imply that exposure to TAPs and other research and translation experiences would be more successful during translation classes and translation research modules, either during the course of their studies, or later on during voluntary – or even obligatory – LLL classes. Greek and Greek-Cypriot translation associations also have a responsibility to encourage their members to show an active commitment to enhancing their skills, to gaining new skills, and to engaging with research in their field – something that has not yet been the case, especially in the Greek-Cypriot context.

11.3.3. Changing Attitudes

As seen in this study, being a translator in the Greek and especially the Greek-Cypriot context can be challenging. The professionals' idea that involvement in the research might have a negative impact on their work and reputation in the market, even though the researcher ensured anonymity fuelled discussions. The ironic tone used by some in relation to research in TS in general and ChLT in particular, raises issues of attitude towards translation research, pedagogy, and practice. Evidence from the data, call for a need to change these attitudes urgently so as to enhance quality in translation. Although this may initially seem to be an issue for translation policy-makers, translator trainers and translator scholars, in fact it directly concerns the individual translators. In rapidly changing times, a flexible and open-minded attitude can be a key to development and growth. Quoting Martin⁵⁵,

Translators are often their own worst enemies. Ultimately it's the translator's own attitude towards the profession that counts, and much less the clients'. Clients have always tended to view translators as skivvies – we all know that. Of course things have greatly improved on this front and much has been achieved

⁵⁴ See <http://www.iti.org.uk/indexMain.html> – last accessed 04/12/2011

⁵⁵ Available at: <http://translationjournal.net/journal/23roundtablea.htm> – last accessed 30/07/2011

over the past 20 years, but still the skivvy mentality prevails *among us*. This is the real key to changing attitudes, and it lies partly with the universities, but also with translators themselves: act as a bona fide partner and little by little clients will begin to treat you as one.

The idea that translators have a chip on their shoulder which prevents them from enhancing the status of their own profession is mind-boggling. It would seem that the solution to many of their problems could be (at least partly) in their own hands.

11.4. Concluding Note

The present research adds renewed breadth and fruitfully contributes to previous research in the field of TS and related strands of enquiry. From what is revealed in this chapter, implications of the study involve translation pedagogy, research, and practice. These implications emerged from the data analysis where gaps and needs were highlighted. In what follows, a brief summary of the study is provided, along with suggestions for future directions and some final thoughts.

PART FOUR: CONCLUSION

Conclusion

“The world is becoming smaller and smaller as the systems of communication and information are developing and becoming more and more sophisticated. In the process of such a rapid exchange of information and for the purpose of improving cultural contacts, one thing is inevitable, and that is “translating.” This is why there is a need for competent translators and interpreters...”
(Razmjou, 2004)⁵⁶

“In my beginning is my end [...] in my end is my beginning.”
(Eliot, 1940)

I. Introductory Note

As noted earlier, the initial motivations driving this study are the existing gaps in ChLT research, and in an understanding of translators’ strategies, approaches, and norms while translating humour for children in particular. Alongside this, the limited research undertaken in the realm of English-Greek as a language combination in TS also played a vital role in the study design, so as to provide a further contribution to the field.

Using TAPs as the primary methodology to ascertain strategies and approaches, ten translators at all levels of translation competence (beginners, competent, and experts) were requested to translate two texts extracted from the humorous novel *The Secret Diary of Adrian Mole, Aged 13 ¾* by Sue Townsend (1982) from English into Greek and to verbalise their thinking. They were also asked to account for their strategies and approaches and thus reveal their norms. Evidence from the participants’ verbalisations triangulated with data from the pre- and post-questionnaire and the researcher’s diary whenever possible.

The data revealed three systematised models of translators’ norms, strategies, and approaches in the context of HT in ChL from English into Greek, meeting the two aims of the study, and addressing the three research questions set (see Chapter 8). Three models were suggested accordingly for systematising translators’ norms (see Table 9.4, p. 269), strategies (see Table 9.12., p. 294), and approaches (see Table 9.21., p. 323), thus filling the existing gap in the field.

⁵⁶ Available at: <http://www.seasite.niu.edu/trans/articles/To%20Be%20a%20Good%20Translator.htm> – last accessed 30/07/2011

More specifically, in addressing the first research question and aim of the study, pedagogical norms (i.e. appropriateness/correctness, familiarity, simplicity, comprehensibility, and toning down), literary norms (e.g., sound of language and fluency), and source-text norms (e.g., equivalence) were revealed to be the most prominent general and specific norms governing the translators' strategies and approaches in the process of translating humour in ChL. Interestingly, the prevalent norms (i.e. appropriateness/correctness, familiarity, and simplicity) link back to long-standing issues in ChLT, as discussed in the literature review of the thesis, e.g., Shavit's (1981) suggested principles (section 2.1.4.2., p. 51), the missionary role of ChLT (section 2.1.3, p. 46), the issue of simplicity in ChL and ChLT (Chapter 1, section 1.1.5., p. 23), and the status of ChL and ChLT (Chapter 1, section 1.1.6., p. 26 and Chapter 2, section 2.1.5.1., p. 54) and in Chapter 10.

Regarding the second research question and aim of the study, the data revealed that monitoring and communication strategies (e.g., additions, omissions, and exoticism) (Séguinot, 2000), were the prevalent strategies employed by translators. In the discussion of the main findings attention was paid to exoticism (Painter in Lathey, 2006; etc.) due to its relation to foreignisation – a trend at the European and international ChLT context and thus a promising link to global contemporary developments in ChLT – highlighting that the foreign touch should be kept in ChL (Yamasaki, 2002; Gavrielidou, 2010).

In answering the third research question and meeting the third aim of the study, it was noted that the translators' approaches in the process of translating humour for children and YA served to reinforce and confirm findings of other studies in the field, revealing that expert translators present more successful behaviours and thus better practices in the translation process than students at all levels and aspects of their translation approach (Matrat, 1992; Kussmaul, 1995; Shreve, 1997; Jääskeläinen, 2000; Séguinot, 2000; Jarvella et al., 2002; Livbjerg & Mees in Alves, 2003; Lörscher, 1997, 2005; Pym, 2003; Smith, 2004, 2007; Englund Dimitrova, 2005; Olk, 2009). Differences between expert and non-expert translators' approaches were obvious (see Chapter 9) and this was an indication of the gap phenomenon in the realm of translation competence (Smith, 2004, 2007).

A number of outcomes of secondary benefit (e.g., gaining a better understanding of the process of translation; contributing to translation pedagogy and translation expertise; shedding light on the professional translators' views of the image/profile of the child and childhood; and revisiting

TAPs as an effective methodological tool in TS process research) also fuelled discussions. These impact on translation pedagogy, research, and practice (see Chapters 10 and 11).

In the following section some suggestions for future directions will be provided along with some final thoughts regarding this thesis.

II. Suggestions for Future Directions

This study has a lot to offer to the current arena of TS, and highlights a number of specific areas where further empirical investigation is needed, namely translation studies (TS) and its subsidiary fields, translation practice, and translation pedagogy. These areas are further discussed below.

A. Translation Studies

As it has been acknowledged for some time now, research in TS has taken an interdisciplinary turn, and this trend will likely continue in the coming years (Pym, 2003; Tymoczko, 2005). Translation research will probably continue to move away from linguistic and cultural studies approaches, and will adopt methods and practices from a wider range of disciplines. As Tymoczko (2005)⁵⁷ persuasively contends changes will be evident “[a]s the growing edges of translation research will go beyond current approaches based on humanistic research, to embrace thoroughly diverse branches of the social sciences and natural sciences, particularly the biological sciences and technical aspects of cognitive science.” New approaches to TS will lead to additional areas and pathways for productive TS research. Some of the seemingly prevalent ones for process research include:

a. Translation and Cognitive Science

- **Cognitive Skills**

As highlighted in Chapter 6, cognitive approaches to translation (Muños Martin in Shreve & Angelone, 2010) is a research area that will keep growing in the coming decades due to the developing relationship between translation and cognitive science (Nersessian, 1995; Chesterman, 2000; Tymoczko, 2005; etc.). Although individual scholars have attempted to apply results from cognitive science to TS (cf. Shreve & Angelone, 2010), the field as a whole is at a preliminary stage in recognising the significance of this relationship for understanding translation as a process. Tymoczko (2005)⁵⁸ states that:

⁵⁷ Available at: <http://www.erudit.org/revue/meta/2005/v50/n4/012062ar.html> – last accessed 30/07/2011

⁵⁸ Ibid.

[t]here are, of course, diverse branches of cognitive science, many of which have immediate relevance to translation practice and also implications for the understanding and assessment of translation products as well. (...) Research in cognitive science is extensive on these subjects and serves to illuminate the history of translation, translational criteria that have emerged over the last half century, and the very concept of equivalence used by translation scholars.

As seen in this study, a turn to cognition and cognitive skills and abilities opened new horizons for TS theory, translation process research, translation practice, and translation pedagogy (Bell, 1991, Krings, 1986; Nersessian, 1995; Hönig, 1997; Chesterman, 2000; Gile, 2004; Massey & Ehrensberger-Dow, 2010, 2011; Thagard, 2010). It was also demonstrated that cognitive skills and higher-level thinking activities (such as decision-making, choosing, accepting, refusing, reasoning, judging, etc.) should be developed due to their importance for translation pedagogy and translation practice. This area is still in its infancy in TS, but will surely grow exponentially in future (Massey & Ehrensberger-Dow, 2010, 2011).

- **Translation and Neurophysiology**

Perhaps the most drastically new and revealing findings in coming decades will result from the investigation of translation by neurophysiologists. At present, the activity of individual translators continues to be a complex object of study for scholars. Some aspects of the working process are revealed by tracking choices of translators with computers to time the length of translators' work, whereas other studies attempt to investigate the process by looking at translators' journals and diaries, or recording their think-aloud protocols. All these methods, however, are tentative at best in indicating what actually occurs in the brain as translators navigate between languages. In this respect, Tymoczko (2005)⁵⁹ highlights the prospective research agenda of neurophysiologists and translation scholars in addressing the following questions:

How do the brains of bilinguals differ from those of monolinguals? Where and how are multiple languages stored in the brain? To what extent do translators store different languages in distinct parts of the brain and to what extent are diverse languages stored in an interpenetrating way? What happens when people move between languages in terms of brain patterns? What actual parts of the brain get activated during the process of translation? Does the pattern change as translators move through different stages of translation? How are translation processes similar to and different from ordinary linguistic processes? Do all translators operate using the same parts of the brain or do people vary widely in their cognitive modes and brain patterning? Is brain patterning during translation largely uniform across culture (and individuals within cultures) or does it differ radically from person to

⁵⁹ Ibid.

person, place to place? Do different types of translation involve similar or different sorts of brain activity?

Although such questions cannot be answered at this moment, enhanced links between disciplines and a motivation to cooperate will enable answers to be found in future. Translators' brains may soon be scanned as they work, and questions about translation processes will hopefully be found as a result, providing further insights into key areas such as translation strategies and norms.

- **Brain Monitoring**

Mind monitoring is another way to see what happens inside a translator's head. Examining a translator's mind is an additional method closely connected to cognitive science, brain studies, and new technologies (Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). Using new forms of technology, scientists have been able to look at how the brain performs when subjects undertake different tasks. Even though findings are sometimes controversial, scientists have found ways to interpret brain waves on a screen when a person solves a problem or suddenly comes up with an idea.

As with Translog, this method of analysis requires access to specialist equipment and, even though using it may reveal ways of interpreting and assessing a translator's creativity or other telling characteristics during a task, brain monitoring methods can only be used effectively if the researcher has access to specialised laboratories and knows how to use the equipment. Moreover, using and relying solely on machines in experimental work, decreases the presence of human intuition. In the present study, it is clear that the use of such methods would have been prohibitive due to the participants' intense reluctance to use technology.

b. Revisiting Familiar Haunts: Children's Literature Translation

In this study, various comments made by the professional translators prior to the TAPs experiment betrayed their lack of respect for ChL and their lack of esteem for ChLT as a scientific field within the realm of TS. Comments received included the following: 'Oh, but this is easy, I am sure you'll find someone else with much more free time', 'It sounds simple, a language student can do this!', etc. This attitude demonstrates that many professionals feel that this area of TS has little or no status. It also reveals a translation myth (see Chapter 10, section 10.2.3., p. 331), i.e. that translation for children and YA is actually a simple task that can be undertaken by individuals with no prior training in translation. This attitude dates back to old beliefs about ChL

and ChLT reviewed in Chapters 1 and 2 of this thesis (Shavit, 1986; Thomson-Wohlgemuth, 1998; O'Sullivan, 2005; Lathey, 2006, 2010; Pinsent, 2006; etc.).

Moreover, during the TAPs process, participants' comments on the fact that they were translating for children and YA confirmed that ChLT is still a marginalised area in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot TS contexts as it has been in other – mainly European – contexts (O'Connel in Anderman & Rogers, 1999; Xeni 2000; O'Connel in Lathey, 2006; Gavrielidou, 2010; Panaou & Michaelides, 2010). This particular attitude can be investigated further and can provide avenues for further research in terms of professional translators' behaviour. This would hopefully add credibility to this creative and challenging field of study.

c. Translator-Centred Studies

The translator's role and purpose in society, the literary world, and tradition has not yet been analysed and praised adequately over the years (e.g., Vermeer, 1996; Nord, 1997; Lathey, 2006). According to widely accepted theories, the translator is caught in various relationships and influences of a complex nature (Lefevere, 1992; Gentzler, 2002), which have not been fully scientifically investigated. Thus, translator-centred approaches, i.e. approaches that conceive him as a key actor in the process of translation, are vital as part of a rigorous methodology to enable a better understanding of the translation process and the processes of individual translators. As seen in this study, the translator takes an active part in the process of translation. He is central to and guides the process to a large extent. Yet, very little research in TS has concentrated on this mediator, his actions and reactions, sensitivity, style, intelligence, and personality.

Although it is acknowledged that translators have some choice in the process, it has also been argued that they cannot ignore other influences (background knowledge, norms, emotions, etc.). Again, these findings are valid, and they are an important addition to TS literature. Translators are often conceived of as “one uniform group that follows the beat which the source context drums” (Hubscher-Davidson, 2007, p. 11). Individual traits that differentiate one translator from another are very rarely dealt with, as if their attitudes and behaviours were either too similar to deserve attention and analysis, or not as important as other factors. In the present study, it has been demonstrated that different types of translators have different types of strategies, and, although behavioural patterns can be found, no two translators may behave in the exact same way during a task. Very recently, some efforts have been made to take into account the translator's individual needs, although “these have been few, fairly erratic, and often lacking in focus and purpose” (Hubscher-Davidson, 2007, p. 11). At this time of change and innovation,

where TS finds itself at a significant crossroad, there is a clear need for research to move decisively into more translator-focused approaches and to truly confirm its independence on the one hand and its interdisciplinarity on the other.

d. Enhancing Norm-Based Studies

The idea that translators can behave differently and that their strategies and approaches differ due to different governing norms was one of the motivations of the present study. The desire to discover the principles governing decision-making and those underlying every translation choice became the focus of this investigation. Although the translator's attitude can be determined by a number of factors (personality traits, mood, unconscious behaviour, intuition, etc.), the interest of this study was more specifically focused on translators' strategies and approaches and the influence and role norms play in the translation process. This study should motivate further empirical norm-based studies where the translator and his principles become the focus. Further methodologies may be developed to better investigate the complex process of norm-governed behaviour. In this respect, Chesterman (1997) poses the following questions, which can inspire future researchers and scholars to investigate norm-based behaviours: "What goes on in the translator's head? What do I as a translator, experience as I translate? What is a translator's self-awareness like? Indeed, does it help to be self-aware? How does the translator's decision-making process work?" (p. 40). Advanced technologies (Bernardini, 2002; Alves & Gonçalves, 2003; Hansen, 2003; Pym, 2003; Hubscher-Davidson, 2008) help develop further methods so as to better ensure the validity and reliability of research endeavours.

e. The Role of Emotions during the Translation Process

'I don't like 'along with my father', so I will delete it and it will stay as 'with my father'" (P3, FG1, p), 'Oh! I do not like it that much...' (P5, FG3, p), 'I do not know why, but I feel as if I have someone on my head and this stresses me...' (P8, FG3, p), were some of the emotional comments that emerged from participant's verbalisations. What plays a critical role in the translation process is decision-making and the translator's choices, which are personal and individual. For Hubscher-Davidson (2007, 2008, 2009), emotions play a critical role in decision-making. From her perspective, individual decision-making is based on a differentiation between choices, which are influenced by a number of factors, including the translators' emotional reactions. Given the fact that the role of emotions in decision-making appears to be a neglected but constructive area in TS research, practice, and pedagogy (e.g., Hansen, 2005), more knowledge/research on their role in decision-making would doubtless be illuminating.

f. Improving Translation Process Research

In TS research the TAPs method has become an increasingly popular, albeit controversial, method for investigating behaviour. Although there have been encouraging advances in terms of enhancing the reliability of the method, there are still a number of limitations to it, which have been acknowledged by proponents of the approach (e.g., Bernardini, 1999, 2001; Li, 2004). Despite this, there remains a lack of suitable alternatives to investigate behavioural translation processes. As Hubscher-Davidson (2007) highlights: “[i]ndeed, in ongoing discussions there is a tendency to pinpoint the pitfalls in other researchers’ methods, but alternatives or suggestions and proposals as well as reliable ways of investigating cognitive processes themselves are nowhere given” (p. 87). Though there is now progress in terms of using quantitative and technological methods, these are not always the ideal way to understand the process or, as we have seen, the most engaging methods for participants. Further research may lead to new ways of investigating the translator’s behaviour, and other disciplines could provide useful insights in this respect.

g. The Future of Verbal Protocols

Having previously discussed the limitations of this study, it was highlighted that more process studies of this kind could provide models for verbal report analysis. In the beginning of their book, Ericsson and Simon (1996) argue that verbal reports should be seen as one of many sources of data about cognitive processes and structures, and that, models and methods accounting for verbal data should not be different, in principle, from accounts of other types of data. It is essential that the methodology for using verbal reports be wholly integrated within the main stream of experimental psychology and other areas of cognitive science so as to achieve generalisability. Many of the most recent studies have quite successfully embedded the collection of verbal reports within experimental designs (Jakobscen, 2005; Göpferich, 2006a, 2006b; Smith, 2007; Hubscher-Davidson, 2008, 2009, 2010; etc.). However, many more studies of this kind are needed so as to provide models for verbal reports analysis and to address issues of generalisability.

- **Using Different Methods for Data Collection and Analysis**

Using different methods of analysis, i.e. triangulation, in order to investigate an aspect of translator behaviour will necessarily be a step towards more reliable findings. If correlations are found between experiments using different methods of investigation and similar conclusions are drawn from these experiments, then the findings will carry more weight as they will be backed up by several experimental results. It is common knowledge that if the objects of the various methods are different, then results are not necessarily generalisable. On the contrary, if various methods used have the same object and goal, then results may be comparable and findings generalisable

(Hansen, 2005). Lörcher (1991) also asserts that TAPs can be enlightening when analysing translation processes, but they can still be enhanced by other procedures: “[t]he subjects’ willingness and ability to ‘reveal’ themselves by thinking aloud are largely personal-specific and individually caused. In future investigations, it might therefore be worth considering whether a combination of introspective (...) and retrospective procedures should be used” (p. 279).

Translog is an example of the kind of technology that can be used as an alternative to, or triangulated with, TAPs data. However, even though it is useful and revealing in many respects (Jakobsen, 1999; Bernardini, 2001), Translog has not yet been used widely enough to discover the full extent of its reliability and applicability. Writing about alternative methodologies in training, Hennessy (2001) contends that teaching is “still very much a qualitative processes and researchers need to be able to call on a range of methods if their descriptions are to reflect (...) what goes on, and if their explanations are to offer insight into how [trainers] might develop or change their practice in knowledgeable ways” (p. 240). It might therefore be argued that a balance could usefully be struck between the use of qualitative and quantitative methods in TS process research.

- **Complementary Use of Verbal Reports**

Verbal reports have become an important tool for examining problem-solving behaviour and decision-making. They are said to have a complementary use as a research method, allowing researchers to go beyond analysing performance data (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). For instance, according to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), for the case of the common practice of analysing L2 speakers’ competence solely on the basis of performance data, TAPs succeed in revealing certain aspects of the underlying competence to a greater extent than the tasks below alone: (a) production data elicitation (e.g., reading aloud, guided composition, role play, proficiency tests); (b) intuitional data elicitation (e.g., error recognition and correction, grammaticality judgments); and (c) research methods associated with the social sciences (e.g., attitude questionnaires). All these methods can be complemented by verbal reports, which surpass common practice and offer a more in-depth analysis, something which the above-mentioned tasks could not succeed in doing by themselves.

B. Translation Pedagogy

- **Trainers with a Broad Training**

With regards to future changes in the translation profession, both translation pedagogy and research should welcome, and actively seek, innovations. In the context of translation pedagogy,

this involves a “broader training” in other fields of the social and natural sciences “so as to be able to transcend the current limitations of research in translation studies and remain at the cutting edge” (Tymoczko, 2005)⁶⁰. As emphasised in Chapter 11, a future pedagogical imperative is a broader training with some emphasis on learning new technologies. This is seen as an advanced skill linked with translation competence (Pym, 2003; Razmjou, 2004; Massey, 2005). As Razmjou (2004)⁶¹ puts it, “the world is becoming smaller and smaller as the systems of communication and information are developing and becoming more and more sophisticated.” Therefore, enhancing the use of new technologies involves both translator trainers and TS students. Another pedagogical imperative inspired from this study, is for translator trainers to be trained in effectively utilising prominent methodological tools such as TAPs. If thinking-aloud is considered an activity that can advance higher thinking skills and cognitive abilities, a performance activity, a self-evaluation tool, and a useful research methodology for those who wish to conduct research at a later point, it is plausible to assume that trainers should make sure that TS students gain both proficiency and confidence in using it.

- **Improving Translation Quality**

Discussing the future of translation pedagogy, Mu Lei (1999) calls for quality in translation, something that many other TS scholars and practitioners have also called for (e.g., Wilkinson, 2005; Pym, Schlesinger, & Simeoni, 2008; etc.), and several assessment models have been suggested (Martínez Melis, 1997; House, 2001; Martínez Melis & Hurtado, 2001). As House (2001) argues, issues of a good translation lie “at the heart of all concerns with translation criticism [whereas] in trying to assess the quality of a translation one also addresses the heart of any theory of translation” (p. 243). Clearly, the notion of quality has always been at the heart of the field, for both researchers and practitioners. Ørsted (2001) underlines that in the context of translation theory and practice “quality and efficiency are not incompatible” (p. 447), linking the issue of quality translations with expertise and best practices. This issue is relevant for both product-oriented studies and process-oriented studies, as a good translation is associated with a TT of a good quality and a process where good translation practices are applied.

Improving quality has always been an important parameter of translation training curricula and an aim of translation trainers and policy-makers. Although it can be seen as a typical issue of concern in the realm of TS research, pedagogy, and practice, it appears to be a growing need in the future. Mu Lei (1999) crystallises this need:

⁶⁰ Available at: <http://www.erudit.org/revue/meta/2005/v50/n4/012062ar.html> – last accessed 30/07/2011

⁶¹ Available at: <http://www.seasite.niu.edu/trans/articles/To%20Be%20a%20Good%20Translator.htm> – last accessed 30/07/2011

There will be fewer experienced teachers and translators to guide the younger teachers, and there will be fewer candidates to fill the current positions of middle-aged teachers, which is an ominous phenomenon. We are all anxious to train more and more qualified translation teachers as quickly as possible. Nevertheless, it is gratifying that almost all the young teachers have M.A. degrees, and that some even have doctoral degrees, which is in contrast to those over 50, who generally only achieved a B.A. But these younger teachers have generally not had as much translation and teaching experience and do not possess as solid a bilingual foundation as those over 50. Moreover, facing economic hardship, many young teachers and graduates cannot resist the temptation to earn more money by working for large enterprises, despite their training as teachers of translation; or they seek to make money through their knowledge of a foreign language in their spare-time, rather than paying more attention to their teaching and research. We worry about this situation as we feel that teaching and teacher training demands more focused attention. (pp. 206-207)

Although the remark was made over a decade ago, the situation has arguably not improved since then. It can be said that the issues Mu Lei (1999) stresses mirror not only the present situation with regards to the academic and non-academic world in the context of TS, but also the future, where expertise at various levels (e.g., translation training, translation trainers, translation students, etc.) will continue to be required.

C. Translation Practice

As seen in this study, professional translators were not easy to recruit and were not particularly keen on 'revealing themselves'. Their comments are worth reflecting on for future studies, as they highlighted a perceived distance between the academic and non-academic worlds in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot environments. Issues with regards to the realities of the profession in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot environments were raised (e.g., worry about their reputation in a small but competitive market, lack of CPD and LLL opportunities), insinuating that exposure to the TAPs experiment and a possible failure or bad performance, might cause them career problems. These comments are worth investigating, if future studies are to be carried out in this context, perhaps alongside job satisfaction. In future, research on topics that are closely connected to aspects of the profession will require careful analysis of these issues, if any improvement is to be made to the translation profession in Greece and Cyprus.

As noted previously (Chapter 11), the cooperation of universities, businesses, and private sector agencies is not something new, but there is still progress to be made in this area to encourage engagement by professionals with research. Sharing good practice between TS academia and the TS market provides opportunities to strengthen relationships and to enhance the quality of

translation professionals, something which is best supported by state support schemes and university doctoral schools (Xeni, 2009i), or in the context of CPD and LLL opportunities. Such co-operation should be encouraged in the future in the Greek and Greek-Cypriot contexts. Universities offering doctoral/postdoctoral degrees and other academic certifications would benefit from further cooperation with the local or global market. Enabling students to take placement opportunities and to undertake research activities in the 'real world' is a desirable objective for the Greek and Greek-Cypriot environments. In the same way, enabling professionals to further enrich their skills can be a huge investment for the individuals, the profession, and the institutions and services involved.

III. Some Final Thoughts

In her article "Think-aloud protocols in translation research: Achievements, limits, future prospects", Bernardini (2001)⁶² stresses that with the support of empirical translation studies and the subsistence of informal hypotheses, researchers in the field should "start questioning the methodological assumptions of their work more systematically. It is time, in other words, to check the validity of these informal hypotheses by means of more controlled experimental designs and methods of data analysis."

This study constitutes a move in this direction, its aim being to address a number of concerns with the experimental validity of the studies discussed in Chapter 6. The research questions thereby led to an empirical comparison and exploration of:

- Beginner, competent, and professional translators' norms governing their strategies while translating humour from English into Greek
- Beginner, competent, and professional translators' strategies of HT from English into Greek, and
- Beginner, competent, and professional translators' approaches while translating humour from English into Greek

As an exhaustive report of the method employed is a requirement of any research study and a fundamental prerequisite for the interpretability and re-usability of the data and results provided, a rigorous methodology of data collection was adopted with justificatory arguments discussed in length in Chapters 7 and 8. In Chapter 8, the procedure of analysis developed for this study was provided, along with a systematic comparison of data relating to the strategies employed and

⁶² Available at: <http://docs.google.com/viewer> – last accessed 30/07/2011

approaches adopted while translating humour in ChL, as well as the principles guiding decision-making. This provided useful insights with regards to the aims of this study.

The present study can be said to be innovative, in the sense that it focused on two specific TS fields: HT and ChLT. Both are challenging areas in terms of translation and interesting for translation research, as relatively little has been investigated thus far, particularly concerning the language combination English-Greek. In terms of ChLT, this study revisits a marginalised translation area and a field that translation research has shown little consensus about (Lathey, 2006; Pinsent, 2006; Thomson-Wolgemuth, 2006, 2009; etc.). With the analysis of norms, this study contributes to revealing the prevalent general norms (i.e. pedagogical, literary, and ST-oriented norms) and specific norms (i.e. appropriateness/correctness, familiarity, sound of language, equivalency, fluency, and simplicity) used by translators at different levels of development and expertise when translating for children and YA. These norms were found to govern general process-oriented translation strategies in the context of HT in ChL (i.e. communication and monitoring) as well as specific ones (i.e. additions, exoticism, omissions). Shedding light on the complex process of translation and highlighting cognitive translation behaviours, these results contribute to child-centred studies, translation expertise research, translation process research, translation pedagogy, and translator-centred studies.

In this study, TAPs as a research methodology of process-oriented descriptive TS came to be tested as a beneficial outcome (see Chapter 10). In contrast to previous studies using TAPs (e.g., House, 1988; Toury, 1991; Ericsson & Simon, 1993) an effort was made to collect data on all participants' reasoning and judgments. Participants from all FGs provided information about their principles and translation norms by reasoning their choices in various cases through their verbalisations (Chapters 9 and 10). What is more, in several cases they did not hesitate to assess their choices and to comment on their decision-making in a natural way. A major contribution of the study was that the translator came to be acknowledged as the central focus point in the course of the translation process, thus placing this work firmly within translator-centred studies.

Much emphasis was placed on thinking-aloud as a valid method to provide a window into the translator's thought processes and strategies while translating humour from English into Greek. As revealed throughout this chapter and Chapters 10 and 11, TAPs is a potentially valuable pedagogical tool, with a promising future in both the research and practice of TS and other interdisciplinary areas (Bernardini, 2001; Jakobsen, 2005). In this respect, there is a real need for students, trainers, and scholars to familiarise themselves with its affordances as a methodology.

Despite the well documented limitations of TAPs collection as a research tool, this study has found it to be a useful method of investigation when deployed alongside other methods. TAPs allows the translator to have a voice. Indeed, his words are investigated directly and the research activity does not exclusively rely on the investigator's subjective interpretation. If used carefully, TAPs can be a suitable method of investigation revealing information that other methods are not able to (Smith, 2004, 2007; Englund Dimitrova, 2005; Hubscher-Davidson, 2007; 2008, 2009).

Overall, this study explored the following areas: children's literature (ChL) and children's literature translation (ChLT), humour translation (HT), TAPs as a method, translation norms and strategies, translation competence and expert translators' performance, translation process research and its utilisation of TAPs. Implications of the study were mainly pedagogical, but findings of the study also have a demonstrable impact on, and implications for, translation research and practice.

The present study achieved its aim to (re)search a challenging area, i.e. the human mind and the complex process of transferring humorous texts from one language to another for children and YA, who make a quite demanding target group. It revealed aspects of translator behaviour within two marginalised areas, ChLT and HT, and shed some light on translation process research, TAPs, and expertise research in TS. It is hoped that findings on the process of translating humour in ChL from English into Greek will contribute to current knowledge and to enhancing the quality of translator training programmes in this context.

In addition, and more importantly, this study placed the translator at the centre of the investigation. TAPs provided the thirty (30) participants with the opportunity to verbalise their thoughts, thus revealing their translation strategies, approaches, and norms, which played a major role in the creation of the TT. This enabled translators to take an active part in the translation research and, eventually, in the development of translation pedagogy, research, and practice. As noted previously, this may pave the way for a new era in TS, one where an inevitable turn to translator-centred studies will occur.

What is left is to welcome such a development and hope that it will lead to an improvement of the translator's status in both research and society. It is high time for the main actor of the show to shine and take his deserved place in a history he helped to create.

Appendices

APPENDIX I
Pre-Experiment Questionnaire

Pre-Experiment Questionnaire

This brief pre-experiment questionnaire consists of questions with regards to personal information and professional background. You are invited to give your honest respond on the sections below:

1. Personal Information

Name:

Chosen nick-name:

Age:

Level of Studies:

Reasons for choosing this study area:

2. Professional Background

What are the translation areas of your interest?

In which translation areas are you specialising?

What is your translation experience? For how long?

APPENDIX II
Post-Experiment Questionnaire

Post-Experiment Questionnaire

This brief post-experiment questionnaire consists of questions with regards to the TAPs session experience you have just had. You are invited to give your honest respond on your thoughts, feelings, and problems with regards to the TAPs session, as well as answer two further questions on translation itself and your future plans.

1. Thoughts about TAPs session

What do you think about TAPS?

2. Feelings about TAPs session

How did it feel to participate in a TAPs session?

3. Problems during TAPS session

What were the difficulties/problems you have faces during the TAPs session you have just experienced? How did you manage to solve them?

4. Defining translation

What is translation to you? How would you define translation?

5. Future Plans

What are your future plans?

APPENDIX III
Information Sheet

Information Sheet on a Postgraduate Study

Title of Thesis: **Investigating Humour Translation Norms, Strategies and Approaches in Literature for Children and Young Adults**

Name of Researcher: **Elena Xeni**

Dear Participant of this study,

I am conducting my postgraduate research on humour translation norms, strategies, and approaches in literature for children and young adults. Based on the methodology chosen, you will take two humorous texts extracted from a British novel for children and young adults and translate them from English into Greek under my observation. While you translate the texts, I will ask you to share your thoughts on your thinking, decision-making process, and translation choices you apply.

Let me clarify here, that for this study, whether the translation is 'good', 'poor', or 'bad' is of NO interest to this study. The focus aspect is the process of translation (i.e. what happens while you translate: thinking, decision-making, translation choices, etc.) and NOT YOU as a participant of the study. The aim is for me as a researcher to achieve 'inserting your mind' and learn about your translation choices and reasons for these.

The methodological tool to investigate your mind is your verbalisations of what you think and what you choose to do and why (i.e. Think Aloud Protocols - TAPs). This thinking aloud will be recorded and then transcribed and encoded so as to further analyse the data collected for the purposes of my study.

The protocols produced by your thinking aloud while you translate will be strictly confidential. They will be kept in my computer files under a nickname you will choose. Data from the TAPs will be used anonymously, and in case I refer to them in the body of my Thesis, I will give a code with an indication of the number you had as a participant (P) when joining the TAPs session and your focus group (FG) [e.g. P1, FG3].

In the beginning of the TAPs session you will need to fill in a pre-questionnaire consisting of personal information (name, age, level of studies) as well as professional background supporting information (experience with translation, years of experience as a translator, areas of interest or specialization, etc.). After the TAPS session, I will politely ask you to fill in a post questionnaire asking questions about the TAPs experience (thoughts, feelings, difficulties). In the end, you will receive an envelope with 30 Euros as a complementary for your contribution to this study.

Please note that this contribution is on a voluntary basis. If, for any reason, you feel unable to continue, you can stop the process and leave. It is always allowed for you to quit.

If you are willing to help me with this study, please indicate your consent by signing the consent form.

Thank you in advance to contributing to the success of my study!

Researcher

Elena Xení

Date

6 June 2006

Signature

APPENDIX IV
Consent Form

Consent Form for a Postgraduate Study

Title of Thesis: **Investigating Humour Translation Norms, Strategies and Approaches in Literature for Children and Young Adults**

Name of Researcher: **Elena Xeni**

I hereby indicate my consent to participate in a Think Aloud Protocol Session for the purposes of the above study carried out by Elena Xeni (researcher).

I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet dated 6th June 2006 referred to the study in question. I have had the opportunity to consider the process, ask questions, and have had these answered satisfactorily.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without my legal rights being affected.

I agree to take part in the above research study and I allow the researcher to make use of data from my contribution for the purposes of her study.

Participant

Date

Signature

Researcher

Date

Signature

Elena Xeni

APPENDIX V

Hubscher-Davidson's Coding System of Protocol Analysis (2007: 285-286)

Adapted by Lörcher (1991)

➤ **P: Physical**

PE: facial expressions (smiling, rolling eyes etc.)

PB: body movements (hand gestures, head tilting, pen chewing)

➤ **S: Silence**

SR: silent reading

SRS: reading ST

SRT: reading TT

SRW: writing translation

SM: other silent mental process (silence, lapse in verbalising)

SMS: short silence (5 seconds or less)

SML: long silence (5 seconds or longer)

➤ **V: Verbalising**

VSA: verbalised self-assessment, opinions, personal comments on text, references to personal experience

VF: verbalised feelings/emotions (for example as a reaction to the ST or to the whole experiment)

VU: verbalised uncertainty

VS: verbalised strategies (for example: 'I will translate this later')

VT: verbalised translating

VO: other verbalisations

VOU: verbalised logic/efforts to understand ST and TT requirements.

VOP: verbalisations relating to picturing events/mental representations

VRS: verbalised reading of ST

VRT: verbalised reading of TT

APPENDIX VI
Example of TAPs Transcription

'Minnie' - Participant 7, Focus Group 2 (P7, FG2)

Protocol in Greek	Translated Protocol in English	Code	Researcher's Comments
<p>Διαβάω πρώτα το task one.</p> <p>To 'Sainsbury's' είναι κατάστημα, είναι σουπερμάρκετ, αν κάποιος δεν έχει πει στην Αγγλία αυτό δεν το γνωρίζει, οπότε πρέπει να ... γράψω ότι πρόκειται για σουπερμάρκετ.</p> <p>Το πρόβλε εμπανίζει πολυσυνημία, οπότε προφανώς επερίδη μιλάμε για σουπερμάρκετ σημαίνει το καρότσι.</p> <p>Το ημερολόγιο αυτό δεν τό' χω διαβάσει, αλλά, μάλλον είναι κάποιο παιδάκι, το οποίο μιλάει για τον πατέρα του και η σύνταξη που χρησιμοποιεί είναι πολύ πολύ απλή ...</p> <p>Μάλλον δε χρειάζεται να μετατρέψω τις λίρες σε ευρώ, γιατί είναι λογοτεχνικό κείμενο και θα το δώσω καλύτερα με λίρες ... την πραγματικότητα την αγγλική ... δεν ξέρω τι είναι το 'ΙΟΥ' .. ούτε το 'till roll'...</p> <p>Α! Κατάλαβα τι είναι, είναι φωνητική γραφή του ΙΟΥ διότι του χρωστάει χρήματα.</p> <p>To 'till roll' πρέπει να'ναι το χαρτάκι της αποδείξης. Επτάζει...</p> <p>Το παιδάκι φουρτούσε καφέλο ... ίσως πρόκειται για λίγο παιδί, αλλά όχι αφού μιλάμε για 'Sainsbury's' ... σκέφτηκα μήπως ήταν παιδιότερη εποχή...</p> <p>Δεν ξέρω τι είναι το 'vicar' ... 'vicar', μήπως έχει να κάνει, το ... εκεί που λέει για τον 'vicar' μετά τον αντιπαράθετεί με τους φτωχούς, ... ίσως είναι κάποιος ανθρωπίνος ύψους τάξης, που ανήκει σε υψηλά κοινωνικά στρώματα...</p> <p>... Ξεκινώ τη μετάφραση.</p> <p>Σάββατο, 4 Απριλίου, διαφορά στην Ελληνική και την Αγγλική με τον τρόπο που γράφουμε την ημερομηνία, New Moon είναι η Νέα Σελήνη.</p> <p>Εγώ και ο πατέρας μου, ή μάλλον ο πατέρας μου κι εγώ στα Ελληνικά συμβιβάζεται να βάζουμε πρώτα το εγώ, δηλαδή το πρώτο πρόσωπο...</p> <p>Βάζω το σήμερα μπροστά, ακούγεται πιο φυσικό, ο πατέρας μου κι εγώ καθόλας με το σπίτι...</p> <p>... σκέφτομαι επερίδη χρησιμοποιεί το 'grandma' και όχι το grandmother να γράψω γιαγιάκα αλλά δε συμβιβάζεται, θέλω να τω το grandma ακούγεται πιο οικείο από το grandmother, ... πώς να το εξηγήσω όταν ... φωνάζουμε τη γιαγιά στη Βρετανία λέμε grandma</p>	<p>I first read task one.</p> <p>'Sainsbury's' is a store, a supermarket.</p> <p>If someone has never been to England he does not know this, so, I have to write that... it is about a supermarket.</p> <p>Trolley presents polysemy, so obviously, since we talk about a supermarket, it means the trolley.</p> <p>I haven't read this diary, but this is probably a kid, who talks about his father and the syntax he uses is very simple...</p> <p>I probably don't have to transfer pounds into euros, Because it is a literary text and I will render it better with pounds... the English reality ... I don't know what 'IOU' is... neither till roll.</p> <p>A! I see what it is, it's the phonemic writing of 'IOU' because he owes him money.</p> <p>'Till roll' should be the receipt paper. OK ... The kid had a hat... maybe it is a little bit old.</p> <p>But then again, no, since we talk about Sainsbury's... I thought maybe this occurs in a previous period...</p> <p>I don't know what 'vicar' is... 'vicar', it might mean... where he mentions 'vicar' he then contrast him to the poor, ... Maybe he is a person of a higher class, belonging to a higher social class...</p> <p>... I begin the translation.</p> <p>Saturday, 4th April, [there is] a difference in Greek and English with how we write the date, 'New Moon', is Nea Selini [New Moon].</p> <p>Me and my father, or better say, my father and I, in Greek we use to write me/ I first, i.e. first person...</p> <p>I put today in the beginning, it seems more natural, my father and I cleaned the house...</p> <p>... I think that because he uses 'grandma' and not 'grandmother' I should write 'grandma' but it is not common, I mean 'grandma' sounds more familiar than 'grandmother' ... how can I explain it when... we call grandmother in Britain 'grandma' this is what she is, but in</p>	<p>AT-U VL/EU V, STR, R</p> <p>N</p> <p>STR,R,N</p> <p>STR, R, N</p> <p>VL/EU,MIST VL/EU,MIST</p> <p>VL/EU,MIST VL/EU VT</p> <p>STR, R</p> <p>STR, R, N</p> <p>VL/EU,R, N</p>	<p>-explanatory translation</p> <p>-simplicity, simplification of language, structure, syntax, etc</p> <p>-naturalness, foreignisation</p> <p>-exotic, foreignisation or authenticity, real word</p> <p>-shifts</p> <p>-addition (naturalness)</p>

<p>τα εγνωστικά είναι η γενικότερη ιδιότητα της, αλλά στα ελληνικά θα το αφήνω για νά... Κρατάω το 'is coming' στον ενεστώτα γιατί αυτό δείχνει το μέλλοντα και στα Ελληνικά, δείχνει μελλοντική πράξη, το 'tomorrow' πρέπει να 'χει ορθογραφικό λάθος'... Το 'this' το παραλείπω και γράφω το αντίστοιχο το 'this' ενοείται... αν πρόκειται να μεταφράσω για ελληνικό κοινό, θα γράψω ότι πήγαμε στο σουπερμάρκετ 'Sainsbury's' γιατί οι Έλληνες μπορεί να μην τα γνωρίζουν προφανώς αυτό θα πω σε ελληνικό κοινό όταν μεταφράζω στα Ελληνικά ... Ο μπαμπάς... προδημιουργία λίγο με το 'it' was impossible to steer', καθώς η συγκεκριμένη σύνταξη μου φαίνεται λίγο περίεργη, ίσως να 'ναι περίεργη και στα Αγγλικά'... Το απαρέμφατο μάλλον θα το αναπτύξω σε δευτερεύουσα πρόταση και το 'to steer' θα το αποδώσω «που ήταν δύσκολο να το οδηγήσει» (το συλλαβίζει και το γράφει)...ή «που ήταν δύσκολο στην οδήγηση» Παραλείπω την αντωνυμία 'it' και το 'squeaked' προφανώς σημαίνει ότι έτριψε, το κάροτσι, έσκουζε, τσαλατσάντων σημαίνει τον ήχο, που κάνει κάτι... δε θυμάμαι ακριβώς τη λέξη, θα προσπαθήσω να θυμηθώ... 'it was ashamed to be heard with it...' Νομίζω ότι στα Ελληνικά δε θα μπορούσα να το μεταφράσω κατά λέξη «ντροπαλιό που ακουγόμουν μ' αυτόν μάλλον ενοεί το παιδάκι ότι ντροπιάζαν που έκανε θόρυβο το κάροτσι, ντροπιάζαν για τον ήχο που έβγαζε το κάροτσι, κάπως έτσι θα το αποδώσω... Το 'fresh food' μάλλον φρέσκο φαγητό... φαγητό φρέσκο και σαλάτα το 'check out' πρέπει να 'ναι το ταμείο, οπότε όταν φτάσαμε στο ταμείο το 'till' πρέπει να 'ναι η κόπρα της τράπεζας... τώρα να πω απλά την κόπρα του; Ενοείται ότι το χρησιμοποιούμε την τραπεζική του κόπρα, «την κόπρα του τραπεζίτη του» όσο τα γράφω αυτά σκέφτηκα το πρόβλημα του τεκνού «ν» αν θα βάλω το «ν» στο «την κόπρα»... το 'cheque' είναι το «ρεκ ή επιταγή» προφανώς... το 'had to come' το κάνω απρόσωπο και λέω χρειάστηκε να έρθει ο σουπερμάρκετ, είναι ο αντίθετος, ο επιβάτην, προφανώς ενοεί τον υπεύθυνο των ταμείων, θα γράψω απλά ο υπεύθυνος... το 'argument' μπορεί να 'ναι καβγάς, μπορεί να 'ναι φιλονικία, μπορεί να 'ναι διαφωνία... θα το αφήσω διαφωνία καθώς δεν είναι και ξεκάθαρο, να στήμαρτζει τη διαφωνία, να λύσει το πρόβλημα, ίσως ... επίσης το I had to το μετατρέπω σε απρόσωπο χρειάστηκε να ... κάποια από τα χρήματα που πήρα στα γενέθλιά μου το 'birthday money' το αναλύω σε ομόκληση πρόταση... θα μπορούσα να πω και τα χρήματα των γενεθλίων μου αλλά το αναλύω σε πρόταση για να είναι πιο σαφές περί... περί τινος πρόκειται ...</p>	<p>Greek I will leave it grandmother... I keep 'is coming' in present tense, it shows the future tense in Greek too, it shows future action, Tomorrow must have typos... I omit 'this' and I write the afternoon, 'this' is implied... If I am supposed to translate for a Greek audience, I will write that we went to the supermarket Sainsbury's, because Greeks might not know these [...] This is what I will write for the Greek audience when I translate into Greek. My dad... I am a little puzzled with 'it was impossible to steer' as this particular syntax seems a little strange to me, maybe it is strange in English as well... I will possible develop the infinitive into a secondary sentence and I will translate 'steer' into "which was difficult to move" (she spells it and writes it)... or "which was difficult in movement" I omit the pronoun 'it' and 'squeaked', it obviously means it squeaked, the trolley made a strong sound, anyway, it means the sound, that makes something... I do not remember exactly the word, I will try to remember. 'It was ashamed to be heard with it...' I think in Greek I couldn't translate this word-for-word 'I was ashamed with this?' I suppose the kid means that he was embarrassed the trolley made a sound, he was embarrassed about the sound the trolley had, this is how I will probably render it... 'Fresh food' is probably 'fresh food'? ... fresh food and salad 'Check out' should be the till, so when we reached the till, it should be the card of the bank... Now, should I just say his card? Of course we use "his card of his bank", "the card of his bank" while I write these I thought the issue of 'final n' if I will put an 'v → n' in 'την κόπρα' (the card)... 'cheque' is the 'cheque or receipt' obviously... 'had to come' I make it impersonal and I say the supervisor needed to come, he is higher is hierarchy, the observer, obviously he means the person responsible for the till, I will write the one in charge... Argument, might be a fight, a conflict, a disagreement... I will leave it disagreement, as it is not clear for the disagreement to stop, solve the problem, Maybe, also I make 'I had to' impersonal, I had to... some of the money I had for my birthday 'birthday money' I analyse it into a full sentence... I could say my 'birthday money', but I analyse it into a sentence for accuracy purposes ...</p>	<p>V, STR, R, N VL/EU SMS VL/EU, STR SML VRS ID, VL/EU VRS, VU W, VRS ID, VU ID, VSA VSR, VU VSR SML VSR SMS</p>	<p>-addition, explanatory translation -familiarity -omission</p>
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<p>όπως είναι και πριν δεν αλλάζω τις λίρες σε ευρώ για να αποδοίεται η βρετανική πραγματικότητα, αλλά αλλάζω τον τρόπο με τον οποίο αναφερόμαστε στα χρήματα... για να ακούγεται καλύτερα στα ελληνικά ... δε θα πω οκτώ λίρες πριαντακιού και μισή πέννα, θα πω οκτώ λίρες και πριαντακιόμηση πέννες. Τον έβγαλα δε λέω τον έβγαλα αλλά, τον έκανα γιατί αυτό συμβαίνει περισσότερο στην Ελλάδα... να γράφει... το 'ΙΟΥ' είναι φωνητική μεταγραφή τριών λέξεων με τρία γράμματα ξεχωριστά, οπότε θα το αντιστοιχάω ελληνικά σου χρωστάω δε μπορεί να γίνει, οπότε θα το αναπτύξω, αλλά θα το γράψω με κεφαλαία όπως έχει γράψει εκείνος το 'ΙΟΥ' ... το 'on the back' το γράφω στο πίσω μέρος ... της αποδείξης.</p> <p>'Till roll' είναι η αποδείξη, νομίζω είναι το ταμείο, ο πάγκος, 'roll' είναι το ποσό, καιi τέτοιο μου κάνει, δεν το ξέρω ακριβώς τι σημαίνει γι' αυτό κάνω μια υπόθεση...</p> <p>Το but το μεταφράζω «πάντως» που καλώς καλύτερα και όχι «όμως» ... τώρα εφόσον έχω μιλήσει για σουπερμάρκετ Sainsbury's μπορώ να το παραδείξω το σουπερμάρκετ εφόσον το αναγνωστικό κοινό γνωρίζει ότι πρόκειται για σουπερμάρκετ και να συνεχίσω μόνο σ' αυτό με την ετυμολογία... βλέ ... να μιλήσω για τα Sainsbury's όπως μιλάμε συνήθως στα ελληνικά για τα σουπερμάρκετ, παραδείγματος χάριν στα «Καρπούρι», ή μάλιστα όχι ... όχι, θα αφήσω το «στον» ... νομίζω άλλο αναφέρεται με το ουδέτερο στον ενικό και άλλο στον πληθυντικό.</p> <p>'To attract' ... το 'attract' φαίνεται πως δε θα μπορούσα να το χρησιμοποιήσω ως γονιεύουν, θυμάμαι ότι τραβάνε μια καλύτερη... μια ανώτερη τάξη ότι σ' αυτό πηγαίνουν άνθρωποι από ανώτερη τάξη... κάπως έτσι θα το γράψω... ξαναδιαβάσω λίγο... φαίνεται ότι εκεί δηλαδή στα Σόλινμποργς πηγαίνουν άτομα ανώτερης τάξης...</p> <p>Τώρα το 'vicar' δεν ξέρω ακριβώς το είναι... αν είχα λεξικό θα το κοιτούσα, τώρα δεν έχω όμως, υποθέτω πάντως ότι είναι άτομο από ανώτερη ανώτερο κοινωνικό στρώμα γιατί το αντιστοιχοβάλλει με το poor με τους φτωχούς καιi μου κάνει σε άνθρωπο της εκκλησίας... δεν ξέρω όμως μπορεί να λέω και βακεία... θα χρησιμοποιούσα λεξικό σ' αυτή την περίπτωση, ... Παρακάτω βλέπω 'he has money to burn' στα ελληνικά έμειν λέει αυτός πρέπει να 'χει λεφτά για πέννα... λέει για κάποιον ...</p> <p>Το σημειώνω ότι θέλω λεξικό και στην κώδικα...</p> <p>'toilet paper' το αποδοίουμε ως χαρτί υγιείας και όχι τουαλέτας... διαφορετική σύνταξη, επίσης την άνω τελεία που δεν ξέρω πώς λέγεται στα αγγλικά, που είναι στα ελληνικά σαν το ευαγγέλιο ... το βάζω με άνω τελεία ελληνική... το pack το γράφω συσκευασία, μια συσκευασία, μια συσκευασία τρεσόρων πιατών, αλλάζω σε</p>	<p>As I said before, I do not change pounds into euros so as to render the British reality, but I change the way we refer to money... so as it sounds better in Greek... I will not say eight pounds and thirty-eight pence and five cents, I will say eight pounds and thirty-eight and a half pence.</p> <p>I put him, I don't say I put him, but I made him because this is more used in Greece... IOU is the abbreviation of three words, <i>eeen</i>, which in the equivalent Greek 'I owe you', it cannot be done, so I will develop it, but I will write it in capital letters as he did with IOU... the 'on the back' I write it 'on the back' ... of the receipt. 'Till roll' is the receipt, I think it is the cashier's, the counter, this is what it should be, I don't know exactly what it means, that's why I make a guess...</p>	<p>V, STR, R, N V, STR, R, N VL/EU STR, R VU</p>	<p>Naturalness, foreignisation, sound of language</p> <p>-accuracy, equivalence</p> <p>-equivalence</p>
<p>The word 'but' I translate it as 'at any case' and not 'but'... Now having talked about a supermarket called 'Sainsbury's' I can omit 'supermarket' since the reading audience knows that this is about a supermarket and refer to that with only the brand... see... I will talk about 'Sainsbury's' as we usually talk about supermarkets in Greek, for example at Carrefour, or maybe not... no, I will leave the 'at'... I think it refers to something else with the noun in simple form and plural form goes for something different...</p>	<p>'To attract' ... the word 'attract' it means that I couldn't use it as 'appeal', I remember they 'attract' a better... a higher social class, I will write it like that... I reread... It seems that in Sainsbury's supermarkets higher social class people go...</p>	<p>VU V, STR, N</p>	<p>-omission</p> <p>-sound of language, naturalness, localisation</p>
<p>'To attract' ... the word 'attract' it means that I couldn't use it as 'appeal', I remember they 'attract' a better... a higher social class, I will write it like that... I reread... It seems that in Sainsbury's supermarkets higher social class people go...</p>	<p>Now, 'vicar', I don't know what this is... if I had a dictionary, though, I would look it up, but now I don't have, so I guess that he is a person from a higher social class because he contrasts him with the poor, poor people and he seems to me that he is a church person... I don't know, though. It might be a stupid thing what I say... I would use a dictionary in this case...</p> <p>Below I see 'he has money to throw' ... we say for in Greek we say "he must have money to throw" ... we say for someone...</p> <p>I take a note on my paper that I need a dictionary...</p> <p>'toilet paper' we say "health paper" and not 'toilet paper' ... there is different syntax in Greece, the semicolon, that I don't know how it is called in English, that it is in Greek like the hyphen... I place the Greek semicolon... the word "pack" I write it as "package", a package of four plies I use <i>genetiv</i>... mauve paper of three files, I think I have seen this</p>	<p>VU V, STR VU, VSA STR</p>	<p>-</p> <p>-acknowledges the necessity to use a dictionary</p>
<p>'toilet paper' το αποδοίουμε ως χαρτί υγιείας και όχι τουαλέτας... διαφορετική σύνταξη, επίσης την άνω τελεία που δεν ξέρω πώς λέγεται στα αγγλικά, που είναι στα ελληνικά σαν το ευαγγέλιο ... το βάζω με άνω τελεία ελληνική... το pack το γράφω συσκευασία, μια συσκευασία, μια συσκευασία τρεσόρων πιατών, αλλάζω σε</p>	<p>I take a note on my paper that I need a dictionary...</p> <p>'toilet paper' we say "health paper" and not 'toilet paper' ... there is different syntax in Greece, the semicolon, that I don't know how it is called in English, that it is in Greek like the hyphen... I place the Greek semicolon... the word "pack" I write it as "package", a package of four plies I use <i>genetiv</i>... mauve paper of three files, I think I have seen this</p>	<p>VRS STR</p>	<p>->></p> <p>-shift, syntax level</p> <p>-shift, grammatical level</p>

<p>νεκική... μιάβ χαρτιού τριών φύλλων, νομίζω τὸ γὰρ δεῖ σε συσκεύαστες χαρτίων υγείας.</p> <p>Πρέπει να βδάω... στο 'he must have money to burn' γιατί πρόκειται για υποθέση και ακούγεται καλύτερα στα ελληνικά, τουλάχιστον σε μένα.</p> <p>Θα πρέπει να έχει λεφτά για τίτμα! Θaumαστικοί! Κρατάω το σημείο στίξης.</p> <p>Πρέπει να είναι όντως παιδάκι γιατί η σκέψη του είναι όντως πολύ απλή.</p> <p>Θα μπορούσε να αγοράσει λευκό χαρτί, μάλλον ερωεί από χαρτί, από λευκό χαρτί, οπότε γράφω...</p> <p>και να δώσει τη διαφορά.</p> <p>μάλλον ερωεί τη διαφορά μετάξ του λευκού χαρτιού και του μιάβ στους φτωχούς. Τι υποκριτής.</p>	<p>in toilet paper packages.</p> <p>I have to put in... "he must have money to burn" because it is a hypothesis and it sounds better in Greek, at least for me.</p> <p>He should have money to burn! Exclamation mark! I keep punctuation.</p> <p>It has to be a kid indeed because his thought is really simple. He could buy a white paper. I suppose he means a simple paper, simple white paper, so I write...</p> <p>And give the difference.</p> <p>I guess he means the difference between the white paper and the mauve to the poor. What a hypocrite!</p>	<p>N</p> <p>STR</p> <p>N/PB VT VL/EU</p>	<p>-reference to former personal experience</p> <p>-sound of language</p> <p>-laughs (children have a simple thought, thus a simple language)</p>
<p>ΔΕΥΤΕΡΟ ΚΕΙΜΕΝΟ</p> <p>Προχωρώ στο task two το διαβάζω μια φορά...</p> <p>μιάδε για μια ταπεινωτική εμπειρία...</p> <p>το παιδάκι μάλλον κάνει μοντελισμό, μιάδε για κάποιο αεροπλάνο... ωχ και 'sniff of glue'...</p> <p>το 'undercarriage' δε ξέρω τι είναι, ωχ αστέρι! Αστέια ιστορία, ε! Του κόλλησε η μύτη στο αεροπλάνο.</p> <p>Το 'Casualty' πρέπει να ναί ο πρώτος βοήθης.</p> <p>Μόνο εκεί θα πήγαινε ο πατέρας το παιδάκι του... 'sniffer' είναι όνι τον περιόδεσε γιατί λέει όνι τον κοποδεύανε και κάτι τέτοιο.</p> <p>'Card' πρέπει να ναί η καρτέλα του ασθενοῦς...</p> <p>'I rang Pandora', πήρα τηλέφωνο...</p> <p>Ξεκινάω τη μετάφραση αφού το διάβασα όλο...</p>	<p>SECOND TEXT</p> <p>I move to task two I read it once...</p> <p>It talks about a humiliating experience...</p> <p>The kid is probably playing with modelling, he talks about a small airplane... Oh! And 'sniff of glue'...</p> <p>'undercarriage' I don't know what this is... Oh! It's funny! A funny story, indeed! His nose stuck to the airplane.</p> <p>'Casualty' must be First Aid? Only there could a father take his kid... 'sniffer' it's that they were teasing him, because he says they were making a fool of himself, or something like that.</p> <p>'Card' should be the 'patient's card'</p> <p>I rang Pandora, I rang...</p> <p>I begin the translation as I read it all.</p>	<p>T-DA</p> <p>VL/EU</p> <p>W, VU, PB, VSA ID W, VL/EU</p>	<p>-laughs</p>
<p>Σάββατο 3 Απριλίου, 4 pm νομίζω το p είναι post οπότε είναι 4 μετά μεσημέρια...</p> <p>μόλις είχα ταπεινωτική... δε μ' αρέσει... νομίζω μεταφράζω κατά λέξη... θα το κοτάξω αργότερα την πρόταση την αρχική πρόταση του task two είναι μεταφρασμένη κατά λέξη... δε μ' αρέσει η χρήση του είχα.</p> <p>'It started'... το γράφω όμα ξεκίνησαν</p> <p>'to assembly', γχμμ δε μου' ρχεται τύπα η λέξη...</p> <p>όταν κάνουμε μοντελισμό το κάνουνε;</p> <p>Όχι... συγκεντρώνουμε... όπως και με τα λέκκο...</p> <p>να τα χτίζουμε... πώς το λέμε, δε θυμάμαι...</p> <p>τύπα ίσως να συμβουλευόμουν να και κάποιο λεξικό</p> <p>'to assembly'... κοίτα που κολλάω σε πολύ απλά!</p> <p>'to assembly', όχι να συγκεντρώ...</p> <p>θα τρελλάω που δεν το θυμάμαι... α!</p>	<p>Saturday, 3rd April, 4 pm, I think 'p' means 'post' so it's 4 o' clock in afternoon...</p> <p>I just had a humiliating... I don't like it. I think I translate word-for-word... I will look it up later, the sentence of task two, it is translated word-for-word. I don't like the use of 'I had'.</p> <p>'It started... I write this as it all started</p> <p>'to assembly', hmm the word doesn't come in my head, now...</p> <p>when we do modelling we say we do? No... We compose... just like with leggos... to build them... how is this called, I can't remember...</p> <p>Now at this point I could check on a dictionary 'to assembly'... oh, look! I stick in simple things! 'to assembly', not to compose... I will go crazy that I can't remember it...</p>	<p>VF</p> <p>VSA</p> <p>VF, VU</p> <p>VL/EU</p> <p>VSA</p> <p>STR</p> <p>VSA</p>	<p>-leaves problematic issue for later</p> <p>- background information, personal experience info</p> <p>-acknowledges the necessity of a dictionary</p>

<p>Τὴν ἔχω τὴ λέξη, θυμῶμαι τὴν ἔννοια, μα δὲν τὴ θυμῶμαι πῶς λέγεται στὰ ἑλληνικά...</p> <p>ἴσως νὰ πῶ κατασκευάζω ἀν δὲν καταφέρω νὰ δοῦ τί νὰ κάνω... ἴσως νὰ ἐμῶχα ἓνα λέξικό...</p> <p>συνεμπολῶν... τὸ θυμῆθκα ἐμπέλους... αὐ!</p> <p>Τώρα πῶς νὰ ἐξηγήσω ὅτι πρόκειται γιὰ ἀεροπλανάκι μοντέλο!... νὰ γράψω ἀεροπλανάκι, μοντέλο ἐνὸς ἀεροπλάνου, δε ξέρω, ἓνα μοντέλο ἀεροπλάνο, μοντέλο ἀεροπλάνο καὶ τὸ my μαζί...</p> <p>ὅταν ξεκίνησα νὰ συνεμπολῶν...</p> <p>θα γράψω ἓνα μοντέλο, δὲν ξέρω ἀν εἶναι σωστό, ἴσως νὰ ἐμῶχα στὸ δικόκτιο γιὰ νὰ, γιὰ νὰ δοῦ τὴ σύνταξη, πῶς τὸ χρησιμοποιοῦμε. δὲν ἔχω ἀσφαλθεῖ ποτέ με μοντελισμό καὶ δὲν ξέρω πῶς ἀναφερόμαστε σ' αὐτὰ...</p> <p>'I nearly finished it' τὸ εἶχα σχεδὸν τελείωσε! ὅταν εἶπα τὸ experimental ὅτι μάλλον θα τὸ πληματοποιήσω θα τὸ κάνα νὰ πειραματισθῶ ἢ νὰ δοκιμάσω...</p> <p>Νὰ σνιφάω κόλλα ἢ νὰ εἰσπνέσω κόλλα λέμε καλύτερα, ἀλλὰ τὸ παιδιάκι τί θα ἔλεγε;</p> <p>Εγὼ ἐν τὸ μετόξυ τὸ ἔχω δεδομένο ὅτι μιλοῦμε γιὰ παιδιάκι, δὲν εἶμαι σίγουρη, μάλλον...</p> <p>[...]</p>	<p>Αὐ! I remember the concept, but I can't remember how it is called in Greek. Maybe I can say 'construct' if I do not manage to see what to do... Maybe I could check in a dictionary...</p> <p>Put together, I finally remembered it... Αὐ!</p> <p>Now how can I explain that it is about a small model airplane?... I will write a small airplane, model of an airplane, I don't know, a model airplane, model airplane along with 'my'...</p> <p>When I began to put together...</p> <p>I will write a model, I don't know if this is right,</p> <p>I could possibly check the internet to, to see the syntax, how we use it, I have never dealt with modeling and I do not know how to refer to these things...</p> <p>'I nearly finished it', I had almost finished it when I said I will transfer the word 'experimental' into a verb, I will make it 'to experiment' or 'to try'...</p> <p>To 'sniff' glue or to 'intake' glue we better say, but what would a child say?</p> <p>From my point of view I take it for granted that we talk about a kid, I am possibly not sure...</p> <p>[...]</p>	<p>STR ID, VSA, PB VLEU</p> <p>VU STR</p> <p>STR</p> <p>R, N VU</p>	<p>-acknowledges the necessity of a dictionary -victory signal with fingers</p> <p>-acknowledges the necessity of internet search</p> <p>-shifts/ changes on a grammatical level</p> <p>-appropriateness</p>
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APPENDIX VII

Researcher's Diary

The Researcher's Diary for 'Minnie', Participant 7, Focus Group 2 (P7, FG2)

Minnie (P7, FG2)

Notes on the Pre-Experiment Phase and Questionnaire

'Minnie' was very friendly on the phone during our first conversation. She agreed to participate in my study, but politely refused to be videotaped as that would make her feel quite exposed, as she confessed.

She came to the experiment in quite a good mood and finished up with her warming up tasks with no particular difficulty.

Notes on the TAPs Phase and Experiment

In the translation process 'Minnie' used a top-down approach. She went through every single task once, pinpointed and dealt with the problematic areas immediately, and then started translating. She went on verbalising her strategies giving insight into the norms that governed her decision-making with ease.

Fluency seems to guide P7's decision-making, whereas what sounded better was an additional thought for P7, displaying, besides the norm of fluency, the norm of the sound of language. From her verbalisations it derives that translation choices that mirror the reality is 'a must' in P7's translation process. This reveals that her choices are governed by the norm of authenticity as well.

As for strategies, it seems that P7 went for word addition for comprehensibility purposes. Making children readers understand the TT seems to be important to her.

At one point 'Minnie' mistranslates a word... Having misunderstood the ST meaning, P7 ended up mistranslating the word 'till roll'.

On a general note, while approaching the texts, 'Minnie' makes frequent references to her background knowledge and personal experience, and comments on her work in the context of personal assessment.

Notes on the Post-Experiment Phase and Questionnaire

'Minnie' found the experiment quite unique and said she was anxious to get the outcomes of the study, as she felt these would help her quite much in terms of feedback. In case of problem solving, she felt the dictionary was of much help, as it saved her time. Other than that, according to her, context always helps her dealing with problems and this is why she struggles to understand a text as thoroughly as possible.

APPENDIX VIII

Pilot Study Tasks

Think Aloud Protocol Experiment for the Purposes of the Pilot Study

Longer Sequence Text: A Paragraph

'Shopping in Sainsbury'

"We went to Sainsbury's this afternoon. My father chose a trolley that it was impossible to steer. It also squeaked as if somebody was torturing mice. I was ashamed to be heard with it. My father chose food that it is bad for you. I had to put my foot down and insist that he bought some fresh food and salad. When we got to the check out he couldn't find his banker's card, the cashier wouldn't take a cheque without it, so the supervisor had to come and stop the argument..."

Longer Sequence II: A Poem

The Tap, by Adrian Mole

The tap drips and keeps me awake
In the morning there will be a lake
For the want of a washer the carpet will spoil
Then for another my father will toil.
My father could snuff it while he is at work
Dad, fit a washer don't be a burk!

Shorter Sequences I: Phrases

'I take my hat off'
'It shared the fate of'
'He must have money to burn'
'I had to put my foot down'
'To spill the beans'
'Just my luck!'

Shorter Sequences II: Words

Yucky
Massive

APPENDIX IX

Attempts to Model Humour Translation Norms in the Context of Children's Literature Translation

Table 9.2.
Humour Translation Norms Revealed in the Study (with documentation)

NORMS	FIRST FOCUS GROUP (beginners)	SECOND FOCUS GROUP (competent translators)	THIRD FOCUS GROUP (experts)
1. Naturalness		<p>'I just had the most humiliating experience of my life...' This is natural enough... I just had the most humiliating experience of my life... 'Love is the only thing that keeps me sane...' <u>I think that what is top natural, and the most natural rendering would be...</u> If it was not for love, if I didn't have love, I would go crazy. (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>P4 insisted on natural renderings, putting more emphasis on the norm of naturalness.</u> (P4, FG2, rd)</p> <p>I begin with task one... 'we had no choice' Not that we had any choice... <u>And it adds more naturalness.</u> (P5, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>P5 also keeps naturalness in mind.</u> (P5, FG2, rd)</p>	<p><u>What is necessary in a text like this is for language to be as natural as it gets and stick less in words.</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>Naturalness is another norm revealed from P8's verbalisations.</u> (P8, FG3, rd)</p>
2. Fluency	<p><u>For the text to flow better...</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>Fluency was a norm that guided at times P3's decision-making.</u> (P3, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>I guess I will delete 'I had to put my foot down' and keep 'insist' because in that way <u>translation will flow easily and will be better heard as a target text...</u> (P2, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>P2 mentioned fluency</u> in an attempt to reason one of her translation choices. (P2, FG3, rd)</p> <p>So, love is the only thing that ... that helps me keeps me logical... this is certainly an expression with an equivalent one in Greek and that sounds natural <u>in the language flow...</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>Along with naturalness, P4 mentions fluency.</u> (P4, FG2, rd)</p> <p>I can't translate it as it is because it will not come up correctly in Greek, <u>meaning language will not flow...</u> (P7, FG2, p)</p>	

		<p><u>Fluency seems to guide P7's decision-making.</u> (P7, FG2, rd)</p> <p>So we put '<u>so</u>' for language to flow better... (P8, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>P8's translation choices were found to be regulated also by the norm of fluency.</u> (P8, FG2, rd)</p>	
3. Sound of language	<p>As I was writing the sentence I realised that in Greek it <u>sounds better if I put...</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>How the language sounds was a norm that P3 took into account while translating.</u> (P3, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>I think the first sentence <u>wouldn't sound well</u> if I had started with the subject... <u>It might sound too simplistic...</u> (P3, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>P3 thought much about how well the language sounded.</u> (P3, FG2, rd)</p> <p>"is coming for tea tomorrow"... In Greek, my grandmother is coming for tea tomorrow <u>doesn't sound that good</u>, I guess she is coming for a visit is more Greek... (P5, FG2, p)</p> <p>... 'Με τρεις στρώσεις χαρτί,' <u>It doesn't sound good at all!</u> (P5, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>The sound of language guided at times P5's decision-making.</u> (P5, FG2, rd)</p> <p>But I change the way we refer to money... <u>so as it sounds better in Greek...</u> (P7, FG2, p)</p> <p>I have to put [...] because [...] it <u>sounds better in Greek</u>, at least for me. (P7, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>What sounded better was an additional thought for P7.</u> (P7, FG2, rd)</p>	<p><u>'I don't wish,' it sounds too rastical!</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p>
4. Coherence	<p>I will stop somewhere here and re-read it so as to see if up to this point <u>the meaning is coherent</u> somehow... (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>Coherence came to be a norm that P3 followed while translating humour for children.</u> (P3, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>So I will say 'we went to Sainsbury's this afternoon and my father chose a trolley that was impossible to steer... even... ok, I will go for a free translation here... as if someone was torturing mice... <u>so as to be coherent.</u> (P8, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>A free translation was chosen by P8 so as to serve coherence purposes.</u> (P8, FG2, rd)</p>	

<p>5. Simplicity (simple language, structure, etc.)</p>	<p>Maybe this 'decelerate' is a <u>tough word for the kids</u>. (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p>Choosing difficult language was not an option for P3, as the target group concerned children. P3 verbalisations reveal <u>the norm of simplicity</u>. (P3, FG1, rd)</p> <p>During a discussion at a prior TAPs phase 'Maria 2', admitting how anxious she was about the whole research experience she told me: "I need to remember, though, that I am doing this for children and young adults. <u>They need to understand what they read, so simple language is a must!</u>" (P6, FG1, rd)</p> <p>'Some of the birthday money' it's not only the fact that in Greek such the expression 'birthday money' does not exist. It's money, money I had gathered or had been given to me, something that is not stated here. Some of the money I had kept, what should I do with it? (...) Unless if I put part of and not some because I think it is <u>more difficult for the child's language</u>. (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>Choosing simple language was a concern for P7</u>. (P7, FG1, rd)</p> <p>Translating for children was a really hard task. I had to keep in mind <u>that literature aims to teach children and young adults</u>, so the text had to be comprehensible, not too difficult structure and vocabulary. (P8, FG1, pq)</p>	<p>And <u>it also needs short sentences</u> like the sentence 'we had no chance'... (P3, FG2, p)</p> <p>Before the beginning of the TAPs session, she looked at her watch and whispered: "Well, it won't take that long. I'll just tone things down and make them clear and <u>simple!</u>" (P5, FG2, rd)</p> <p><u>Simplicity is found in P5's verbalisations</u> in the context of structure. It is also linked to clarity and comprehensiveness, implying that what is simple is clear and thus, comprehensive for the child. (P5, FG2, rd)</p> <p>Something we must not forget is that language is written by a child, thus, <u>that's how my rendering should be: particularly simple and comprehensible</u>. (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p>For 'sniff of glue' I will use a verb I guess, <u>for the language structure to be more simple</u>. (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>Similarly to P5, P6 links simplicity to comprehensibility</u> (P6, FG2, rd)</p>	<p>I tried to <u>make it simple</u> as we expect them to learn from literature. (P8, FG3, pq)</p> <p>P8 provides an additional example of a participant keeping up with a trend observed by other participants to: <u>linking simplicity with comprehensibility in the context of ChLT</u>. What is important here is that P8 reveals expectations that adults have from literature: to teach children, to provide knowledge, to be didactic and useful. (P8, FG3, rd)</p> <p>TAPs session was a new experience! And translating for children is always a happy routine break as I don't get to do that often. Not much demand, not many opportunities here. And it's really fun! <u>You just need to remember to write as simple as possible, so as for the child to understand and get the message</u>. (P9, FG3, pq)</p> <p><u>P9 is equally concerned about simplicity and comprehensibility in the context of ChLT</u>. (P9, FG3, rd)</p>
<p>6. Comprehensibility</p>	<p>Maybe this 'decelerate' is a <u>tough word for the kids</u>. (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p>I will put full stop and I will go for a second main sentence so the meaning is better rendered. (P3, FG1, p)</p>	<p>Something we must not forget is that language is written by a child, thus, <u>that's how my rendering should be: particularly simple and comprehensible</u>. (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>Similarly to P5, P6 links simplicity to comprehensibility</u>. (P6, FG2, rd)</p>	<p>By the end of the day, for the 'basket', I think I will put trolley'... <u>Trolley is OK and comprehensible to all</u>. (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>P8 is also concerned with comprehensibility</u>. (P8, FG3, rd)</p>

	<p>The only thing 'Maria 2' revealed about her translation approach was that <u>she attempted to express herself in Greek in a comprehensible way</u>, letting slip the norm that governed her translation all the way through. (P6, FG1, rd)</p> <p>During a discussion at a prior TAPs phase 'Maria 2' admitting how anxious she was about the whole research experience she told me: "I need to remember, though, that I am doing this for children and young adults. <u>They need to understand what they read, so simple language is a must!</u>" (P6, FG1, rd)</p> <p>Translating for children was, to my surprise, a really hard task. I had to keep in mind <u>that literature aims to teach children and young adults</u>, so the text had to be comprehensible, not too difficult structure and vocabulary. (P8, FG1, pq)</p>		<p>TAPs session was a new experience! And translating for children is always a happy routine break, as I don't get to do that often. Not much demand, not many opportunities here. And it's really fun! <u>You just need to remember to write as simple as possible so as for the child to understand and get the message.</u> (P9, FG3, pq)</p> <p><u>P9 is equally concerned about simplicity and comprehensibility in the context of ChLT.</u> (P9, FG3, rd)</p>
7. Appropriateness/ Correctness (language, content, etc.)	<p>This 'as if somebody was torturing mice' ... <u>Seems sharp enough for a children text... I wouldn't put it</u>, I don't know, however, if it sounds natural in English, or if it is a sharp sentence of the writer himself (P7, FG1, p).</p> <p>Also the action to put my foot down and insist <u>I don't think is appropriate enough</u> (...) If we say insisted perhaps? (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p>It has to happen, it has to ... it's what they say throws money... he has plenty of it, plenty of it, <u>but it's not something a kid would say</u>, of course... (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>P7 took appropriateness much into consideration.</u> (P7, FG1, rd)</p> <p><u>...And it [the text] had to be appropriate for the target readers.</u> (P8, FG1, pq).</p>	<p>Em, in the fifth line when he speaks about the trolley and says it was 'torturing mice' I am not sure how to render it in Greek because I personally, I've never heard it before... this expression... so I can think of something different, I can use for instance another little animal, or maybe I will leave it general and put 'animal' instead of a little animal <u>because it doesn't sound right to me.</u> (P2, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>What is or sounds right for the specific target group of children</u> guides P2's decision-making highlighting the norm of appropriateness/correctness. (P2, FG2, rd)</p> <p>Nothing spiritual happened except that my nose stuck on the airplane... spiritual, <u>I think this issue with spiritual is not very correct...</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>At one point P4 refers to correctness.</u> (P4, FG2, rd)</p>	<p><u>I can think of something more elegant.</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p>This is interesting 'a better class of person...' <u>I do not wish it sounds too racistal...</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p>I really don't know how I cope with all laughter and spoof, <u>spoof is heavier I think...</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>Appropriateness and correctness also reveal amongst other norms in P8's successful verbalisations as required.</u> (P8, FG3, rd)</p>

	<p>He wrote in my exit paper 'glue sniffer', 'glue sniffer' he sniffed glee... he intook, intook, <u>A doctor couldn't write something like that, never</u>, he intook glue. (P8, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>The correctness of language in terms of content is a norm that P8 took into account while translating for children.</u> (P8, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>Hmmm, 'food that is bad for you' ... It's a little hard to say that in Greek... 'Food that is bad for you?' <u>It doesn't sound right... better say unhealthy...</u> (P5, FG2, p)</p> <p>It might sound a bit heavy, but in the mind of a teenager that's how it looks... (P5, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>Whether her choices sounded right and correct, revealed to be a requirement of P5 while translating humour for children.</u> (P5, FG2, rd)</p> <p>I should have given my father the money I gathered for my birthday... 'birthday money', this we do not use it in Greek, <u>it's not a particularly correct expression...</u> (P8, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>Correctness revealed in P8's verbalisations.</u> (P8, FG2, rd)</p>	
8. Toning down	<p>Maybe this 'decelerate' <u>is a tough word for the kids.</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p>This "as if somebody was torturing mice ... <u>Seems sharp enough for a children text... I wouldn't put it...</u>" (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p>Although TAPS was fun and a unique experience, <u>I spent much thought on toning things down as the text was for children and young adults.</u> (P7, FG1, pq)</p> <p><u>Toning down was a prevalent norm in P's verbalisations and decision-making.</u> (P7, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>Before the beginning of the TAPs session she looked at her watch and whispered: "Well, it won't take that long. <u>I'll just tone things down and make them clear and simple!</u>" (P5, FG2, rd)</p>	<p>This is interesting 'a better class of person...', <u>'I do not wish,' it sounds too racistical...</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p>I really don't know how I cope with all laughter and spoof, <u>spoof is heavier I think...</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>A tendency to tone down language was revealed through P8's verbalisations.</u> (P8, FG3, rd)</p>
9. Didacticism/ Usefulness (provision of knowledge)	<p>Translating for children to my surprise was a really hard task. I had to keep in mind <u>that literature aims to teach children and young adults</u>, so the text had to be comprehensible, not too difficult structure and vocabulary. (P8, FG1, pq)</p>	<p>I think that as for the currency, I will keep the pounds and pence, and that is eight pounds and thirty-eight pence and a half... and these are chosen with much precision (...). It's clear that it is about a country outside Greece and <u>I don't think it is wrong if the child sees something like that, indeed he can ask... In the framework of children's literature this is useful...</u> In other words, when he reads a book from a foreign country he finds himself in a situation where he has to adjust to this fact. (P4, FG2, p)</p>	<p>I tried to make it simple as possible as <u>we expect them to learn from literature.</u> (P8, FG3, pq)</p> <p><u>P8 acknowledges the aim of ChL and ChLT to educate and teach children.</u> (P8, FG3, rd)</p>

	<p>P8's verbalised thoughts on the didactic aim of literature (i.e. '... that literature aims to teach children and young adults', highlights the norm of didacticism –a norm that is traditional in the context of ChL and ChLT. (P8, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>P4 underlines the aim of ChL and ChLT to provide knowledge. (P4, FG2, rd)</p>	
10. Same meaning, Equivalence	<p>TAPs was an interesting thing to try. And translating humour was, although to me it was difficult to always achieve equivalence. (P8, FG1, pq)</p> <p>Equivalence comes to be a norm governing P8's decision-making. (P8, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>Today we went to 'Sainsbury'. I should check the pronunciation of the word so as to render it, transliterate it... (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>So to sum up, I have the problem of the supermarket name, the town, which has to be rendered precisely and pragmatologically I need to see some things such as trolley, fresh, ... maybe shiny white, if we could of course find the exact equivalents in Greek and [deal with the register] of the text. It's a children's text, so it is better to pose all the characteristics if language besides the pragmatological and lexical ones should be rendered correctly. (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>Equivalency seems to be a prevalent norm for P4. (P4, FG2, rd)</p> <p>'He must have money to burn' there's an equivalent collocation in Greek he must have money to throw or to waste, this is better I guess. (P5, FG2, p)</p> <p>P5 mentions also the norm of equivalency. (P5, FG2, rd)</p>	<p>We need to see if something equivalent exists in the Greek reality... (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p>A reference to equivalency was made at a point. (P8, FG3, rd)</p> <p>New Moon... New Moon, I think it's the equivalent of 'Full Moon...' (P9, FG3, p)</p> <p>To 'put my foot down... Nice, Interesting. It is equivalently rendered in Greek, 'να πατήσω πόδι... (P9, FG3, p)</p> <p>Equivalency was another norm required as revealed from P9's verbalisations. (P9, FG3, rd)</p>
11. Accuracy		<p>Which has to be rendered precisely... (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>...although there is a certain rendering that is more familiar and more accurate... (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>Accuracy came to be an important norm for P4. (P4, FG2, rd)</p>	
12. Authenticity	<p>He wrote in my exit paper 'glue sniffer', 'glue sniffer' he sniffed glue... he intook, intook, A doctor couldn't write something like that, never, he intook glue. (P8, FG1, p)</p>	<p>I guess I won't need to transfer the pounds in Euros because this is a literary text and I will better render it with pounds... the English reality. (P7, FG2, p)</p>	

	<p>Along with the norms of appropriateness and correctness, P8 reveals the <u>norm of authenticity, reasoning her choices on how things are in the real contexts. Choices that mirroring the reality</u> is what seems important for P8. (P8, FG1, rd)</p>	<p><u>Translation choices that mirror the reality is a 'must' in P7's translation process. This reveals that her choices are governed by the norm of authenticity.</u> (P7, FG2, rd)</p>	
13. Convenience	<p>As soon as he collects them, I could write gathers, but I want to make it more convenient to the children, so I will stick to collect... (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>Making it more convenient to the children readers, shows that P3's decisions are guided by the norm of convenience.</u> (P3, FG1, rd)</p>		
14. Familiarity	<p>Because <u>this text sounds too foreign...</u> (P1, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>The text is too foreign, thus not familiar to the child reader. Familiarity in the context of ChLT is important from P1's point of view.</u> (P1, FG1, rd)</p> <p>I had him, I didn't force him. I forced him, but then again I talk to kids. <u>So, I want to make it more familiar to them</u> (...). (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>Providing a TT that will be familiar to the child is a concern for P3.</u> (P3, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>The treasurer couldn't ... banker's card, I should see what it means exactly, so <u>as to render it with something familiar to the Greek reader</u>, and to have an equivalence that won't bother him... (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>So he owes me eight pounds thirty-eight and a half pence. It is an issue whether to transfer pounds in Euro, for example, according to the currency we will use... that is used by the audience, the reader, <u>in other words it should be familiar...</u> Personally, I would choose to leave it as pounds... (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>And if there is any rendering more familiar and more precise...</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>Familiarity was also important for P4 in the context of ChLT.</u> (P4, FG2, rd)</p>	<p>Since it has 'Sainsbury's' I won't let it Sainsbury's because it is possible that nobody knows it in Greek and Cyprus... So, I think I will simply put supermarket... (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p>So he owes me 80 pounds, this should be translated in Euros for Cyprus if it is a book that will be published <u>and if it is something that will end up in kids' hands. Of course, if the spirit of the book is a reality in the English culture it wouldn't be a bad idea to leave pounds...</u> 80 pounds and 38 cents could mean, could mean, thirty-eight and a half? I guess and thirty eight and a half cents. (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p>To sniff the glue is what I will also put, <u>I don't know how familiar Greeks and Cypriots are with this</u>, with this reality let's say... (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>Familiarity is revealed to govern P8's decision-making.</u> (P8, FG3, rd)</p> <p>I wanted readers to read <u>familiar stuff, just to avoid a possible culture shock.</u> (P9, FG3, pq)</p> <p><u>Familiarity is important for P9 so a TT will read smoothly without causing a culture shock to the child-reader.</u> (P9, FG3, rd)</p>

APPENDIX X

Attempts to Model Process Oriented Humour Translation Strategies in the Context of Children's Literature Translation

Table 9.10.a.

Communication as Strategy Detected in the Context of Children's Literature Translation

STRATEGIES	FIRST FOCUS GROUP	SECOND FOCUS GROUP	THIRD FOCUS GROUP
1. Additions (single words vs. explanatory translation, within text vs. footnotes)	<p>I see that in a certain sentence the verb is incomplete, <u>so I will add something that does not exist in the English text but makes sense in Greek.</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p>	<p>We went to Sainsbury's this afternoon. I have a problem with Sainsbury's, whether I will write it in Greek or using latin letters... I will choose Greek, although to me it doesn't match that much and the reason is that the book addresses children, so some children might read English...and <u>I could possibly put a note that this is a supermarket.</u> (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p>I would possibly transfer this into Euro because ... or maybe not I wouldn't, I would leave it as pence, just like in fairy tales I read when I was a kid, there is no reason to change the currency, <u>I can simply write a footnote that it is the currency of England.</u> (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>P6 employed an out of text addition, i.e. a footnote.</u> (P6, FG2, rd)</p> <p>'Sainsbury's' is a store, a supermarket, if someone has never been to England before he doesn't know it, <u>so I have ...to write that it is a supermarket.</u> (P7, FG2, p)</p> <p>If I am supposed to translate for a Greek audience, <u>I will write that we went to the supermarket Sainsbury's,</u> because Greeks might not know these [...] This is what I will write to the Greek audience when I translate into Greek. (P7, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>P7 went for word addition</u> for comprehensibility purposes mainly. (P7, FG2, rd)</p> <p>It is better, though, if it is shown in a parenthesis as well... He forced me to write on the back place (.....) <u>'IOU' meaning I Owe You, I will write in the parenthesis (I Owe You) and perhaps on a footnote on the back of the page a translator's note that 'IOU= I owe you' (...)</u> (P8, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>Adding</u> a 'with in text explanatory translation' (parenthesis) was a strategy P8 went for. She also applied an 'out of text translation', inserting a footnote on the same issue. (P8, FG2, rd)</p>	<p>In the meanwhile, we went this afternoon to Sainsbury's and we got up on a trolley that did not (...) <u>at all and</u> it was heard as if someone was torturing mice. (P5, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>P5 also went for additions.</u> P5, FG3, rd)</p>

2.Enlargements	I choose to <u>combine two sentences...</u> for the text to sound more Greek (P1, FG1, p)	I don't think it is something that is said in Greek, <u>so I will combine the two sentences...</u> (P3, FG2, p)	
3. Omissions	I replace the colon with comma in the second sentence of the first text, because I believe that the colon is not that used in written language of this particular literature genre, meaning the diary... (P1, FG1, p)	<u>I think I will delete</u> this 'I had to put my foot down' and only keep 'insist' because in this way the translation will flow better, it will be heard better as a target text... (P2, FG2, p) 'Some shiny white...'He could have bought... 'Some' in English, or better say in Greek is not transferred as an indefinite article... he had bought, I guess it is not transferred at all, <u>it is omitted...</u> (P3, FG2, p) <u>P3 chose to apply omissions.</u> (P3, FG2, rd)	Since it has 'Sainsbury's', I will not leave it 'Sainsbury's', because in Greece and Cyprus it is possible that nobody knows Sainsbury's... So, I think I will simply put it 'supermarket'... (P8, FG3, p) <u>P8 omitted the name of the supermarket to better cater to the child readers' needs.</u> (P8, FG3, rd)
4. Shifts (grammatical level, syntactical level, etc.)			Me and my father, or better say, my father and I, <u>in Greek we usually put 'me' first,</u> meaning the first person (P7, FG3, p) 'I write 'pack' as a packing, a packing, a packing of four levels, I change to genetiv, four levels... of purple paper of three plies, I think I've seen this in packages of toilet papers. (P7, FG3, p) 'I nearly finished it', I have almost finished it when, I said that with 'experimental' <u>I will make a verb out of it</u> and I will make it 'to experiment or to try'... (P7, FG3, p) <u>P7 frequently applied shifts at a grammatical and syntactical level.</u> (P7, FG3, rd)
5. Adaptation	The next sentence has something very informal, <u>so I might have to adjust it, since I was told it is supposed to be read by children and young adults.</u> (P3, FG1, p)		

<p>6. Exoticism (foreignising)</p>	<p>It may be a supermarket. A market? <u>No, (...) It foreignises a bit...</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>I think that as for the currency, I will keep the pounds and pence, and that is eight pounds and thirty-eight pence and a half... and these are chosen with much precision (...). It's clear that it is about a country outside Greece and <u>I don't think it is wrong if the child sees something like that, indeed he can ask... In the framework of children's literature this is useful... In other words, when he reads a book from a foreign country he finds himself in a situation where he has to adjust to this fact.</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>Now about 'glue sniffer', glue sniffer is possibly something that as you read it in English... it still foreignises even in English... <u>So it's something that should, at least, cause a comedy, so we can use something that sounds strange in Greek as well...</u> Perhaps glue intakes, something that will cause foreignness the same way, to have the same impact... (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>TAPs was an interesting experience. I was preoccupied with the translation issues I encountered (i.e. translating for children, <u>foreignising</u>, etc.) and tried to verbalise my thoughts. I hope I did well. (P4, FG2, pq)</p> <p><u>Foreignisation issues</u> were raised by P4 in the course of her verbalisations. P4 appeared to be for foreignisation as a source of laughter and a source of learning something new. (P4, FG2, rd)</p>	<p>So he owes me 80 pounds, this should be translated in Euros for Cyprus if it is a book that will be published <u>and if it is something that will end up in kid's hands. Of course, if the spirit of the book is reality and the English culture, it wouldn't be a bad idea to leave pounds...</u> 80 pounds and 38 cents could mean, could mean, thirty-eight and a half? I guess and thirty eight and a half cents. (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>At first P8 attempted to go for domestication for communication and comprehensibility purposes, but she then decided to foreignise and stick to the exotic element, i.e. English pounds.</u> (P8, FG3, rd)</p>
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Table 9.10.b.

Search as Strategy Detected in the Context of Children's Literature Translation

Parametres	FG1	FG2	FG3
Dictionary		<p>I will look up a word and find ... what I look for in Greek is 'squeaked' So I will search the dictionary now, and make sure that I put the right word... I presume 'έτριξε' (i.e. 'squeaked') is the right wor (P2, FG2, p - electronic dictionary)</p>	<p>When we reached the till he couldn't find his credit card, ah, no, 'banker's card'. I have no idea what this is... What is 'banker's card'? At this point we open a dictionary to see what 'banker's card' is. It might not be the credit card according to my first, preliminary impression Or it can be some sort of identity, even though ... Thank you very much Oxford Dictionary Card ... OK, let's see what the English- Greek dictionary says... (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>Searching for a solution, P8 turns to Oxford Dictionary.</u> (P8, FG3, rd)</p>
Internet		<p>She confessed she had left several unsolved problems as she could use limited supporting material in the course of the experiment. She could not get some advice from a colleague as it happened in real life <u>so she just used the internet.</u> (P3, FG2, rd)</p> <p><u>Let's check it on Google...</u> 'τους βγάζω το καπέλο', as Greek as it takes... I didn't know this expression exists in English. (P5, FG2, p)</p>	<p>And when dictionaries are of no help, <u>then we go to the internet</u> <u>and see if there is any equivalent</u> <u>in the Greek reality...</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>As soon as P8 realises that</u> <u>Oxford Dictionary cannot help</u> <u>her to find a solution, she turns</u> <u>to the internet.</u> (P8, FG3, rd)</p>
Glossary	<p><u>On the other</u> <u>hand</u> <u>I need a glossary.</u> I have no dictionaries and no material to check several things I want. (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>P7 acknowledged</u> <u>the role of</u> <u>searching and</u> <u>supporting</u> <u>material in the</u> <u>process of</u> <u>translation.</u> (P7, FG1, rd)</p>		
Client		<p>We went to Sainsbury's this afternoon... 'Sainsbury's' a particular supermarket in England. Now we simply translate it as supermarket Or we can put a particular supermarket in Greece, like 'Μαρινόπουλος'? I don't know if it's possible, or if it is seen as an advertisement. <u>In this case we ask the client.</u> (P9, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>P9 mentions the client as a source that could support the translator</u> <u>when he encounters a problem.</u> (P9, FG2, rd)</p>	

Table 9.10.b.i.
Acknowledging the Role of Searching and Supporting Material
in the Process of Translation

FG1	FG2	FG3
<p>'Alexandra' mentioned <u>it was a shame she had no dictionary with her.</u> (P1, FG1, rd)</p> <p>As she confesses, in many parts of the tasks her mind would stick. Unfortunately, <u>as she had no supporting material to get some assistance</u> she would make rush choices so as to continue and finish. (P3, FG1, rd)</p> <p>However, <u>as today she had no dictionary, she tried to make sense from reading the whole of the sentence making unfortunately rush choices.</u> (P4, FG1, rd)</p> <p>Now that I read it again, I realised that this 'banker's card' is the credit card, ah, or (...) the cheque? (...) Something like a check book? I am so unfamiliar with these terms, I should have searched for this too. <u>If only I had a dictionary...</u> (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p>On the other hand I need a glossary, I have no dictionaries, I have no material to check on several things I want... (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>It was sad I did not bring any supporting material.</u> (P7, FG1, pq)</p> <p><u>Apparently, P7 was sad not to bring supporting material with her. [...] P7 acknowledged the role of searching and supporting material in the process of translation.</u> (P7, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>Now the 'New Moon' the remaining title does not show within text where it refers, perhaps, fragmentarily, a choice might be 'η Νέα Σελήνη', <u>but this should be checked, of course in the context of the text and the book...</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>I should give out with what is rendered in English, because I don't know if it means fruits and vegetables or anything else, or something non-frozen... <u>I think this should be checked...</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>'When we got to the check out he couldn't find his banker's card'. When we reached the till he couldn't find his card ... I guess it means his credit card, <u>but this should be checked also...</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>P4 would leave several incidents to be searched at a later point.</u> (P4, FG3, rd)</p> <p>First of all what is 'IOU' and then what is 'till roll'. <u>Some research is needed...</u> (P5, FG2, p)</p>	

Table 9.10.c.
Monitoring as Strategy Detected in the Context of Children's Literature Translation

FG1	FG2	FG3
<p>And he chose it and <u>I did not like it that much,</u> so he bought, maybe... (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>I don't like 'along with my father', so I will delete</u> it and it will stay as "with my father" (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>Because it seems better to me if I put it in the end... but...</u> 'today I cleaned the house with my father', <u>it's the best of all (...)</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p>Much decision-making was driven from P3's emotions, <u>liking or disliking</u> <u>and linguistic options.</u> (P3, FG1, rd)</p> <p><u>What a dump I am, now I understand, ...</u> (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>From P7's verbalisations,</u> <u>monitoring comprehension</u> <u>was apparent.</u> (P, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>So, my father chose food 'that is bad for you', I guess he means food that is not good for the health, Or maybe not (...) Some food bad for you? No, that it is ... unhealthy? Perhaps, <u>good...</u> (P3, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>At times, P3 monitored comprehension.</u> (P3, FG3, rd)</p> <p>'I had to put my foot down'. 'I had to hit my hand on the table, <u>maybe I can find a better alternative...</u> <u>a solution or phrase for</u> 'I had to put my foot down' (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>"He must have money to burn" There is an equivalent collocation in Greek "πρέπει να έχει λεφτά για ξόδεμα", <u>I guess that's the best.</u> (P5, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>In P5's verbalising, monitoring comprehension</u> <u>was obvious.</u> (P5, FG2, rd)</p> <p>Love is the only thing that keeps me sane, it <u>doesn't sound good, though...</u> That keeps me alive, <u>It's a little extravagant, however.</u> (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>P6 had clear critical episodes</u> <u>of comprehension monitoring.</u> (P6, FG2, rd)</p>	<p>I believe that this 'Given the difference', is... To give the rest or to give the difference <u>Oh! I don't like it</u> <u>much...</u> (P5, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>At times P5 monitored</u> <u>comprehension.</u> (P5, FG3, rd)</p> <p>Nothing spiritual happened, I would say something else to come through spiritual, spiritual, psychic, <u>spiritual, I don't like</u> <u>spiritual</u> but my nose stuck on the airplane... (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>P8's verbalisations</u> <u>monitored</u> <u>comprehension.</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p>

Appendix XI

Translators' Approaches

Table 9.15.
Participants Leaving Problems for Later

FG1	FG2	FG3
<p><u>I will write it and I shall see.</u> (P4, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>I wonder how to write this. (...)</u> <u>I will leave it for later.</u> (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>At first place, I left it 'bought' (...) and I will see that again later...</u> (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p>What happens with 'the cashier' is an issue... I write the treasurer (...) and seeing ... 'wouldn't take' (...) <u>I intend to fix it later...</u> (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p>I will translate it word-for-word <u>and I will examine it later...</u> Right, (...) [...] I know that this phrase doesn't make sense, <u>but I leave it...</u> (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p>Hmm (...) I wonder if for the 'toilet paper' I need to put paper for health or paper for the toilet? <u>I write for health and we shall see.</u> (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p>I will put 'to burn' as it is, to burn, <u>I will leave it for now and think about it later...</u> (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p>This 'and given' <u>I leave a gap now and I will do it then anyway.</u> (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p>'And my dad' is better to me, <u>obviously that's how I'll do it and we shall see. I shouldn't forget to find the phrase I left before.</u> (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p>There was <u>a tendency to leave problematic issues for later.</u> (P7, FG1, rd)</p>	<p><u>I will leave it to come naturally to me as I re-read them later on.</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>More than once <u>P4 decided to leave the problematic situation encountered to get back to it at a later point.</u> (P4, FG2, rd)</p> <p><u>I'll see that later.</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>'I was embarrassed', actually he was embarrassed because the others starred at him and he was heard with that. So, 'I was embarrassed, they were hearing it, they were hearing me, I was embarrassed for that sound, I was embarrassed that the others were hearing that' ... <u>I will look at it again later.</u> (P5, FG2, p)</p> <p>'My father chose food that it is bad for you...' My father chose food, better say food stuff, that is 'bad for you' is bad for you? 'For you', for whom? Bad, for whom, I don't know, <u>I will see that later.</u> (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p>For the problem faced at an early stage, <u>P6 decided to see that later.</u> (P6, FG2, rd)</p> <p>'The casualty doctor wrote 'glue sniffer'? That's hard to render in the end of the day... At my card? At ...hmmm <u>that needs some searching, nothing comes in my mind at this moment!</u> (P9, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>Doing some searching in order to solve the problem encountered was left for later.</u> (P9, FG2, rd)</p>	<p>'It squeak' this 'squeak' is something I <u>will possibly need to think later.</u> There might be another verb describing 'squeak' better. (P8, FG3, p)</p>

Table 9.16.
Structuring and Restructuring Data so as to Provide the Best Possible Translation

FG1	FG2	FG3
So when I put 'so' although it does not exist, it is for the text to flow. (...) it is not the continuation of a procedure, but facts one after the other. I delete it. When we went to the exit... (P1, FG1, p)	What a hypocrite! What a hypocrisy! I do not know which of the two. I will put both of them in the end. What a hypocrisy! My God! We could add this. We 'd better not get away from the original. What a hypocrite, it's maybe better instead of what a hypocrisy, what a hypocrite! (P8, FG2, p)	But I want to confess that, but, but, I have to take my hat off Sainsbury, as they seem to attract a higher class of people ... more noble people (P5, FG3, p) I think I will not put what a hypocrite, I will put what a hypocrisy, I do not like it, why putting hypocrisy, I will leave what a hypocrite! (P8, FG3, p) I was embarrassed for people to listen to me, for people to listen to it, and me holding it? I was embarrassed it was heard like this... (P8, FG3, p)

Table 9.17.
The Role of Emotions in Translation Process

FG1	FG2	FG3
And he chose it and <u>I did not like it that much</u> , so he bought, maybe... (P3, FG1, p) <u>I don't like 'along with my father'</u> , so I will delete it and it will stay as "with my father" (P3, FG1, p) Much decision-making was driven from P3's emotions , liking or disliking and linguistic options. (P3, FG1, rd) I felt that was a very unique and interesting experience, even though I have to confess that I found it difficult to express my inner thoughts. <u>As I felt time pressed and stressed me</u> , I attempted in case of a problem to provide the best possible solution I would think. (P9, FG1, pq) <u>Some emotional factors seemed to influence P9's decision-making</u> . (P9, FG1, rd)		'Given the difference', I believe it is..., to give the rest or to give the difference... <u>Oh! I do not like it that much...</u> give the rest? (P5, FG3, p) <u>Emotions drove her personal decision-making</u> at a high level. (P5, FG3, rd) In the meanwhile [P8 addresses the researcher-observer], note that I do not know why, but <u>I feel as if I have someone on my head and this stresses me...</u> (P8, FG3, p)

Table 9.18.
Participants' Personal Involvement with Texts

FG1	FG2	FG3
<p>She does get involved with the text <u>laughing on several humourous incidents</u>. (P4, FG1, rd)</p> <p><u>She smiled twice as she silently read the ST and kept smiling as she was trying to translate the incidents that made her laugh in the TT. Whenever she stopped reading the ST to give the translation a thought, she would put her hands on her head or do some pen chewing.</u> (P8, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>All in all, she got involved with the text as <u>she made regular references to background or personal information</u>. (P5, FG2, rd)</p> <p>What is characteristic about her approach is that she makes regular references to her personal experiences and background knowledge, <u>laughed quite much with the various humourous incidents she had to translate and often made self-assessment comments on either her thoughts or her final choices</u>. (P6, FG2, rd)</p> <p><u>She made references to her personal experience as she translated</u>. (P8, FG2, rd)</p> <p>All in all 'Sisi' got quite involved with the text as <u>she revealed in various cases background and personal information</u>. (P9, FG2, rd)</p>	<p>Characteristic features of her participation was her successful verbalisations of thoughts and approach and her reasoning, as well as <u>the fact that she got involved with the text and kept laughing with the ST's humourous incidents</u>. (P8, FG3, rd)</p>

Table 9.19.a.
Commenting on Texts (ST/TT)

FG1	FG2	FG3
<p>The next sentence <u>is simple enough</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>Nice little text</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>Apparently, P3 commented much on the text given for translation</u>. (P3, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>The first text is... Literary texts as I can see and I try to understand. The register of the writer I think that ... informal and it's a novel (P3, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>...this is a point that is a little problematic</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>'I had to put my foot down'. 'I had to hit my hand on the table, <u>maybe I can find a better alternative... a solution or phrase for</u> 'I had to put my foot down' (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>'It all started when I began to assemble my model airplane'. <u>That simple and that complicated</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>P4's verbalisations involved much commenting on texts</u>. (P4, FG2, rd)</p> <p><u>The reason is simple, sentences are short...</u> I do not know if there is any difficulty. At first perhaps, I will just read the text (P5, FG2, p)</p> <p>So the 'supervisor' <u>this is a little tricky...</u> (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p>'I made him write an 'IOU' on the back of the till roll'. <u>This is indeed too hard</u>, I have no idea what this can be (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p>'We had no other choice Grandmother is coming for tea tomorrow' <u>There is no difficulty here</u>. (P9, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>P9's thinking aloud involved commenting on the text's linguistic difficulty</u>. (P9, FG2, rd)</p>	<p>But when is this book written and it says 'pence'? (P8, FG3, p)</p>

Table 9.19.b.
Internal Explanations, Verbalising Logic and Efforts to Understand (VSA)

F1	F2	F3
<p>The sentence 'food that is bad for you' could have two meanings. The first is that father chose food that was not proper to you and the second that he chose food that you would take it for, find it, unhealthy. <u>I think that's what it means</u>, because afterwards it says that the kid had to insist for the father to buy fresh food and salad. Thus, I choose the second from the two options... (P1, FG1, p)</p> <p>My father chose food... <u>chose unhealthy food, I guess, because what else could 'bad for you' mean? Poisoned? Since he is his father, ...</u> I don't like 'he chose it' that much, so 'bought' maybe? Or even better 'preferred'? Preferred for me, not for me, it could be, <u>but I do not see the reason why adding an element...</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p>It was obvious <u>that P3's internal speech revealed her efforts to understand</u> what 'bad for you' meant. (P3, FG1, rd)</p> <p><u>Where should I put emphasis on? Action or time? Action, so I will put imperfect so as to underline...</u> he was buying, anyway, imperfect suits better. (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p>'Attract' means 'charm', <u>a shop, however, does not charm, it attracts people, so at the shop</u>, at Sainsbury's shop, at Sainsbury's plain and I correct above as well (...) (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p>It all started when I began dealing, <u>no, come on! How do we say that? We don't say deal! We say (...), when I began to ... oh f**k how is this called? I will leave it as 'deal' because I can't remember.</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p>When we went to the ex... <u>he couldn't find, it's a weakness, inability, so he wants to show an inability the fact that he lost his credit card...</u> I will write that he simply couldn't find it, when we went to the exit he couldn't find his credit card. (P3, FG1, p)</p>	<p><u>This 'Undercarriage' I want to see its exact meaning, and see in which form that glue was...</u> So, I put my nose? <u>Given to what 'undercarriage' means and 'and sniffed for five seconds'</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>When we went to the till he couldn't find his banking card or bank's card? His bank's card... The treasurer couldn't accept a check without it... <u>The fact that the treasurer did not accept a check without the bank's card is somehow awkward to me.</u> (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p>I had to, I was forced to lend my father some of the money they gave me at my birthday... <u>Obviously, these are gifts relatives gave him...</u> I was forced to lend my father some of the money they gave me for my birthday... (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p>'He must have money to burn, I have money to burn', isn't this what I am supposed to write?...He has money to burn, <u>what he means is that he spent, he bought something very expensive and he didn't need to buy something that expensive, so he has money to spend</u>, to throw, to throw, because it's 'burn'. (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p>'Nothing spiritual'... Nothing (...) mysterious, I will call it mysterious... <u>I want to say that... it comes from another dimension... that he is influenced by the smell of the glue and listens to it in other words...</u> (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>Internal explanation was a characteristic of P6 verbalisations</u> (P6, FG2, rd)</p> <p>At a point P6's verbalisation <u>exposed her efforts to understand</u> (i.e. banking card incident). (P6, FG2, rd)</p>	<p>'Casualty' how should I say this? How will I write it, God! What? The casualty? <u>I'm spending some time thinking about how to write it...</u> (P5, FG3, p)</p> <p>As P5 revealed in her thinking aloud, <u>she was trying to understand how to write 'casualty.'</u> (P5, FG3, rd)</p> <p><u>I think, though, now who our audience is.</u> If it consists of Cypriots, I guess I will put basket. A basket with rolls? With wheels? How is it called? Trolley? Anyway. He chose a basket impossible to control. (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>'Sniff'...How can you say 'sniff'? Sniff? Suck? Smell? Sniff sounds... as... everyday speech...</u> of course we have surfing... from serf... but this ... sniffer, OK, how can you say that? (P9, FG3, p)</p>

<p>P3 showed no problem in verbalising her thoughts. <u>Her internal speech at times also revealed a tendency to give explanation to herself and make herself understand.</u> (P3, FG1, rd)</p> <p>'He must have money to burn'. He has... For sure he has money to throw. <u>For sure he can throw his money. To burn his money is not something we say, we say something like that but not this way.</u> Hmm, I guess he has the money and he throws it. He has the money and he throws it. (P8, FG1, p)</p> <p>'Shiny'... 'He could have bought some shiny white and given the difference to the poor. What a hypocrite!' He could buy a packet, buy something, buy the blank, the white, the simple, <u>in other words and give the difference to a poor</u>, 'to the poor', to the poor, to the poor. 'What a hypocrite!' What a hypocrite! (P8, FG1, p)</p> <p>I had almost finished... 'I nearly finished it'. I had almost finished, <u>meaning I had just finished, yes, I had just finished</u>, I had just, no, I was just finished with it, finished with it, when 'I thought I would try' ...When I thought, or when I had the idea, when I thought, yes, to try 'an expert' (...) to try, to try a nose! [the participant laughs!] (P8, FG1, p)</p> <p>'Nothing...' Nothing spiritual happened, yes, <u>that had to do with his spiritual clarity, in other words</u>, yes, nothing spiritual happened, 'but my nose', but my nose stuck on the plane! (P8, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>For the case of P8, internal explanations were apparent. P8 verbalised her logic and efforts so as to get the message.</u> (P8, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>'He bought' to buy together, to buy fresh products? <u>Hmm, not food, we don't say fresh food, this refers to cookery</u>, fresh products and salad, salads, <u>salad it a ready-made thing, whereas ingredients for salad...</u> I will write ingredients for salad, <u>those they will by, for instance to make the salad</u>, I had better write it this way. (P8, FG2, p)</p> <p>The person in charge had to intervene to stop the fight? <u>I don't know if it is a fight, for the person in charge, though, to come... there must have been tendencies, so I will put fight and not talk because we then mean a talk in a low voice (...)</u> (P8, FG2, p)</p> <p>I saw a priest choosing toilet paper, toilet paper, toilet paper (...) on a pack (...) <u>that it has three different parts I had better put it this way...</u> (.....) I guess I will put, he had money to (...) this is more used in Greek <u>because this person had a lot of money, so maybe that was the reason he spent it... (...)</u> the amount of money he spent, he wasted... he had money and he spent it. (...). (P8, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>Much verbalising had the purpose of internal explanations for P8.</u> (P8, FG3, rd)</p>
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Table 9.19.c.
Admission of Lack of Knowledge

FG1	FG2	FG3
<p><u>I don't understand what the verb 'steer' means.</u> in this sentence. (P1, FG, p)</p> <p><u>I don't understand what 'IOU' means in the next sentence and I have no idea what 'till roll' is...</u> (P1, FG1, p)</p> <p>This IOU... <u>We do not know what it means...</u> (P2, FG1, p)</p> <p>So he owes me eight '<i>pounds</i>'... <u>I do not know the equivalent in the Greek system</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p>How can we say that in Greek now? (...) ... <u>Well, at this point, I'm stuck!</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>Also I do not know exactly what 'till roll' means...</u> (...) I will put 'of the receipt' but (...). (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>I don't know what 'vicar' means.</u> I saw a ... I don't know... choosing a toilet paper, a toilet paper. (P8, FG1, p)</p>	<p>'I made him write an IOU on the back of the till roll'. This is really tough, <u>I have no idea what this can be.</u> (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p>Daddy ... Dad even (...). ... <u>I don't understand this completely,</u> I will put... (P8, FG2, p)</p> <p>I made him write he owes me on the back of the 'till roll' <u>that I don't know what it means...</u> (P5, FG3, p)</p>	<p>'Vicar' <u>I don't know what it means...</u>" (P5, FG3, p)</p> <p>'Banker' s card', <u>I have no idea what this is...</u> What is a 'banker's card?' (P8, FG3)</p> <p><u>'Sniff'...How can you say 'sniff'? Snif? Suck? Smell? Sniff sounds... as... everyday speech...</u> of course we have surfing... from serf... but this ... sniffer, OK, how can you say that? (P9, FG3, p)</p>

Table 9.19.d.
Reference to Background Knowledge, Personal Experience (VSA)

FG1	FG2	FG3
	<p>'Sainsbury's' ... that after all is a British supermarket, I will change it and put a Greek supermarket, <u>I will check on 'Μαρούτι' which more or less everybody knows</u> ... (P2, FG2, p)</p> <p>'Pence' ... to be honest, I don't know how this is translated ... pence, ... Ah!, pence, I have heard of this before... He owes me then, and thirty-eight (P3, FG2,p)</p> <p><u>In Greece nobody pays with a visa or check in supermarkets.</u> It might sound a little awkward in the beginning... anyway... (P5, FG2, p)</p> <p>With this I could possibly... I could transfer this to Euros because... no I wouldn't, I would leave it 'pence', I will leave 'pence' <u>just like in fairytales I was reading as a kid,</u> without any reason to change the currency, I can simply put a footnote that this is a British currency... (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p>'They seem to attract a better class of person'... It's funny because in many parts of the text there is no coherence... <u>It's just this childish writing...</u> 'But I must say I take my hat off' <u>that reminds me of my own diaries...</u> (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p>Now having talked about a supermarket called 'Sainsbury's' I can omit supermarket since the reading audience knows that this is about a supermarket and refer to that with only the brand... (...) I will talk about 'Sainsbury's' as we usually talk about supermarket in Greek, <u>for example at Carrefour,</u> or maybe not (P7, FG2, p)</p> <p>'To assembly', hmm the word doesn't come in my head, now... when we do modeling we say we do? No... We compose... <u>just like with legos... to build them... how is this called, I can't remember...</u> Now, at this point, I could check on a dictionary 'to assembly' ... oh, look! I stuck in simple things! 'To assembly', not to compose... I will go crazy that I can't remember it... (P7, FG2, p)</p> <p>'I made him write an 'IOU' on the back of the till roll. This IOU... the capital letters, what do they mean? <u>I guess this is a kind of contract kids do... Because from personal experience, when I was a kid I wrote myself fake contracts, I promise I do this and that and stuff like that...</u> I will put contract in inverted commas. (P9, FG2, p)</p> <p>'I saw a vicar choosing a toilet paper' ... 'vicar' ... priest, priest, we do not say priest in Greece... I saw a priest choosing toilet paper. He chose a purple pack of three- ply toilet paper, <u>isn't it that how they say it on that TV advertisement?</u> (P9, FG2, p)</p>	<p>My father chose a hmm basket? <u>I think we call this basket in Cyprus.</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>A solution came out of personal experience:</u> 'we call this basket in Cyprus.' (P8, FG3, rd)</p> <p>But I need to confess, but I need to congratulate, to express my congratulations, to congratulate... <u>there may be a particular reason for Sainsbury's because it is relatively more expensive than Tesco and Asda, for instance, and it has better people...</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p>

Table 9.19.e.
Self-Assessment Comments (VSA)

FG1	FG2	FG3
<p>And he picked it, <u>didn't like it much</u>, so he bought, maybe... <u>Or better say he preferred</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p>it comes easier to me, <u>I don't like it at all...</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>I don't like 'along with my father'</u> so I will omit 'along' and just leave 'with my father' (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>Because it seems better to me if I put it in the end... but...</u> 'today I cleaned the house with my father' <u>it's the best of all</u> (...) (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>What a dummy I am, now I understand.</u> (P7, FG1, p)</p> <p>When... yes, when we went to the exit to debark, to pay, when we went to pay so as to leave, <u>so as to leave, correct, I think...</u> "he couldn't find his banker's card" He couldn't find his credit card, he couldn't find his credit card, <u>yes, his credit card.</u> (P8, FG1, p)</p> <p>My father chose food bad enough for health, <u>good.</u> (P8, FG1, p)</p>	<p>So, my father chose food 'that is bad for you', I guess he means food that is not good for the health, Or maybe not (...) Some food bad for you? No, that it is ... unhealthy? Perhaps, <u>good...</u> (P3, FG2, p)</p> <p>It may be a supermarket. A market? <u>No, (...) It foreignises a bit...</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>'He must have money to burn' There is an equivalent collocation in Greek "πρέπει να έχει λεφτά για ξόδεμα", <u>I guess that's the best.</u> (P5, FG2, p)</p> <p>'He could have bought some shiny white and given the difference to the poor', Hmmm, he could get a cheaper because what's the difference between a blank and purple... unless there is a difference in the price. I don't know... or get a cheaper one, <u>it's clear what I want to say, ...</u> (P5, FG2, p)</p> <p>Love is the only thing that keeps me sane, it <u>doesn't sound good, though...</u> That keeps me alive, <u>It's a little extravagant, however.</u> (P6, FG2, p)</p> <p>I just had a humiliating... <u>I don't like it. I think I translate word-for-word...</u> I will look it up later, the sentence of task two, it is translated word-for-word. <u>I don't like the use of 'I had'.</u> (P7, FG2, p)</p>	<p>I believe that this 'Given the difference', is... To give the rest or to give the difference <u>Oh! I don't like it much...</u> (P5, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>But crackle doesn't seem good to me</u>, but for now I will move on... (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p>'Vicar', what? <u>Should I call it a church priest or am I saying something stupid now?</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p>Nothing spiritual happened, I would say something else to come through spiritual, spiritual, psychic, <u>spiritual, I don't like spiritual</u> but my nose stuck on the airplane... (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p>Love is the only thing that keeps me sane? <u>OK.</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p>

Table 9.19.f.
Self-Supporting Comments

FG1	FG2	FG3
<p>I'll leave the sentence as it is. <u>Yes, why not (...)</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p>When... yes, when we went to the exit to debark, to pay, when we went to pay, so as to leave, <u>so as to leave, correct, I think...</u> 'he couldn't find his banker's card', he couldn't find his credit card, he couldn't find his credit card, <u>yes, his credit card.</u> (P8, FG1, p)</p> <p>My father chose food bad enough for health, <u>good.</u> (P8, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>P8 spoke out encouraging comments towards herself in an attempt to boost self-confidence</u> during the TAPs session which was a new experience to her. (P8, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>So, my father chose food 'that is bad for you', I guess he means food that is not good for the health, Or maybe not (...) Some food bad for you? No, that it is ... unhealthy? Perhaps, <u>good!</u> (P3, FG2, p)</p> <p><u>Though her thinking aloud, P3 supported herself.</u> (P3, FG2, rd)</p> <p>'He must have money to burn'. There is an equivalent collocation in Greek 'πρέπει να έχει λεφτά για ξόδεμα', <u>I guess that's the best.</u> (P5, FG2, p)</p>	<p>I don't know what 'vicar' means... <u>Let's give it a try,</u> I will try the second one... (P5, FG3)</p>

Table 9.19.g.
Uncertainty (VU) Self-awareness, Self-confidence

FG1	FG2	FG3
<p><u>I have scribbles all over my paper</u>, I don't know if this is a problem... (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>Where should I put the emphasis? On action or time?</u> (P3, FG1, p)</p> <p><u>... money I took from my birthday? Pocket money?</u> (P5, FG1, p)</p> <p>'4 p.m. I have just had the most humiliating experience of my life'... 4, so this is Saturday, 3rd of April, so 4 p.m. <u>Hm, is it before lunch or after?</u> (P8, FG1, p)</p>	<p>'I had to lend my father some of my birthday money...' I had to lend my father <u>some of the money I had for my birthday?</u> <u>That they gave me as a gift for my birthday?</u> (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>I just had the 'most humiliating experience of my life'... What we call in Greek 'I became a laughing stock...' If we say, of course, I became a laughing stock, we don't highlight that this is about the top humiliating experience of my life... If we say that 'I had just had the most humiliating experience of my life', it may foreignise a bit, meaning it may seem to someone who knows English that it refers to this expression... It is too close to Englishness, I think that if we depart a little from the original we can say that I have never felt that humiliated in my life... But then we miss 'just'... Just as... I have never become that much of a laughing stock in my life is the meaning that states to the other, so it wouldn't be too much for a children's literature text to say that I have just experienced the top humiliating experience of my life, no, no, it is omitted... (P4, FG2, p)</p> <p>'I was embarrassed', actually he was embarrassed because the others stared at him and he was heard with that. So, 'I was embarrassed, they were hearing it, they were hearing me, I was embarrassed for that sound, I was embarrassed that the others were hearing that' ... I will look at it again later. (P5, FG2, p)</p> <p>'Check out' should be the till, so when we reached the till [...] it should be the card of the bank... <u>Now, should I just say his card?</u> (P7, FG2, p)</p>	<p>'Till roll'... What's this? 'Till roll'... (...) 'Till roll' (...). (P4, FG3, p)</p> <p>What can this be? (P4, FG3, p)</p> <p>I believe 'three-ply' means three applications, <u>although I am not sure...</u> (P5, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>'Casualty?', How should this be called? How is it said? My God? What?</u> (P5, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>Uncertainty reveals through her verbalisations. P5 felt despirate at times.</u> (P5, FG3, rd)</p> <p><u>Basket with rolls? With whiles? How is it called? Trolley?</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p>Of course, I don't know If I will write at the chain, chain, I will put it at the chain Sainsbury's, no I can't put just at Sainsbury's. I wonder if it is of that much sense to mention the name. I don't know if it's possible to write 'Μαρινόπουλος' ... <u>I don't think, I don't think I will go for such a vocalisation. I am not sure. I don't know...</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p>The typical problem with the semi colon... <u>I don't know, I have the impression that in Greek we use the dash in situations like these. Isn't it so?</u> (P8, FG3, p)</p> <p><u>At times P8 felt puzzled and uncertain.</u> (P8, FG3, rd)</p>

Table 9.20.
Non-Successful Verbalisations: Reasons and Examples

Reasons	FG1	FG2	FG3
Atomation			<p>To me the whole thing was an unrealistic task. In my everyday life I am locked in my house office and translate in peace and quiet on my own. <u>As I translate I do not even think! For some years now as soon as I get the source text I have to translate, my fingers dance on the computer typewriter and with fast movements I see the text and translate it. There is no time to think as you translate. The clients do not wait!</u> (P7, FG3, pq)</p>
Fatigue			<p>I translated with less speed as I am used to. I <u>felt a bit tired as I tried to give voice to my thinking.</u> (P4, FG3, pq)</p> <p>Although 'Oli' tried hard in the warming up stage and managed some verbalising, before entering the actual TAPs session, she politely apologised and said she could not continue as <u>this whole thing was confusing and exhausting to her.</u> (P7, FG3, rd)</p>
Embarrassment			<p><u>And ... don't laugh as you listen to me now because I'm embarrassed...</u> [P8 addresses the researcher- observer] (P8, FG3, p)</p>
Confusion		<p><u>It confuses me very much, I don't understand the place the story occurs...</u> (P3, FG2, p)</p>	<p><u>The whole idea of me verbalising my translation logic and effort was very confusing.</u> Being asked to go for something I had never done before in my translation career and something that was not 'under my professional skin', I found the verbalising task extremely difficult and impossible to achieve. Understanding, thinking, speaking my thought, and writing the translation was too much for me and definitely did not make sense to me. (P2, FG3, pq)</p> <p>Me verbalising my translation logic and effort <u>was too confusing.</u> Being asked to act like never before, it was definitely difficult firstly because it was a totally new experience and secondly because <u>listening to my very own voice was too very confusing.</u> Understanding the ST,</p>

			<p>thinking how to translate, making a decision, and speaking it out all the time was way too hard for me. (P6, FG3, pq)</p> <p>Although 'Oli' tried hard in the warming up stage and managed some verbalising, before entering the actual TAPs session she politely apologised and said she could not continue as <u>"this whole thing was confusing and exhausting to her"</u>. (P7, FG3, rd)</p>
Discomfort	<p>Reporting our thoughts is not an easy task. <u>I did not feel 100% comfortable to speak out every single thought I made every second at the same way I confessed it to myself silently.</u> (P4, FG1, pq)</p>		<p>'Ali' was a hard-to-find translator during the prior TAPs phase. Being very busy she would hardly answer her phone and had very little time for conversation. She was very much against getting involved in the session, as she felt she would be quite vulnerable and exposed. <u>Being used to working on her own in her working office at home, she found it very uncomfortable to be in that familiar environment with someone else for any purpose –research or any other business.</u> (P1, FG3, rd)</p> <p>Verbalising my thought as I go on translating is out of question! I cannot think of people really doing this! It's schizophrenic, needless to say it should take ages to actually translate a text this way! <u>God, it felt so uncomfortable"</u> (P1, FG3, pq).</p>
Anxiety	<p>She confessed she found it difficult to express her inner thoughts <u>as she felt time pressed and stressed</u> (P9, FG1, rd)</p>	<p>Hm, vicar, who can that be? Oh! It's a profession... I'll leave it as it is, <u>I cannot make assumptions, it puts much stress on me...</u> (P3, FG2, p)</p>	<p>In the meanwhile [P8 addresses the researcher-observer] <u>note that I do not know why, but I feel as if I have someone on my head and this stresses me... Em, at any case, I will try to relax a little bit.</u> (P8, FG3, p).</p> <p><u>Ouf...</u> (P8, FG3)</p> <p>Although she seemed quite at ease working at her home office during the TAPs session, she admitted during the session that she felt embarrassed to speak out her thoughts and <u>she felt very worried and anxious as she had the impression someone was pushing her to work on that translation by force.</u> (P8, FG3, rd)</p>

APPENDIX XII
Translation Norms of Individual Participants

Table 9.5.a.
Norms Governing Strategies and Approaches of FG1 Participants

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	Total numbers of verbalisations
Norms											
1. Naturalness	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2. Fluency	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
3. Sound of language	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
4. Coherence	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
5. Simplicity (simple language, structure, etc.)	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
6. Comprehensibility	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
7. Appropriateness/ Correctness (language content, etc.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	4
8. Toning down	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
9. Didacticism/ Usefulness (provision of knowledge)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10. Same meaning, Equivalence	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11. Accuracy	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
12. Authenticity	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
13. Convenience	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
14. Familiarity	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Total numbers of verbalisations	1	0	9	0	0	0	5	2	0	0	17

Table 9.5.b.
Norms Governing Strategies and Approaches of FG2 Participants

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	Total numbers of verbalisations
Norms											
1. Naturalness	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2
2. Fluency	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	4
3. Sound of language	0	0	1	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	5
4. Coherence	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
5. Simplicity (simple language, structure, etc.)	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	3
6. Comprehensibility	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
7. Appropriateness/ Correctness (language content, etc.)	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	5
8. Toning down	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9. Didacticism/ Usefulness (provision of knowledge)	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
10. Same meaning, Equivalence	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	3
11. Accuracy	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
12. Authenticity	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
13. Convenience	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
14. Familiarity	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Total numbers of verbalisations	0	2	2	11	6	3	4	3	0	0	31

Table 9.5.c.
Norms Governing Strategies and Approaches of FG3 Participants

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	Total numbers of verbalisations
Norms											
1. Naturalness	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
2. Fluency	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3. Sound of language	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
4. Coherence	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5. Simplicity (simple language, structure, etc.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6. Comprehensibility	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
7. Appropriateness/ Correctness (language content, etc.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	3
8. Toning down	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2
9. Didacticism/ Usefulness (provision of knowledge)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10. Same meaning, Equivalence	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	3
11. Accuracy	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
12. Authenticity	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
13. Convenience	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
14. Familiarity	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	3
Total numbers of verbalisations	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12	2	0	14

APPENDIX XIII
Translation Strategies of Individual Participants

Table 9.11.a.
Strategies Employed by FG1 Participants

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	Total numbers of verbalisations
Strategies											
Communication											
1. Additions (single words vs. explanatory translation, within text vs. footnotes)	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
2. Enlargements	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
3. Omissions	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
4. Shifts (grammatical level, syntactical lever, etc.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5. Adaptation	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
6. Exoticism (foreignising)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Search											
1. Dictionary	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2. Internet	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3. Glossary	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
4. Client	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Monitoring	0	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	4
Total numbers of Verbalisations	2	0	5	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	9

Table 9.11.b.
Strategies Employed by FG2 Participants

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	Total numbers of verbalisations
Strategies											
Communication											
1. Additions (single words vs. explanatory translation, within text vs. footnotes)	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	1	0	0	5
2. Enlargements	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
3. Omissions	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
4. Shifts (grammatical level, syntactical lever, etc.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5. Adaptation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6. Exoticism (foreignising)	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Search											
1. Dictionary	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
2. Internet	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
3. Glossary	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4. Client	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Monitoring	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	4
Total numbers of Verbalisations	0	2	3	4	2	3	2	1	1	0	18

Table 9.11.c.
Strategies Employed by FG3 Participants

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	Total numbers of verbalisations
Strategies											
Communication											
1. Additions (single words vs. explanatory translation, within text vs. footnotes)	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
2. Enlargements	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3. Omissions	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
4. Shifts (grammatical level, syntactical lever, etc.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3
5. Adaptation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6. Exoticism (foreignising)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Search											
1. Dictionary	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
2. Internet	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
3. Glossary	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4. Client	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Monitoring	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	3
Total numbers of verbalisations	0	0	0	0	2	0	3	6	0	0	11

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