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Research Trends in Translation Studies: A Comparison

Between Indian and Taiwanese Translation Journals

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摘要

本研究比較了 2010-2019 這十年中印度和台灣翻譯研究的發展與趨勢。翻譯雖在印度數千年的歷史中扮演重要的角色，但將翻譯研究納入一門獨立學科的目標在印度仍處於萌芽階段。在印度大多數大學，翻譯仍不是一個獨立的科系，而是併入印度語系或外文系的選修課程。反觀台灣則有些全亞洲最好的翻譯系所，如國立台灣師範大學翻譯研究所，國立台灣大學翻譯碩士學位學程等等。

Williams 和 Chesterman (2002) 將翻譯研究分成十二個領域，本研究以印度翻譯期刊《Translation Today》和台灣期刊《編譯論叢》和《翻譯學研究期刊》作為研究材料，分析和歸類這十年共 257 篇期刊論文至這十二個研究領域，再透過卡方檢定，以確定印度和台灣在不同研究領域的期刊論文次數之間是否有顯著差異。研究結果顯示，印度和台灣，僅在「翻譯倫理」與「口譯」兩個領域的論文數量有顯著差異($p < .05$)，此外，質性研究方法的比重比量性研究高。此外，在語種分析上，台灣期刊論文主要以中文和英文為研究的語種居多，而印度則以英文與印度國內語種為大宗。

雖然國內外學者對於翻譯趨勢已進行大量的研究，但是對於印度的研究趨勢卻出乎意料的匱乏，本研究希望能讓我們更能夠了解台灣與印度的翻譯研究趨勢，並對後繼研究可能的方向提出建議。

關鍵詞：台灣翻譯研究、印度翻譯研究、翻譯研究領域、卡方檢定、翻譯研究方法

English Abstract

This study compares the research trends in translation studies in India and Taiwan from 2010 to 2019. Even though translation has been an integral part of Indian history, Translation Studies as an academic discipline in India is still evolving. In most universities, translation courses are offered obligatory as a part of linguistics or other foreign or Indian language programs. Taiwan, on the other hand, has some of the best translation and interpretation programs in Asia, Graduate Institute of Translation and Interpretation at National Taiwan Normal University (NTNU), Graduate Program in Translation and Interpretation at National Taiwan University (NTU), to name a few. One Indian and two Taiwanese journals were selected for this study. The articles published in these journals between 2010 to 2019 were categorized into the twelve research areas proposed by Williams and Chesterman (2002). Following this categorization, several Chi-square tests were performed to determine whether differences between the frequencies of the articles were of any statistical significance. The test results revealed that the frequencies of the articles in Indian and Taiwanese translation journals had statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) in the 'Translation Ethics' and 'Interpreting' research areas. Among various types of research methods, qualitative methods were used more frequently in both Indian and Taiwanese translation journals than quantitative methods. Additionally, my analysis revealed that Taiwanese articles mainly discussed translations between Chinese and English language pairs, while Indian articles mostly focused on translations between English and Indian languages. Despite extensive coverage of research trends in translation studies by foreign scholars, the literature on research trends in India remains scarce. It is hoped that this study will contribute to our understanding of research trends in India

and Taiwan and offer suggestions on possible research directions for T&I scholars in the future.

Keywords: Translation Studies in Taiwan, Translation Studies in India, Research Areas in Translation Studies, Chi-Square Test, Research Methods in Translation Studies



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Chapter 1 Introduction

India, a country of over 1.3 billion people, is home to many native languages. In an incredibly diverse country like India, speaking or understanding more than one language is common. How many languages are spoken by the 1.3 billion population of India? The exact answer to this question does not seem to exist. India's constitution recognizes 22 scheduled languages which different states can officially adopt for administrative purposes. These languages can also be used as a medium of communication between the national and the state governments and for examinations conducted for national government service (Naskar & Bandyopadhyay, 2005). The 22 scheduled languages of India are Assamese, Bengali, Bodo, Dogri, Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Konkani, Maithili, Malayalam, Marathi, Manipuri, Nepali, Odia, Punjabi, Sanskrit, Santali, Sindhi, Tamil, Telugu, and Urdu. Of the total population of India, 96.71 percent have one of the scheduled languages as their mother tongue, and the remaining 3.29 percent is accounted by other languages (Office of the Registrar General India, 2011). Apart from these 22 scheduled languages, more than 19,500 languages or dialects are spoken in India as mother tongue.

1.1 Multilingualism: India's Linguistic Diversity

Clyne (1998) argues that the term multilingualism can be applied either to an individual's language skills or the language situation within a nation or society. On the individual level, it can, however, be grouped under bilingualism. Multilingualism and bilingualism are the norms in India. Despite most Indian states having a major language, none of them are monolingual. An average Indian can speak at least two languages, one

being their mother tongue and the other mostly being English. In south Indian cities such as Bangalore and Chennai, it is pretty common to find locals fluent in one or more south Indian languages apart from their own. With English education growing faster than ever, it is expected that the number of multilinguals will increase over time.

Linguistic diversity is something that is not merely achieved by accidental processes but is inherited and is an integral part of the nation-making philosophy and history for many (Lewis, as cited in Mahapatra, 1990, p. 1). India's linguistic diversity can be attributed to its lengthy and diverse history. Sridhar (1996) classifies the main reasons behind India's linguistic diversity as (a) different waves of invasion and colonization by the Aryans, the Mughals, the Portuguese, and the Britishers; (b) free migration within and between the different states and union territories; (c) presence of different ethnic groups, and religious minorities; (d) political influences leading to the linguistic reorganizations of states following the independence in 1947.

1.2 Linguistic Survey of India

Owing to the little agreement among the linguists regarding the difference between languages and dialects, determining the exact number of languages spoken in India is a daunting task. George Abraham Grierson, a member of the Indian civil service and a linguist, was the first to attempt a 'Linguistic Survey of India,' which was carried out between 1886 and 1927. The results of the survey were finally published in 1928. A total of 179 languages and 544 dialects were identified in this survey. The second attempt was made during the 1951 census, in which a total of 845 languages were listed (Sridhar 1996, p. 328). From 1951 onwards, the Census of India has been the richest source of language data collected and published every decade. The previous census was carried out in 2011, and the next was set to begin in March 2021. However, due to the

COVID-19 outbreak, it was postponed, and the date of carrying out the census remains uncertain. Table 1 presents the scheduled languages of India in descending order of speaker's strength as a percentage of the total population. This list was published in the 2011 census. As shown in Table 1, Hindi emerged as the most spoken mother tongue in the 2011 census, with more than 43 percent of the total population declaring it as their mother tongue. Sanskrit was the least spoken language, with just 24,821 people listing it as their mother tongue.

Table 1 *Scheduled Languages in Descending Order of Speakers' Strength*

Language	Persons who returned the language as their mother tongue	Percentage to the total population
Hindi	52,83,47,193	43.63
Bengali	9,72,37,669	8.03
Marathi	8,30,26,680	6.86
Telugu	8,11,27,740	6.7
Tamil	6,90,26,881	5.7
Gujarati	5,54,92,554	4.58
Urdu	5,07,72,631	4.19
Kannada	4,37,06,512	3.61
Odia	3,75,21,324	3.1
Malayalam	3,48,38,819	2.88
Punjabi	3,31,24,726	2.74
Assamese	1,53,11,351	1.26
Maithili	1,35,83,464	1.12
Santali	73,68,192	0.61
Kashmiri	67,97,587	0.56
Nepali	29,26,168	0.24
Sindhi	27,72,264	0.23
Dogri	25,96,767	0.21
Konkani	22,56,502	0.19
Manipuri	17,61,079	0.15
Bodo	14,82,929	0.12
Sanskrit	24,821	Negligible

Source: Office of the Registrar General India, 2011

1.3 Taiwan's Linguistic Identity

Taiwan, a small island located in East Asia, is far more diverse than its tiny size would indicate. The primary languages in Taiwan are Mandarin, Taiwanese Hokkien

(Minnan), and Hakka. Situated in the West Pacific between Japan and the Philippines, the total area of Taiwan is around 36, 197 square kilometers. With home to nearly more than 23 million people, Taiwan is one of three countries (apart from China and Singapore) with Mandarin as the or one of the official languages. Throughout Taiwan's history, political regimes influenced language policy. In other words, the decision as to which language would serve as the official language of Taiwan was based on the political interests of the regime. For example, during the Japanese colonial period, a great deal of effort was put into promoting Japanese as the national language with the aim of assimilating the local population and of suppressing the local culture and language. Later, when Taiwan became a part of the ROC administration, the nationalist government enforced the exclusive use of Mandarin as the national language while suppressing Taiwanese and Japanese.

Before the beginning of the Chinese settlement, Taiwan was exclusively inhabited by indigenous ethnicities who spoke Austronesian languages. The Austronesian languages that are spoken in Taiwan form a language group called Formosan. As of now, the number of people speaking Formosan languages has dropped to only 1.4% of the total population. Mandarin is the most widely spoken language in Taiwan today. According to the 2010 population and household census, almost 83.5% of Taiwanese spoke Mandarin at home, and 81.9% spoke the Minnan dialect. Taiwan's education system and workplace have long preferred Mandarin. As a consequence, most Taiwanese people can speak the Minnan dialect to some extent but are often unable to speak it fluently (Hollo, 2019). The Taiwanese government has been continuously making efforts to protect and strengthen the regional dialects and minority languages, but the younger generation in Taiwan is less inclined towards learning their mother tongues.

1.4 Translation Studies as a Discipline in India and Taiwan

The co-existence of several languages, races, cultures, and religions is what makes India unique. The translation of key texts from various Indian languages to English and vice versa has happened for a very long time. It will not be an exaggeration to claim that India would not have been a nation without translation. In fact, Indians, when conversing with people who speak a language other than their own, translate almost unconsciously from their native tongues (Satchidanandan, 2011). Throughout history, translation has helped Indian people unite as a nation.

While translation has been an integral part of Indian history, Translation Studies in India remains a young discipline. There are only a few universities that offer formal translation programs. Translation Studies has already been recognized as an independent academic discipline in many countries. Nevertheless, translation studies is rarely recognized as an independent department at Indian universities. Translation courses are offered obligatory as a part of Linguistics, English, Hindi, or any other Indian or foreign language programs. The downside of this kind of arrangement is that teachers primarily focus on teaching languages rather than translation or interpretation skills.

To gain a better understanding of how translation and interpretation are incorporated into the language teaching programs, an informal interview was conducted with two students from one of the most prestigious universities in New Delhi. This university enjoys a reputation for excellence in foreign language teaching at undergraduate, postgraduate, and Ph.D. levels. The first interviewee completed her Master's in 2017 from the department of Chinese language, and the other is pursuing a Ph.D. in Russian language and literature at the Center of Russian Studies.

Upon asking about the courses at her university, the first interviewee mentioned that translation and interpretation were indeed a part of their Master's coursework. However, the translation classes mainly focused on translating news texts, and students had little opportunity to translate texts of different genres. Regarding the interpretation class, the interviewee mentioned that they used to practice simultaneous interpretation in the language lab using audio-visual materials. However, they seldom practiced consecutive interpretation, nor did they learn how to take notes. An interpreter's notes are meant to help the interpreter remember the challenging names, numbers, and places. While there are no specific rules for notetaking and the style of writing notes is left entirely up to the interpreter, the teaching of notetaking is an integral part of every interpretation program. A note-taking lesson can teach students tips and tricks to develop their own personal note-taking styles and to maximize their memory capacity. Note-taking should therefore be taught as a part of the interpretation coursework. The second interviewee from the Russian department also pointed out very similar issues. Though they were taught translation and interpretation as a part of their coursework, the slightest attention was paid to making them acquainted with various translation and interpretation theories and methods.

The situation in Taiwan is, however, different. Although Taiwan does not have a long history of translation as India does, the areas of translation studies in Taiwan are certainly more comprehensive than those in India. The Translation and Interpretation programs provided by national universities like the National Taiwan Normal University (NTNU) and National Taiwan University (NTU) are among the best in Taiwan and Asia. Along with this, Taiwan also has some of the most reputed translation journals in Asia, such as *Compilation and Translation Review* and *Studies of Translation and Interpretation*

1.5 Research Purpose and Research Questions

This study focused on comparing the research trends in the field of Translation Studies in India and Taiwan. A total of three journals were chosen for this study. *Translation Today*, which is the only journal of Translation Studies in India and is managed by the National Translation Mission (NTM), was chosen to represent India. *Compilation and Translation Review* and *Studies of Translation and Interpretation*, which are renowned translation journals in Taiwan were selected to represent Taiwan.

Translation Today is a peer-reviewed, indexed, and refereed journal published by the National Translation Mission (NTM) of India. It is available in both print (via subscription) and online (open access) formats. *Translation Today* publishes two issues per year and accepts theoretical as well as empirical research articles. The authors can submit pieces on any topic related to Translation Studies or associated disciplines such as Interpreting Studies, Adaption, Commentary, Comparative Literature, and Culture Studies. The journal accepts submissions in several categories, including full-length articles, research reports, squibs, interactions with experts, and book reviews. The review is done by an in-house editorial board and is usually completed within a couple of months. The editorial board of *Translation Today* is populated by a number of prominent names in the field of Translation Studies, including Susan Bassnett, Jeremy Munday and Harish Trivedi (Translation Today, n.d.).

Compilation and Translation Review (CTR) is a semi-annual journal that fosters both theoretical and practical research in the field of translation and interpretation. Among CTR publications are scholarly journal articles, forums, book reviews, translation reviews and translation annotations. The editorial and advisory board of CTR is composed of scholars from Taiwan, China, Hong Kong, the U.K. and the U.S.

On the editorial board of CTR are some of Taiwan's most prominent scholars in the field of Translation Studies, such as Professor Posen Liao and Professor Tzu-yun Lai. Similar to Translation Today, the CTR also adopts a double-blind review policy (Compilation and Translation Review, n.d.). Another Taiwanese translation journal chosen for this study is *Studies of Translation and Interpretation*, which was first published in 1997 by the Taiwan Association of Translation and Interpretation. This journal is published once a year and is considered as one of the most prestigious translation journals in Taiwan (Airiti Library, n.d.).

In this study, the articles published in these journals from 2010-2019 were categorized into Williams and Chesterman's 'twelve areas of research' (2002) based on their content. After finding the frequencies of the articles belonging to each of the twelve main areas of Williams and Chesterman's (2002) model, the difference between the frequencies of the twelve research areas was statistically tested. This was performed by conducting several Chi-square tests using SPSS. Additionally, the types of research methods and the language pairs used in the articles were also analyzed and compared.

Another issue discussed in this thesis is the gender gap. The gender gap in India is among the largest in the world. A report from the Indian Human Resource Development (HRD) ministry in 2018 showed that far more male Ph.D. candidates enroll for research work than women do in India. In 2014-15, over 21,000 more males had enrolled in the Ph.D. programs than females. Similarly, in subsequent years, the gender gap continued. As the number of total enrolments increased, the number of male Ph.D. candidates was also higher by 21,688 in 2015-16 and 21,882 in 2016-17 ("Gender gap in Ph.D. continues," 2015). Taiwan, on the other hand, is a role model in Asia and the world in terms of gender equality. This study calculated the frequency of male and female

authors to see if there is a gender gap in the field of Translation Studies in India and Taiwan. The primary research questions addressed in this thesis are as follows:

1. Based on Williams and Chesterman's (2002) classification, what research areas hold the highest and the lowest frequencies in Indian and Taiwanese journals?
2. Are there any significant differences among frequencies of Williams and Chesterman's (2002) TS research areas, comparing the Indian and Taiwanese translation journals?
3. What research methods have been used in the articles published in these journals?
4. What languages pairs do most research focus on in India and Taiwan?
5. What is the frequency of male and female authors? Is there any gender gap?

It is hoped that the results of his study may contribute to our understanding of current trends in Translation Studies in India and Taiwan.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Definition of Translation

The existence of translation has been apparent since the earliest days of human interaction. The word translation has a Latin prefix *trans*, which means "to carry across." Munday (2016) argues that the English term 'translation' either derives from the old French translation or more directly from the Latin translation ('trans-*porting*'). The term 'translation' might refer to the general subject field or phenomenon or the product, i.e., the text that has been translated or the process of producing the translation. Jakobson, based on linguistic aspects of translation, divided it into three categories. The first is 'intralingual translation,' which refers to an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language. An example of 'intralingual translation' is the American and the British version of English, which use different terms to describe the same thing. For instance, in the USA, 'trainers' are called 'sneakers,' though they are technically the same. The second one is 'interlingual translation,' which is an interpretation of verbal signs through some other language. For instance, the English greeting 'hello' is translated into '你好' Nǐ Hǎo in Chinese or 'नमस्ते' namaste in Hindi. The last one is 'intersemiotic translation,' which refers to an interpretation of signs using signs of non-verbal sign systems (Jakobson, as cited in Munday, 2016). Some examples of intersemiotic translation, as cited by Jakobson (1959), are the reinterpretation of verbal art by music, dance, cinema, or painting. Therefore, instead of calling it a kind of translation, we can call it a transmutation of a verbal message into another medium. Most research in translation studies focus on 'interlingual translation.' Though slowly

becoming popular, ‘intralingual’ and ‘intersemiotic’ translation remain an under-researched area in the field of Translation Studies.

2.2 History of Translation in India and Taiwan

The history of translation has always been a debated subject. Munday (2016) argues that written and spoken translations have played a crucial role in interhuman communication throughout history; however, the study of translation as an academic subject started only a few decades ago. All thanks to James S. Holmes, who first proposed the name ‘translation studies’ in late 1972 as a better alternative to translatology or translation science or science of translating (Munday, 2009, p. 5). Translation Studies (TS), later as defined by Williams and Chesterman, “is the field of study devoted to describing, analyzing, and theorizing the processes, contexts, and products of the act of translation as well as the (roles of the) agents involved” (Williams & Chesterman, as cited in Rafiee & Nemati, 2014, p. 178).

In India, the history of translation is as old as India itself. Singh (2017) argues that Indians have been living with multilingualism for a long time; therefore, they are natural or unconscious translators who translate without caring for a methodology or theory of translation and could shift from one linguistic system to another with ease. Since this act of translation always happened so effortlessly in the Indian culture, it never received much critical attention. When we look at the Indian tradition, at first glance, it seems that there is hardly any theorizing anywhere in the Sanskrit scholastic or literary tradition about translation; however, translation has been a significant activity in India since very early times. Many Pali and Prakrit texts of the Buddhists were translated into Sanskrit. Also, several popular Sanskrit works like the *Rāmāyana*,

the *Mahābhārata*, and many *Purānas* were translated into regional languages (Patnaik, 2017).

The translation activities in India gained real momentum during the East India Company's rule from 1757 to 1857 and then during the direct British rule from 1857 to 1947 (Singh, 2017). Niranjana (1990) a well-known colonial translation critique, also highlights how the British efforts to obtain information about the Indian people made translation an important component of colonial endeavors. In her study, she cites an example of how A. Maconochie, a scholar closely associated with the University of Edinburgh, repeatedly urged the then British government to deploy necessary steps to discover, collect and translate all the existing ancient Hindoo texts (Dharampal, as cited in Niranjana, 1990, p.773- 774). The British wanted to understand the native knowledge systems to control India better. Therefore, they only translated works that suited their taste and purpose. During the British colonial rule, many Indian sacred texts including, the *Gita* were translated into English. Apart from translating Indian texts into English, the British also focused on translating western classics to Indian languages. For example, the Bible was translated into 16 Indian languages during British rule. While the purpose behind translating Indian literary classics into English was to introduce westerners to the Orient, the main motive behind the translation of sacred texts such as the Bible into Indian languages was to expand Christianity in India (Singh, 2017).

In the post-colonial period, various literary and cultural institutions and publication houses encouraged translation. During this period, the emphasis was primarily on critiquing the colonial translations and translating works from post-colonial societies into Indian languages, including the works from Eurasian countries. The end of the twentieth century witnessed works being translated among Indian

languages more than ever before. In the past few years, many new publishing houses have been introduced, and literary works dealing with new topics such as Dalit and feminist discourse have received considerable attention and are being translated into various languages (Singh, 2017, pp. 105-111).

Taiwan's translation history might not be as old as India's, yet it is unique in its own way. Chang (張思婷, 2015) argues that the history of translation in Taiwan is long, but the history of its writing is short. The island underwent many political upheavals, including the Dutch occupation, the Spanish occupation between 1626-1642, the military rule of the Cheng regime, imperial rule of Ch'ing China, colonial rule of Japan, and later ruled by the Nationalists. Taiwan's official language was changed with each changing regime. For almost 400 years, political changes played a significant role in deciding who translates what into which languages (張思婷, 2015, p. 44). When Japan colonized Taiwan, Japanese was made the official language in Taiwan. Around the end of the Second World War, Taiwanese people spoke Minnan or Hakka in private settings, Japanese in public settings, and wrote in both Japanese and classical Chinese. Later, mainlanders came to Taiwan in 1945. The mainlanders considered their culture superior and wanted to educate the Taiwanese people, who were already more modernized than the average Chinese of that time. Between 1945 and 1949, many Chinese books, including translations, were imported from China to re-educate the Taiwanese people who were educated under the Japanese system. However, after 1949 during the martial law period, the KMT government banned books from the mainland. In fact, many translations of American literature were banned simply because they were translated by translators living in mainland China (賴慈芸, 2014). Since Taiwan's democratization in the 1990s, the Taiwanese government started to promote native languages that were long suppressed in favor of Mandarin. In 2001, the Taiwanese government enacted a

law requiring schools in Taiwan to offer weekly instruction in native languages, which included Taiwanese, Hakka, and other indigenous languages.

2.3 Translation Studies: India vs. Taiwan

In this era of globalization, translation has become more important than ever. Translation not only enables effective communication between people across the globe but also facilitates the transfer of information, knowledge, and ideas. A highly skilled translator is the key to effective, efficient, and empathetic translation. The demand for translation has soared, due to which there has been a significant expansion in specialized translation and interpreting programs. In the past few decades, many conferences, books, and journals have been introduced in this field. With the increase in the number of publications, demands for databases, encyclopedias, handbooks, and introductory texts have also increased, and their number has been growing ever since. International organizations such as the American Translation and Interpreting Studies Association (ATISA), the International Association of Translation and Intercultural Studies, have also prospered (Munday, 2016).

It might be due to the multilingual nature of Indian society; teaching Translation Studies as a separate discipline in universities has not gained much attention. As mentioned in the introduction section, only selected colleges/universities provide degree programs in Translation Studies at the M.A. and Ph.D. levels. The top Indian colleges/institutes that offer Ph.D. in Translation Studies are the University of Hyderabad (UOH) and English and Foreign Languages University (EFLU). Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) offers MA in Translation Studies. However, this course is offered to students in distance learning mode, and the medium of instruction is Hindi. Therefore, the program is only limited to Hindi-speaking

students. Besides the above, Linguistics or Comparative Literature departments in different universities also offer courses in Translation Studies. However, Translation Studies is not an independent department with its own assigned faculty and courses in those universities. India's diversity of languages and cultures makes it ideally suited to play a crucial role in promoting translation both as an industry and an academic discipline. However, not enough has been done in a formal way to promote Translation Studies in India.

In Taiwan, the study of foreign languages, especially English, has become popular since the 1980s. Later, several universities in Taiwan began offering degree programs in Translation Studies. The translation and interpretation programs provided by national universities like NTNU and NTU are considered the best in Taiwan and Asia. A number of other renowned institutions also offer MA degrees in Translation and Interpretation, including the Fu Jen Catholic University (FJCU), the Changhua University of Education and the Wenzao Ursuline University of Languages. Translation and Interpreting have become more widely taught in Taiwan, with Translation Studies (TS) degree programs expanding from an initially restricted postgraduate level at FJCU and NTNU to full-fledged programs covering both postgraduate and undergraduate levels at most of the TS degree-offering institutions (Tan, 2017). Along with some of the best translation and interpretation programs, Taiwan also has some of the most reputed translation journals in Asia, such as *Compilation and Translation Review and Studies of Translation and Interpretation*.

2.4 Using Content Analysis to Determine Trends in Translation Studies: Previous Literature

Since this thesis seeks to determine trends in Translation Studies using descriptive content analysis, it is imperative to discuss the previous studies that have established trends in Translation Studies using this method. Using descriptive content analysis to determine research trends in the field of Translation Studies is not a new concept. Scholars from across the world have conducted several studies on research trends in translation studies. A Taiwanese Scholar, Liao (廖柏森, 2007), reviewed 18 interpretation-related theses between 1991 and 2004 and 46 papers related to interpretation in *Studies of Translation and Interpretation, volumes 1-10*. His research rendered important insights into the development of research on interpretation in Taiwan. Furthermore, it also pointed out the shortcomings in interpretation research in Taiwan and suggested possible ways for improvement (Lan et al., 2009, p. 180). Another empirical research similar to Liao's (廖柏森, 2007) research conducted by Lan, Dong and Chiu (2009) compared the research results in journals and theses published in Taiwan and abroad between 2002 and 2008. The comparison suggested that the "Multimedia Translation," "Translation and Technology," "Translation Ethics," and "Translation Profession" were the areas to be worked on in the future.

The topic of trends in translation studies has also received research attention in Iran. For instance, Iranian scholars Nouraey and Karimnia (2013) studied the orientations of Iranian M.A students in Translation based on the keywords used within their theses abstracts. A data bank using four hundred abstracts from six universities was created for this purpose. The Customer Magnetism software was then used to extract the most frequently used keywords and their lemma. Later, a more compact keyword list was prepared through manual processing. The test results pointed out that

descriptive translation studies was more popular among Iranian students. The analysis also showed out of Williams and Chesterman's (2002) twelve key areas in Translation Studies, six areas, namely 'translation and technology,' 'translation history,' 'translation ethics,' 'interpreting,' 'translator training' and 'translation profession' were more or less untouched in Iran. In yet another study, also conducted by the Iranian scholars Rafiee and Nemati (2014), the tendencies of TS within different countries of the world with special reference to two continents (i.e., Asia and Europe) was investigated. A total of six translation journals from Asia and Europe were selected for this study. The findings revealed that in Asian journals, the most frequent research areas were observed to be 'translator training,' 'interpreting,' and 'the translation process.' In the European journals, however, the most frequent research areas were 'genre translation,' 'text analysis and translation,' 'translation history,' and 'the translation process.' In an empirical research done by Lan, Dong and Chiu (2009), the research results in journals and theses published in Taiwan and abroad between 2002 and 2008 were compared. The comparison suggested that the 'multimedia translation,' 'translation and technology,' 'translation ethics,' and 'translation profession' were the areas to be worked on in the future.

A recent study by Dewi (2019) presented an overview of the development of Translation Studies research in Indonesia from 2008 to 2018. Similar to the research conducted by Nouraey and Karimnia (2013), the data for this study was also obtained from theses of university students. The data included undergraduate, Master's, and doctoral theses of the universities having translation programs in Indonesia, particularly on Java and Bali Islands. The titles of the theses were analyzed to obtain a general idea of Translation Studies research topics that Indonesian university students have actually explored. It was found that the most explored topics belonged to the product-oriented

research category, and only a few were categorized into process-oriented, participant-oriented research or other categories.

Several studies have been conducted by foreign scholars to determine trends in Translation Studies. However, there is a surprising lack of information on research trends in Translation Studies in India within the literature. Comparing an Indian translation journal to a foreign translation journal to determine research trends is something that has not been done before. Therefore, this study may be critically important in shedding some light on current research trends in translation studies in India and Taiwan.



Chapter 3 Research Method

The research method is an integral part of every research. Kallet (2004) argues that the methods section of a research provides information that is used to judge the validity of a research. Therefore, it is necessary to explain how the study was conducted and why particular methods were chosen. This chapter includes the materials, the theoretical framework, and the data collection and analysis procedure used in this study.

3.1 Materials

The data used in this study comes from three translation journals: *Translation Today* from India, the *Compilation and Translation Review*, and *Studies of Translation and Interpretation* from Taiwan. *Translation Today* is a double-blind peer-reviewed indexed and refereed journal of the National Translation Mission of India. *Compilation and Translation Review* is an established Taiwanese semi-annual journal that promotes both theoretical and practical research on the study and practice of translation and compilation, and *Studies of Translation and Interpretation* is a well-known translation journal published by the Taiwan Association of Translation and Interpretation.

In the beginning, only *Translation Today* and *Compilation and Translation Review* were selected for this study. However, upon comparing the number of articles published in both journals, it was found that the articles published in *Translation Today* were significantly more in number than those published in *Compilation and Translation Review*. Therefore, to reduce the difference between the total number of articles and to increase the reliability of the analysis, articles from *Studies of Translation and Interpretation* from 2018 and 2019 were added to this study. To sum up, *Translation*

Today was chosen to represent India, and *Compilation and Translation Review* and *Studies of Translation and Interpretation* combined were selected to represent Taiwan. These three journals were chosen as they are popular translation journals in the countries they are being published in. In this study, articles published in these journals between 2010 to 2019 were analyzed.

3.2 Theoretical Framework

Having a theoretical framework is one of the most important aspects of the research process. This study uses Williams and Chesterman's (2002) research areas as the main framework to determine the current research trends in India and Taiwan in the field of Translation Studies. According to Williams and Chesterman (2002), there are twelve research areas in Translation Studies (pp. 6-27).

1. Text Analysis and Translation
2. Translation Quality Assessment
3. Genre Translation
4. Multimedia Translation
5. Translation and Technology
6. Translation History
7. Translation Ethics
8. Terminology and Glossaries
9. Interpreting
10. The Translation Process

11. Translator Training

12. The Translation Profession

The twelve areas, as classified by Williams and Chesterman (2002), present an overview of various research areas in Translation Studies. The classification is intended to help translation students and scholars identify a topic in the field of Translation Studies and provide a step-by-step roadmap to doing research in this field. These twelve areas are:

3.2.1 Text Analysis and Translation

Text analysis and translation, as described by Williams and Chesterman (2002), can be further divided into four sub-areas: source text analysis, comparison of translations, and their source texts, comparison of translations and non-translated texts, translation with commentary.

3.2.1.1 *Source Text Analysis*

In source text analysis, researchers focus on the analysis of the source text itself while examining the various aspects of it that might give rise to translation problems. This kind of analysis usually deals with the communicative situation of the translation, including its target audience, function, etc.

3.2.1.2 *Comparison of Translations and their Source Texts*

The analysis of translated texts deals with the textual comparison of a translation with its original. The comparison involves several translations into the same language or different languages of the same original. One can choose a particular aspect of the source text, examine the corresponding sections, or focus on a kind of translation

problem and examine what translation strategies have been used to solve the problem, how and under what conditions the problem was tackled.

3.2.1.3 *Comparison of Translations and Non-translated Texts*

This kind of analysis deals with comparing translations into a particular language with similar texts originally written in that language. The idea behind this sort of comparison is to examine how translations differ from other original-language texts. These original language texts are often referred to as parallel texts (traditionally) or comparable texts (now). This kind of research is mostly quantitative.

3.2.1.4 *Translation with Commentary*

This is a form of research where one translates a text and, at the same time, writes a commentary on the translation process. Known as 譯註 in Chinese, the commentary includes some discussion on the source text and a justification for the kinds of solutions one uses to solve particular kinds of translation problems.

3.2.2 Translation Quality Assessment

There are three general approaches to translation quality assessment: source-oriented, target-language oriented, and assessment of translation effects. Source-oriented quality assessment is based on the relation between the translation and its source text. This kind of assessment sets up definitions of required equivalence and then classifies deviance from this equivalence. Target-language-oriented assessment is based on the relation between the translation and its target language. This sort of assessment uses the method of text analysis to determine the differences between the translation and other comparable texts in the target language. The assessment of

translation effects involves assessing translation effects on clients, readers, teachers, and critics. Functional and/or communicative translation theories such as Skopos theory might be useful in such an assessment.

3.2.3 Genre Translation

Genre translation includes the translation of traditional literary texts such as drama, poetry, prose fiction, multimedia Texts, religious texts, children's literature, tourism texts, technical texts, and legal documents.

3.2.3.1 *Drama*

One major question addressed in this type of analysis is if the play is being translated to be performed or read? One might take a case study of individual production, research the biography of an established drama translator, or compare different translations of the same play. Other topics may include the question of (trans)location, the reasons, and implications behind (trans) locations.

3.2.3.2 *Poetry*

The poetic texts are excellent material for translation research when time is limited. The major topics include the aim of translation, the translation of meter, cadence, rhythm, rhyme, the translator's profile, and how poetry translations are done.

3.2.3.3 *Prose Fiction*

This type of analysis includes analyzing the narrative perspective of the author/translator, the translation of dialogues, cultural-specific terms, or the translation of humor. Williams and Chesterman (2002) argue that the contemporary translators

themselves are an under-researched area. An interview could be done to discover the biographies of translators, how they obtain contracts, their relations with the editors and publishers, whether they write prefaces/ afterwords, whether they use footnotes, or provide glossaries. A further area that could also be worked upon is how do critics review translated works.

3.2.3.4 *Religious Text*

The research questions concerning religious texts are mostly related to the enormous cultural gap between the societies for which these texts were written and the societies for which they have been translated as well as the tension between treating them as sacred texts verses using them as missionizing tools. A comparison may also be made between different translations of a particular sacred text into one language focusing on a specific aspect of it.

3.2.3.5 *Children's Literature*

Children's literature includes many genres, including poems, fairytales, fiction, and scientific writing, and is expected to fulfill several different functions such as entertainment, socialization, language development, and general education.

3.2.3.6 *Tourism Texts*

Williams and Chesterman (2002) argue that the tourism sector has grown exponentially over the last few decades; however, little attention has been paid to tourism texts. The different aspects of tourism texts that can be studied include the current provision of translated material in a particular locality, the kinds of strategies appropriate for translating materials for tourists, etc.

3.2.3.7 *Technical Texts*

The translation of technical texts needs a high level of subject knowledge and mastery of relevant terminology. Technical texts include many kinds of specialized texts in science and technology, economics, and medicine. Some research topics in this area include special problems of particular document types such as patents, problems of style and clarity, improving technical translators' training, and the historical role of translators in disseminating knowledge.

3.2.3.8 *Legal Texts*

Some interesting research questions in this field include how creative a legal translator can be and under what circumstances. One can also discuss the role of the translator as co-drafter of the original.

3.2.4 Multimedia Translation

Audiovisual translation primarily consists of revoicing, sur-/subtitling.

3.2.4.1 *Revoicing*

Revoicing replaces the original text with a translation in the target language. Voice-over, narration, free commentary, and lip-sync dubbing are all examples of revoicing. The major topics of research include the type of revoicing, case studies of revoiced material, the role of translators in the revoicing process.

3.2.4.2 *Sur-/subtitling*

Some interesting research topics in the field of sur-/subtitling are technical constraints of sur-/subtitling, the training of sur-/subtitlers, analyses of sur-/subtitled

materials, subtitling as a language learning/teaching tool, and subtitling for the deaf and hard of hearing.

3.2.5 Translation and Technology

Williams and Chesterman (2002) argue that though technology has become an integral part of the translation profession, there has been little research on many aspects of the technology itself. The topics include evaluating software, software localization, effects of technology, website translation, the place of technology in translator training.

3.2.5.1 *Evaluating Software*

The evaluation of machine Translation and computer-aided Translation software can be quite complicated, and a formulated criteria should be established for such evaluation. Two or more products that are designed to do the same thing, such as MT systems or translation memory systems, can be compared in this evaluation.

3.2.5.2 *Software Localization*

Software localization is a process that includes adapting a software product for a target language and culture. Some interesting research topics in this area can consist of a workplace study, investigating the role of participants in a localization project, mechanisms of quality control, and so on.

3.2.5.3 *Effects of Technology*

There is relatively little research on the impact translation memory systems have on the way translators work or on translation output. Therefore, an interesting way of

research could be using a questionnaire to establish the attitude of translators to such software or analyzing aspects of texts that are translated using these software systems.

3.2.5.4 *Website Translation*

Some interesting topics related to website translation could include establishing the current practice in website translation, investigating the effect of website constraints and user demands on translators and evaluating the product, and exploring the use of controlled languages in website translation.

3.2.5.5 *The Place of Technology in Translator Training*

Using questionnaires and interviews to investigate what could be done to introduce translation technology into every translator training program, what sort of technical skills would be most appropriate in which contexts, and who should design and teach such courses are some interesting aspects that can be studied in this area.

3.2.6 Translation History

The major questions in translation history deal with who? what? why? and how? ‘Who?’ focuses on translators themselves, their backgrounds, their relations with publishers and editors, their motivation, and translation practice. ‘What?’ focuses on which texts were translated (or not translated) in particular cultures at particular times. ‘Why?’ focuses on the reason why particular texts were translated at particular times. ‘How?’ focuses on the detailed analyses of individual translations in the social and historical context.

3.2.7 Translation Ethics

The various research topics related to translation ethics can be broadly divided into different kinds of ethics, cultural and ideological factors, codes of practice, and personal vs. professional ethics.

3.2.7.1 *Different Kinds of Ethics*

The different arguments on how we can achieve the best ethical conclusion are based on different approaches. Some arguments advocate a faithful representation of the original, some value loyalty, and others see understanding and cooperation as primary values. Research in this area involves conceptual analysis and is often influenced by debates in moral philosophy.

3.2.7.2 *Cultural and Ideological Factors*

This kind of research is usually historical in nature and is often a case study. It mainly focuses on how translations have been influenced by cultural and ideological factors and how translations affect target readers and cultures.

3.2.7.3 *Codes of Practice*

An interesting approach in this type of research would be to compare the codes used in different countries. Translations are forms of intellectual property. Therefore, what might be done to improve translators' rights would also be an interesting topic in this area.

3.2.7.4 *Personal vs. Professional Ethics*

Most of this research is either conceptual or historical and focuses on translation ethics. Topics related to the borderline between professional and personal ethics, the translator's right or duty to improve originals, the boundaries of a translator's responsibility, etc., are studied in this area.

3.2.8 Terminology and Glossaries

This kind of study is basically a detailed conceptual analysis, but it also involves bibliographical fieldwork and corpus processing. The terms can be automatically extracted with the help of some computer programs, and then via parallel conceptual analysis and definition comparison, the terminology database for the chosen domain and languages can be compiled.

3.2.9 Interpreting

Research on interpreting usually focuses on one of the various types of interpreting: simultaneous interpreting, consecutive interpreting, conference interpreting, liaison interpreting, or court interpreting. The various research topics include cognitive studies, behavioral studies, linguistic studies, sociological studies, interpreter training, quality assessment, and special kinds of interpreting.

3.2.10 The Translation Process

This kind of study includes workplace studies and protocol studies. Workplace studies focus on the working lives and conditions of professional translators. It allows us to formulate and test hypotheses about how translators behave and is also relevant for translator training. The research could also include the translation procedures and

policies of companies, agencies, cities, etc. Protocol Studies investigate the translator's internal decision-making process using think-aloud protocols (TAP) or retrospective interviews.

3.2.11 Translator Training

This sort of study focuses on curriculum design, implementation, specific problem areas, and professional dimensions. Curriculum design is about the content of translator-training programs. Implementation deals with the content, delivery, and evaluation of particular components in a translator-training program. Typical problem areas discuss the 'problems' that almost all trainees encounter, and the Professional dimension deals with how trainees can be best introduced to the profession of Translation during their study.

3.2.12 The Translation Profession

This kind of research can be historical or contemporary. Historical research might focus on the development of a professional association in a country, region, or continent. Contemporary research could include issues relating to the current situation of the professional associations in a country. (Williams and Chesterman, 2002, pp.6-27).

Figure 1 summarizes Williams and Chesterman's 'twelve areas of research (2002) in Translation Studies.

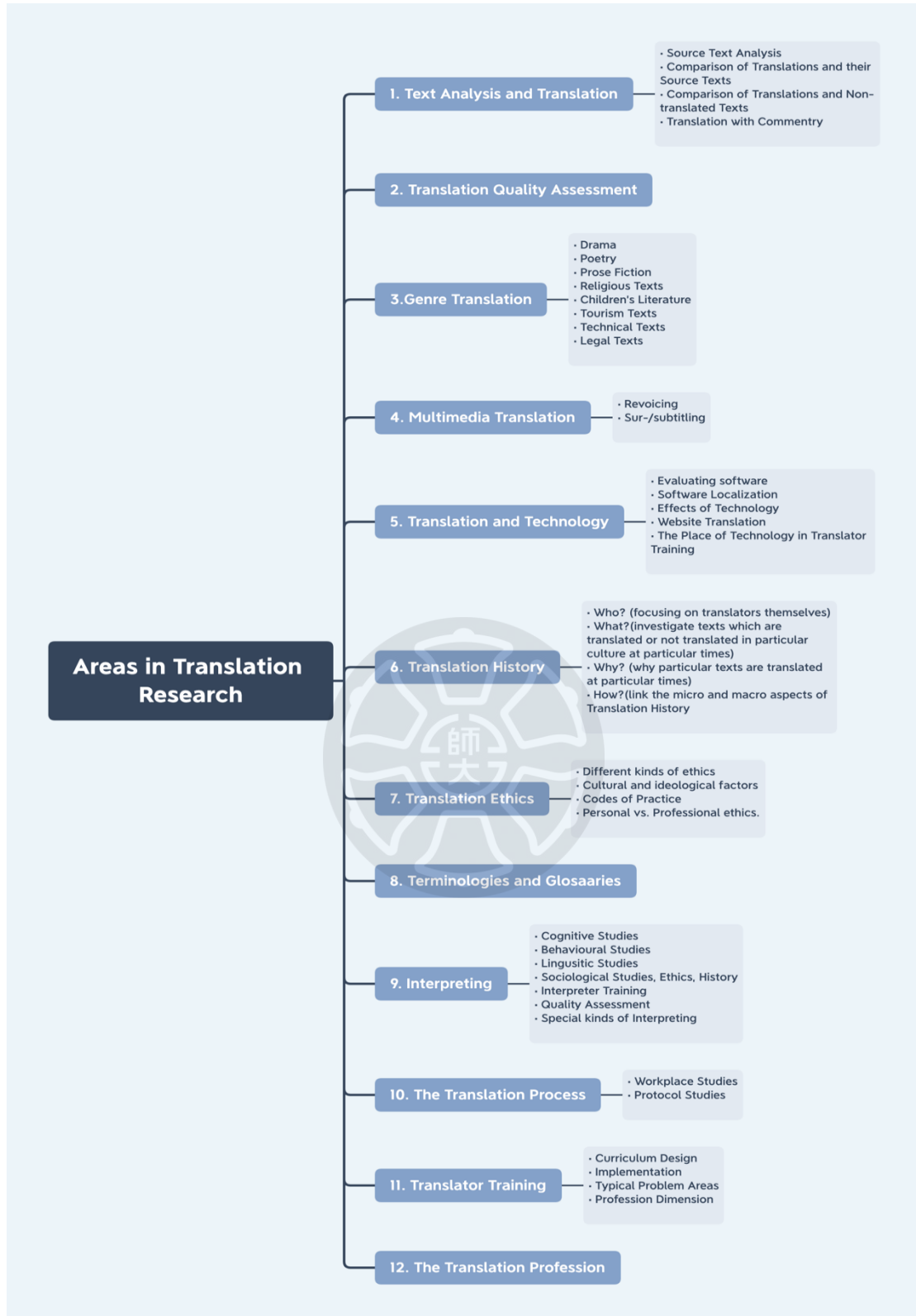


Figure 1. Areas in Translation Research.

Source: Compiled from Williams and Chesterman's (2002) Research Areas in Translation Studies (pp. 6-27).

3.3 Data Collection and Analysis

The articles published in *Translation Today* and *Compilation and Translation Review* were downloaded from their websites as they were available for open access. The journal *Studies of Translation and Interpretation* was downloaded from the Airiti library online. A total of 125 articles from Taiwanese journals and 132 articles published in Indian journals were analyzed. It is to be noted that the interviews, talks, and book reviews were not included in this study. The articles published in *Translation Today* in 2011, 2012, and 2013 were not available for download. Therefore, an email was sent to the editor of the journal Mr. Tariq Khan requesting him an explanation for the unavailability of the articles. He stated in his response that due to some organizational changes and other related constraints, the journal was not published in 2011, 2012 and 2013. Table 2 below shows the number of articles published in the three journals from 2010 and 2019

Table 2 *Total Number of Articles*

Year	Taiwan (Compilation and Translation Review + Studies of Translation and Interpretation)	India (Translation Today)
2010	11	11
2011	9	0
2012	14	0
2013	9	0
2014	11	24
2015	10	22
2016	9	19
2017	9	15
2018	9+16	12
2019	11+7	29
Total	125	132

To determine whether there was a significant difference between the total number of articles published in both Indian and Taiwanese journals, a Chi-square test was

conducted. The results showed that no significant difference was observed ($p>.05$). See Table 3 and Table 4.

Table 3 *Comparison Between the Frequencies of Indian and Taiwanese Journal Articles*

Total Number of Articles			
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Taiwan	125	128.5	-3.5
India	132	128.5	3.5
Total	257		

Table 4 *Chi-Square Test Results for 'Total Number of Articles'*

Test Statistics	
	Total Number of Articles
Chi-Square	.191 ^a
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.662

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 128.5.

The articles were then categorized into Williams and Chesterman's twelve areas of research based on their content. During the categorization, the articles that were not directly related to translation or did not fit into any of the twelve categories were assigned a separate 13th category. The same procedure was carried out for both Indian and Taiwan journals.

After finding the frequencies of articles belonging to each of the Williams and Chesterman's (2002) twelve main branches in Translation Studies, the difference between the frequencies of the twelve areas was statistically tested. This was performed

by conducting Chi-square tests using SPSS. The Chi-Square test was carried out among frequencies of each research area in both Indian and Taiwanese journals to test if the differences were statistically significant ($p < .05$). Each research question was separately addressed too.

3.3.1 Chi-Square Test

Empirical research often involves testing hypotheses to determine whether the value of one variable is related to another variable. The Chi-square test was developed by Karl Pearson in 1900 to test goodness-of-fit for frequency curves. Then, in 1904, he extended its use to contingency tables to test for independence between rows and columns (Stigler, as cited in Franke et al., 2011, p. 449). The most frequently used Chi-square tests are the goodness-of-fit, the test of homogeneity, and the test of independence. The goodness-of-fit test is used to determine similarities between groups of categorical data, the test of homogeneity is used to analyze if there lies a similarity between different populations with respect to different characteristics, and the test of independence is used to find if two nominal or categorical variables are related or not.

Table 5 presents a summary of three Chi-square tests.

Table 5 *Summary of Chi-Square Tests*

Type	Aim	Hypotheses	Statistics df H_0 acceptance rule
Goodness-of-fit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - One sample. - Compares the expected and observed values to determine how well the experimenter's predictions fit the data. 	<p>H_0: The observed values are equal to theoretical values (expected). (The data followed the assumed distribution).</p> <p>H_a: The observed values are not equal to theoretical values (expected). (The data did not follow the assumed distribution).</p>	$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^r \sum_{j=1}^c \frac{(O_{i,j} - E_{i,j})^2}{E_{i,j}}$ <p>df = (k - 1)</p> $\chi^2 \leq \chi^2_{1-\alpha}$
Homogeneity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Two different populations (or sub-groups). - Applied to one categorical variable. 	<p>H_0: Investigated populations are homogenous.</p> <p>H_a: Investigated populations are not homogenous.</p>	$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^r \sum_{j=1}^c \frac{(O_{i,j} - E_{i,j})^2}{E_{i,j}}$ <p>df = (r - 1)(c - 1)</p> $\chi^2 \leq \chi^2_{1-\alpha}$
Independence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - One population. - Type of variables: nominal, dichotomical, ordinal or grouped interval - Each population is at least 10 times as large as its respective sample [21] 	<p>Research hypothesis: The two variables are dependent (or related).</p> <p>H_0: There is no association between two variables. (The two variables are independent).</p> <p>H_a: There is an association between two variables.</p>	$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^r \sum_{j=1}^c \frac{(O_{i,j} - E_{i,j})^2}{E_{i,j}}$ <p>df = (r - 1) × (c - 1)</p> $\chi^2 \leq \chi^2_{1-\alpha}$

Source: Bolboacă et al., 2011

In this study, data analysis and hypothesis testing were performed using the Chi-square goodness-of-fit test. The goodness-of-fit test determines if the observed value of a phenomenon is significantly different from the expected value. It is not always possible to tell merely by looking at the numbers if the observed and expected frequencies are different enough to be deemed statistically significant. Therefore, the goodness-of-fit test was used to objectively compare the observed and expected frequencies between Indian and Taiwanese journal articles. The equation for the Chi-square goodness-of-fit test is:

$$\chi^2 = \sum (O - E)^2 / E$$

Where, O = the frequencies observed

E= the frequencies expected

Σ = the sum of

3.3.2 Classification of Research Methods used in Indian and Taiwanese Translation Journals

Apart from categorizing the articles into Williams and Chesterman's research areas and using Chi-square tests to determine if the differences were statistically significant, the various research methods used in the Indian and Taiwanese journal articles were also analyzed in this study. To classify various research methods used in translation studies, this study took inspiration from Williams and Chesterman's (2002) classification of research methods as well as Liao's (廖柏森, 2007) classification and description of research methods in interpretation studies. Research methods, as distinguished by Williams and Chesterman (2002), can be broadly divided into conceptual and empirical research. Conceptual, as the name suggests, is used to define

and clarify concepts. In contrast, empirical research aims to seek new data, new information derived from observation of data, and experimental work (Williams & Chesterman, 2002, p. 58). Liao (廖柏森, 2007), in his study of interpretation research publications in Taiwan, broadly categorized the various research methods in interpretation studies into qualitative and quantitative. He further classified quantitative research into survey and experiment, and qualitative research into conceptual, interview, case study, observation, and discourse analysis.

Liao's (廖柏森, 2007) classification, however, was explicitly about the research methods used in interpreting. Since this thesis discusses Translation Studies, which includes translation as well as interpretation, a new classification was done to include the research methods used in both translation and interpretation. Moreover, Liao's (廖柏森, 2007) study was published more than a decade ago. Translation studies in the last ten years has changed so much. The use of technologies such as keystroke logging and eye-tracking in this field has become more frequent than ever. Also, the use of mixed methods, which refers to the combined use of qualitative and quantitative research methods in a single study, has gained popularity in the field of translation studies in these years. In light of this, it was felt that there is a need to come up with a new classification combining both old and new research methods used in translation studies. The research methods were first classified into conceptual, empirical, and others. The 'others' category included unclear research methods, which was a separate category for the articles that either did not have a research method or the research method used was too vague to be categorized. The empirical research method was further classified into Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed.

Figure 2 below shows the classification of research methods. This classification was used to categorize the journal articles based on the type of research methods they used.

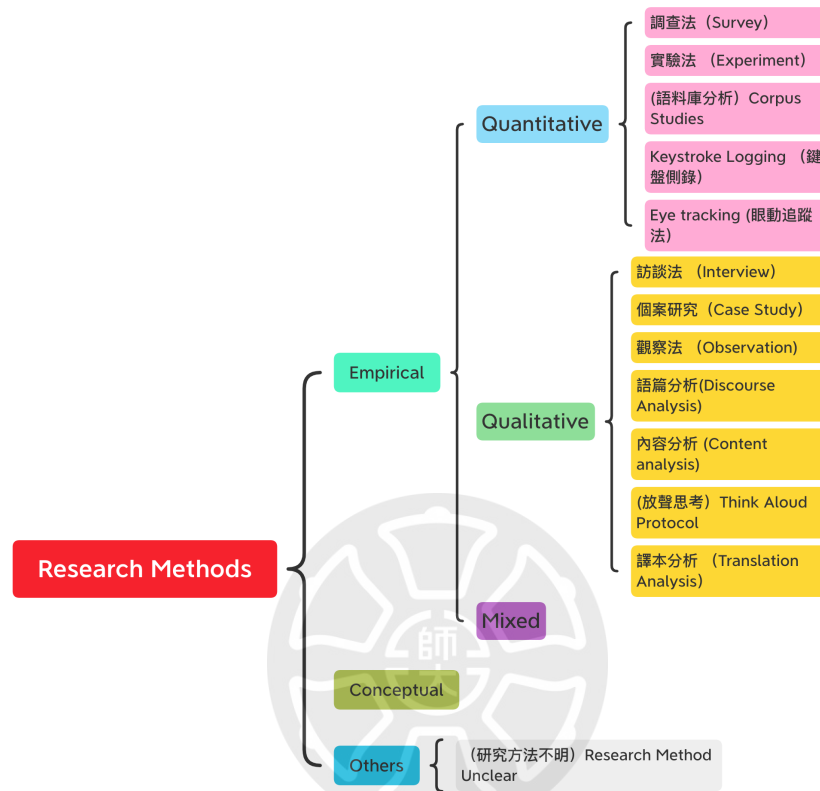


Figure 2. Research Methods in Translation Studies.

3.3.2.1 Qualitative research

Qualitative research seeks to gain a deeper understanding of a given research problem or topic from the perspectives of the local population it involves. It is unique in its ability to provide complex textual descriptions of how people feel in relation to a given research. Qualitative research offers insight to the ‘human’ side of an issue such as contradictory behaviors, beliefs, opinions, emotions, and relationships of individuals (Mack et al., 2005, p.1-2). In this type of research, a phenomenon is more than the sum of its parts; therefore, the objective is not to simply generalize data to the population

but to explore individuals' experiences (Vishnevsky & Beanlands, as cited in Ryan et al., 2007). The various types of qualitative research used in translation studies are:

- **Interview:** Interviews have been widely used as a data collection method in conducting field studies and ethnographic research. While interviews offer researchers an opportunity to learn about the world of others, the real understanding may sometimes be elusive. Saldanha and O'Brien (2013) argue that interviews have more frequently been used in the interpreting research than they have in translation. In interpreting research, interviews are used both to elicit data as well as to provide material for analysis, particularly in the public service domain. Interviews can broadly be divided into structured, unstructured, and semi-structured. Structured interviews involve asking pre-determined questions with only a limited number of response categories. Unstructured interviews are informal interviews in which the interviewers do not know in advance all the necessary questions. The questions are mostly open-ended, and the interview is more like an informal conversation. Semi-structured interviews involve prepared questions based on identified themes in an organized and systematic manner. An interview guide incorporating a number of broad themes to be covered during the interview helps direct the conversation to the topics and issues that interviewers are interested in learning about (Qu & Dumay, 2011). Although interviews provide access to understanding people's actions and putting behavior in context (Seidman 2006), they are time-consuming for researchers as well as participants. One of the most significant challenges of using interviews is to recruit participants who are approachable and willing to spend the time to participate in the study (Saldanha & O'Brien, 2013). Despite the

drawbacks, when conducted with care, a well-planned interview can provide a rich set of data (Qu & Dumay, 2011).

● **Case Study:** A case study is a research approach in which one or a few instances are examined in depth. Typically, case studies examine one or few instances, phenomena, or units of analysis but are not limited to one observation (Blatter, 2008, p. 68). Susam-Sarajeva (2009) argues that ‘case’ in translation studies is “a unit of translation or interpretation related activity, product, person, etc. in real life which can only be studied or understood in the context in which it is embedded” (Susam-Sarajeva, 2009, p. 40). Any translated text, author, translator or interpreter, translation institution or source/receiver system can qualify as a case. Although case study is one of the most common methods used by researchers, it tends to be a bit vague as a research method. Researchers, students, etc. (especially those who are inexperienced), overlook the importance of defining an object in their research and only focus on the subject (case). The object here refers to analytical framework within which the case can be analyzed and illustrated. A subject-only approach limits the scope of description and interpretation, and the researcher gets only a simplified description of a research piece (Thomas, as cited in Starman, 2013). The pitfalls of case studies, however, can be avoided by choosing the right research design and clearly defining the boundaries of the research.

● **Observation:** Observation is one of the most common qualitative research methods. For most of us, observation is a part of our daily social life; we tend to observe the behaviors of those around us. Watching, evaluating, drawing

conclusions, and commenting on interactions and relations is what we often do (Ciesielska et al., 2018). Baker (2006) argues that the definition of observation is difficult to find in the literature. However, the one thing that is common within all the definitions of observation is “the need to study and understand people within their natural environment” (Baker, 2006, p. 173). Observation can broadly be divided into participant and non-Participant observation. In participant observation, researchers immerse themselves in the environments of their subjects for a prolonged period of time. Immersion allows researchers to observe the daily activities of the people, their formal and informal interactions, habits, and so on (Brancati, 2018). Non-participant observation, on the other hand, is completely different. In the non-participant observation, the researcher observes “without any involvement or human interaction in the field (Ciesielska et al., 2018, p. 40). The subject and the observer here do not engage in any kind of conversation or interaction. Saldanha and O’Brien (2013) argue that observation is a rather overlooked tool in translation studies, but it is worth paying attention to. Researchers can benefit from observing translators and interpreters at work, attending translation lectures and translation agency meetings.

- **Discourse Analysis:** Discourse analysis can be best described as a collection of methods aimed at studying the use and role of language in society. The term *discourse* carries various historical traditions that influence the definition employed and the type of research conducted (Potter 2008, p. 216). Since the 1970s, discourse analysis gained popularity in applied linguistics and its application in translation studies became popular in the 1990s (Kim & Matthiessen, 2017). The question that often comes to our mind when we

discuss discourse analysis is, “what exactly is discourse analysis and how does it differ from text analysis? Munday and Zhang (2017) cite Paltridge’s (2012) definition of ‘discourse analysis,’ which says: "Discourse analysis examines patterns of the language across texts and considers the relationship between language and the social and cultural context in which it is used. Discourse analysis also examines how the use of language exposes different ways of seeing and comprehending the world and different understandings. It analyzes how differences in interpersonal relationships affect language use, and how language use impacts social identities and relations. It also considers how views of the world, and identities, are constructed through the use of discourse (p.1). “Discourse analysis, unlike the text analysis is not only about ‘what is above the sentence,’ it is rather a method that studies a discourse in its context of culture, context of situation, its structure and individual constituents” (Munday & Zhang, 2017, p. 1-3). Therefore, we can say that discourse analysis is a comprehensive approach to text analysis that takes cultural factors, contexts, structures, and individual contributors into account (Khezrlou et al., as cited in Kurosh & Kuhi, 2020).

- **Content Analysis:** Qualitative content analysis is one of the many methods used to analyze textual data. The textual data may be in oral, written, or electronic formats which might have been collected from narrative responses, open-ended questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, observations, or print media such as articles, books, or manuals (Kondracki & Wellman, as cited in Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Julien (2008) defines content analysis as “the intellectual process of categorizing qualitative textual data into clusters of similar entities, or conceptual categories, to identify consistent patterns and

relationships between variables and themes” (p. 120). Content analysis has been frequently used in translation studies to determine the research trends and development. For example, Liao (廖柏森, 2007), in his research on interpretation in Taiwan, used the method of content analysis to determine the development of interpretation research in Taiwan. Content analysis is a useful tool for analyzing longitudinal data to demonstrate change over time. The method is non-intrusive as it is applied to already collected data or existing texts (Julien, 2008).

- **Think Aloud Protocol:** The use of think-aloud methods can provide rich verbal information during a problem-solving task. In think aloud and protocol analysis, researchers can identify the information that is emphasized during problem-solving and how this information facilitates problem-solving (Fonteyn et al., 1993). Van Someren et al. (1994) argue that the think-aloud method has its roots in psychological research and has evolved from the method of introspection. Introspection lies on the assumption that one can observe events occurring in consciousness in a similar way to observing events outside of it. In think- aloud experiments applied to the translation process, translators are asked to speak everything that occurs in their minds while translating a text. The whole process is tape-recorded or videotaped and further transcribed into think-aloud protocols and later analyzed from a variety of perspectives (Kusmaul & Tirkkonen-Condit, 1995).
- **Translation analysis:** Translation analysis involves the analysis of two or more translations of the same source text. When the source text is translated more than once in the same target language, it is called retranslation

(Chesterman, 2000). Retranslation of a book is typically done by a different translator at a different time, and there may be a gap of a few years to hundred years between translation and retranslation (Feng, 2014). Sometimes when the source text is long and extensive, only certain chapters or sections are chosen for the analysis.

3.3.2.2 *Quantitative research methods*

Quantitative research deals with numerical data. Bacon-Shone (2013) classifies three levels of quantitative analysis: descriptive, explanatory and predictive. At the descriptive level, it is the simple statistics that relate the description of a sample to the description of the population. At the explanatory level, researchers seek answers to why things happen the way do, how reliable is their understanding of those events, or are there any alternative explanations? At the predictive level, predictions for future outcomes are made. There are many advantages of using the quantitative research approach. The most significant advantage is that through the quantitative research approach, interaction made with one group can be generalized and can reflect the wider society in terms of samples, contents, and pattern. However, since the quantitative research approach is structured with predetermined variables, hypotheses and design, there is little room for imaginative and critical thinking (Denscombe, as cited in Eyisi, 2016). The various types of quantitative research used in translation studies are:

- **Survey:** Surveys provide a quantitative or numerical description of attitudes, trends, and opinions of a population-based on the study of samples of that population (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). An important feature of survey is their ability “to produce uniform distributions or cross-sections of the target population” (Gray et al., 2007). Surveys are often used as a synonym for

questionnaires; however, Saldanha and O'Brien (2013) argue that 'survey' refers to the study design, whereas 'questionnaire' is the instrument used in such a study. Questionnaires have been a popular research instrument in translation studies. They have been used to research various topics, including translation profession, technologies, or students' opinions about teaching and learning. Questionnaires are considered popular research instruments as they offer a convenient way to collect structured data on a large scale; however, they are not the best instruments for collecting explanatory data unless followed by in-depth interviews (Saldanha & O'Brien, 2013).

- **Experiment:** Experiment is something we keep doing in our day-to-day lives, experimenting with food, experimenting with new habits and so on. Gray et al. (2007) argue that controlling our surroundings in a systematic way and assessing the effects of these manipulations can be described as a scientific experiment. In experimental research, the researcher provides one group with a specific treatment while withholding it from another and then determine how both groups performed on an outcome (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p.50).
- **Corpus Studies:** In many areas of language studies, corpus-based research is becoming increasingly important. It was Baker's seminal article published in 1993 that set forth the research agenda for early Corpus-based Translation Studies (CTS) work (Kenny, 2009). According to Baker, the most relevant corpora used in translation research include parallel, comparable, and multilingual corpora. Parallel corpora consist of original texts and their translated versions and can be very insightful regarding translating

procedures and practices. Multilingual corpora refer to a set of two or more monolingual corpora in different languages, that can be used to explore the means used by different languages to express similar meanings. Comparable corpora include two separate collections of texts in the same language, one consisting of original texts and the other consisting of translations. This kind of corpora can ease the challenges involved in researching the nature of translation (Kenny, as cited in Shen, 2010). Many researchers revert to building their own translational corpora as there are not many readily available. Since manually building a corpus can be time consuming, the available software programs can be used to simplify the process. However, most translators still opt for simple, easy-to-use tools such as dictionaries, online databases, and search engines. Fantinuoli (2016) argues that none of the corpus querying tools have been specifically designed to meet translators' needs. Programs such as Wordsmith Tools, AntConc and TextSTAT were designed for linguistic researchers, lexicographers and so forth. Therefore, he suggests making corpus programs that are easy to use and are made specifically by keeping translators' needs in mind.

- **Keystroke logging:** Keystroke logging programs monitor the writing process on a computer. These programs are designed to log and time stamp keystroke activity to reconstruct and describe the text production process. (Leijten & Van Waes, 2013). Process studies in the field of translation, apart from involving a translator's actions, describing approaches, techniques, strategies, tracing regularities, may also involve recording the process itself, which can also be done by using methods such as keystroke logging (Karwacka, 2013). Saldanha and O'Brien (2013) argue that although other tools were available

for such kind of study, it is the development of the Translog tool by Jakobson (1999) that contributed greatly to the development of keystroke logging. Translog mainly collects quantitative data in translation studies. Keystroke logging, when used on its own can only infer hypotheses about translation processes. However, when combined with other data streams such as eye-tracking allows us to validate those inferences (Saldanha & O'Brien, 2013).

- **Eye-tracking:** Eye-tracking has become a popular way to study the cognitive processes involved in translation studies. Saldanha and O'Brien (2013) define it as the process of recording the point of gaze of a person and tracking their eye movements. Since eye trackers are not 100% accurate in capturing data, it is important for the researchers to use their own judgment to report the thresholds and filter the low-quality data (Saldanha & O'Brien, 2013).

3.3.2.3 *Mixed Methods*

Mixed methods research is becoming an increasingly popular approach. Mixed methods study incorporates both qualitative and quantitative methods to achieve results. The mixed methods research began in the middle of the 1980s and early views on the mixed methods relied on the belief that all types of methods had their strengths and weaknesses and combining both qualitative and quantitative data neutralized these weaknesses (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Both qualitative and quantitative data can be collected simultaneously. The researcher could also prefer to start with the qualitative phase followed by a quantitative phase or vice versa (Saldanha & O'Brien, 2013, p. 23).

Chapter 4 Findings and Discussion

In this study, articles from two Taiwanese journals and one Indian journal were analyzed. These journals are *Translation Studies* from India, *Compilation and Translation Review*, and *Studies of Translation and Interpretation* from Taiwan.

4.1 Research Categories

After selecting the journals, the articles were collected and categorized into Williams and Chesterman's (2002) twelve areas of research in translation studies. The articles that were not related to translation or did not fit into Williams and Chesterman's twelve categories were given a separate 13th category called 'others.' The frequency of articles in each research area is presented in Table 6. The analysis showed that in Taiwanese translation journals, the most frequent research areas were 'translation history,' 'text analysis and translation' and 'genre translation' with respective frequencies of 36, 22 and 14. In the Indian journal, the most frequent research areas were 'translation history,' 'genre translation' and 'translation ethics' with the observed frequencies of 35, 25, and 24, respectively. The least researched areas in Taiwanese journals were 'translation quality and assessment' and 'the translator profession.' In the Indian journal, 'interpreting,' 'translation quality assessment' and 'the translation process' were the least researched areas with an observed frequency of 0, meaning no Indian article discussed these research areas. The Indian translation journal had 15 articles categorized into the 'others' category, whereas Taiwanese journals had 6 articles placed into the 'others' category. These articles either did not specifically discuss translation/ interpretation or did not fit into Williams and Chesterman's (2002) categories.

Table 6 *Frequency of Articles in each Research Area*

Research Area	Taiwanese Articles	Indian Articles
Text Analysis and Translation	22	14
Translation Quality Assessment	1	0
Genre Translation	14	25
Multimedia Translation	3	3
Translation and Technology	5	2
Translation History	36	35
Translation Ethics	6	24
Terminology and Glossaries	4	7
Interpreting	12	0
The Translation Process	4	0
Translator Training	11	5
The Translator Profession	1	2
Others	6	15

For an easier understanding of the differences, the frequencies are presented in a bar graph too. See *Figure 3*.

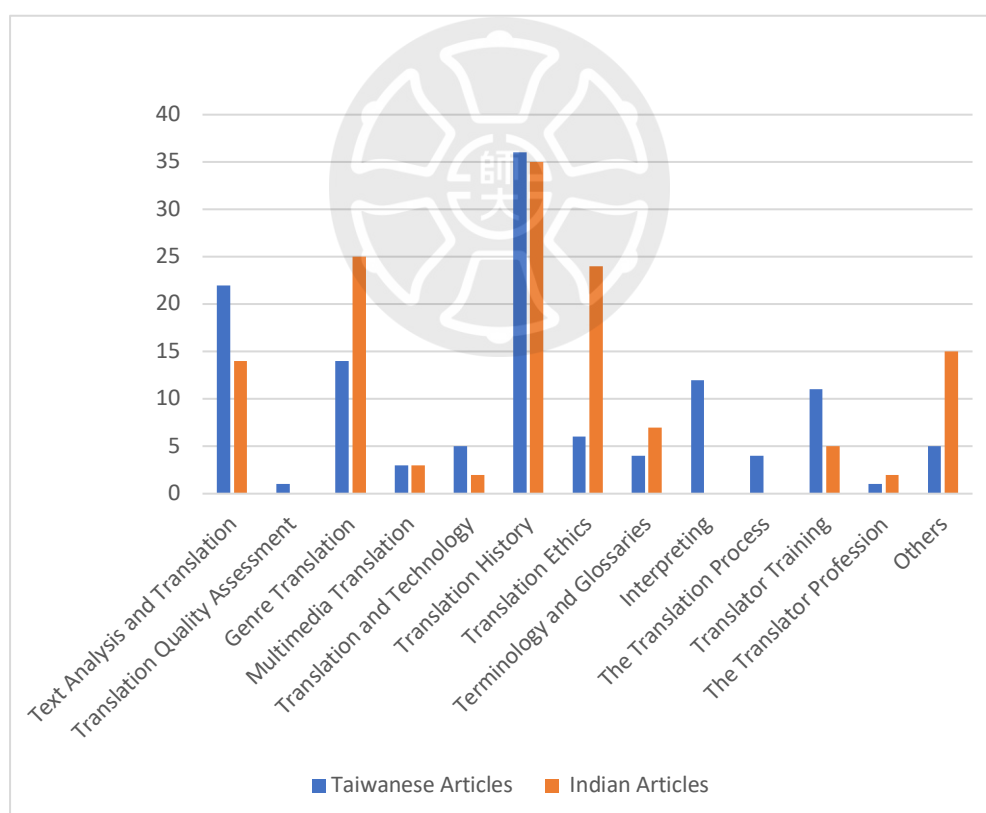


Figure 3. A Comparison Between the Frequencies Taiwanese and Indian Journal Articles: Williams and Chesterman (2002) Research Areas

To see whether the differences among the research areas in Indian and Taiwanese journals held any statistically significant differences, the Chi-square test was carried out among pairs of each research area for both Indian and Taiwanese journals. For conducting the Chi-square test, the first step was formulating the hypotheses. The null and alternative hypotheses formulated for this study are as follows:

H_0 : There is no significant difference between the frequencies of Indian and Taiwanese research articles.

H_1 : There is a significant difference between the frequencies of Indian and Taiwanese research articles.

Here, H_0 is the null hypothesis, and H_1 is the alternative hypothesis. The *p-value* was set at .05 level. Differences between the frequencies were considered significant if the *p-value* was less than .05. Differences between the frequencies were considered not significant if the *p-value* was greater than .05. The results of the Chi-square test for each research category are as follows:

4.1.1 Text Analysis and Translation

Based on the analysis, the frequencies of articles belonging to the 'text analysis and translation' area were observed to be 22 for Taiwanese and 14 for the Indian journal. Table 7 provides a comparison between the frequencies of articles categorized in the 'Text Analysis and Translation' research area.

Table 7 *A Comparison Between the Frequencies of Taiwanese and Indian Journal Articles: 'Text Analysis and Translation'*

Text Analysis and Translation

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
India	14	18.0	-4.0
Taiwan	22	18.0	4.0
Total	36		

To see whether the differences were of any statistical significance or not, a Chi-square test was conducted. Table 8 presents the results of this test.

Table 8 *Chi-Square Test Results for 'Text Analysis and Translation'*

Test Statistics

Text Analysis and Translation	
Chi-Square	1.778 ^a
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.182

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 18.0.

As the results of the test revealed, in the 'text Analysis and translation' research area, there was no statistically significant difference between the frequencies of Taiwanese and Indian articles, $X^2(1, N = 36) = 1.78, p = .18$. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

4.1.2 Translation Quality Assessment

The observed frequency of the articles belonging to the 'translation quality assessment' area was 1 for Taiwanese and 0 for the Indian translation journal. To perform a Chi-square test, the expected frequency should be at least five. The expected

frequency, in this case, was less than five; therefore, the Chi-square test could not be performed for this category.

4.1.3 Genre Translation

Concerning 'genre translation,' the frequencies of articles belonging to this research area were observed to be 14 for Taiwanese and 25 for the Indian journal. Table 9 provides a comparison between the frequencies of articles categorized in the 'genre translation' research area.

Table 9 *A Comparison Between the Frequencies of Taiwanese and Indian Journal Articles: 'Genre Translation'*

Genre Translation			
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Taiwan	14	19.5	-5.5
India	25	19.5	5.5
Total	39		

A chi-square test was performed to verify whether the differences were of any statistical significance or not. Table 10 presents the results of this test.

Table 10 *Chi-Square Test Results for 'Genre Translation'*

Test Statistics	
	Genre Translation
Chi-Square	3.103 ^a
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.078

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 19.5.

According to the test results, there were no statistically significant differences between the frequencies of Taiwanese and Indian articles in the 'genre translation'

research area, $X^2 (1, N = 39) = 3.10, p = .07$; therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

4.1.4 Multimedia Translation

The observed frequency of the articles belonging to the ‘multimedia translation’ area was 3 for Taiwanese and 3 for the Indian journal, which means the observed frequency was identical for both journals. Therefore, the Chi-square test could not be performed for this category.

4.1.5 Translation and Technology

As shown in the data, the observed frequency of the articles belonging to the ‘translation and technology’ area was 5 for Taiwanese and 2 for the Indian journal. Since the expected frequency was 3.5, which is lower than 5, the Chi-square test could not be performed.

4.1.6 Translation History

Table 11. shows the observed and expected frequency of articles in the ‘translation history’ research area. The observed frequency of the articles in this area was 36 for Taiwanese and 35 for the Indian journal.

Table 11 *A Comparison Between the Frequencies of Taiwanese and Indian Journal Articles: ‘Translation History.’*

Translation History			
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
India	35	35.5	-.5
Taiwan	36	35.5	.5
Total	71		

Based on the results of the Chi-square test showed in Table 12, there were no statistically significant differences between the frequencies of Taiwanese and Indian articles, $X^2(1, N = 71) = .01, p = .90$; therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 12 *Chi-Square Test Results for 'Translation History'*

Test Statistics	
	Translation History
Chi-Square	.014 ^a
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.906

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 35.5.

4.1.7 Translation Ethics

Concerning 'translation ethics,' the frequencies of articles belonging to this research area were observed to be 6 for Taiwanese and 24 for the Indian journal. Table 13 provides a comparison between the frequencies of articles categorized in the 'translation ethics' research area.

Table 13 *A Comparison Between the Frequencies of Taiwanese and Indian Journal Articles: 'Translation Ethics'*

Translation Ethics			
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Taiwan	6	15.0	-9.0
India	24	15.0	9.0
Total	30		

Based on the results of the Chi-square test showed in Table 14, there were statistically significant differences between the frequencies of Taiwanese and Indian journal articles, $X^2(1, N = 30) = 10.8, p = .001$; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 14 *Chi-Square Test Results for 'Translation Ethics'*

Test Statistics	
Translation Ethics	
Chi-Square	10.800^a
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.001

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 15.0.

The 'translation ethics' category discusses the issues that have been raised by cultural turns in translation studies. Translation studies experienced the 'linguistic turn' in the 1950s and the cultural turn in the 1980s. Up until the end of the 20th century, deconstruction, and cultural studies, which explored issues such as ethnicity, race, imperialisms, etc., had a more profound effect on the postcolonial translators and theorists. At the beginning of the 21st century, the postcolonial perspectives experienced a 'power turn' in translation studies examining the power relations between different cultures, particularly the strong and weak cultures in terms of political and cultural constraints (Liu, 2007).

The keywords in the 'translation ethics' category listed by Williams and Chesterman (2002) are power, emancipation, gender, post-colonialism, nationalism, hegemony, minority, cultural identity, the translator's visibility. India has an abundance of research on these topics. If we look at the research on postcolonial translation, India has some of the most influential theorists of postcolonial cultures, Homi Bhabha, Gayatri Spivak, Harish Trivedi, Tejaswini Niranjana, to name a few. In general, postcolonialism has been heavily influenced by the legacy of the British colonization, and India was a British colony for almost 200 years. If we compare the colonial history of India and Taiwan, both have distinctly different histories of colonization. India was

only colonized by the British; however, Taiwan had a series of six different colonial rulers: the Dutch, the Spanish, the Cheng family, the Manchus, the Japanese, and the Chinese Nationalists (KMT). The Dutch and the Spanish ruled Taiwan for less than fifty years, and after they left the island, their language also disappeared. When we speak of postcolonialism in Taiwan, different groups of people have different viewpoints on when Taiwan entered the postcolonial phase. For example, the ‘first generation’ mainland Chinese, who came with the KMT government and their descendants, would consider 1945 as the year of decolonization and postcolonialism, but for the local Taiwanese, postcolonialism began in 1987, the year when the martial law was lifted. Therefore, “the dominant postcolonial theory can only partially describe what constitutes the postcolonial condition in Taiwan” as the effects were very different from those of European colonialism (Liao, 1999, p. 199-210). Therefore, more research can be done on formulating a postcolonial theory that will do justice to Taiwan’s unique history.

4.1.8 Terminology and Glossaries

As the data shows, the observed frequencies of articles belonging to the ‘terminology and glossaries’ area were 4 for Taiwanese and 7 for the Indian journal. Table 15. shows the observed and expected frequency of articles in the ‘Terminology and Glossaries’ research area.

Table 15 *A Comparison Between the Frequencies of Taiwanese and Indian Journal Articles: 'Terminology and Glossaries'*

Terminology and Glossaries			
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Taiwan	4	5.5	-1.5
India	7	5.5	1.5
Total	11		

As the results of the test revealed, in the 'terminology and glossaries' research area, there were no statistically significant differences among the frequencies of Taiwanese and Indian articles, $\chi^2(1, N = 11) = .81, p = .36$; therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected. The results are presented in Table 16.

Table 16 *Chi-Square Test Results for 'Terminology and Glossaries'*

Test Statistics	
Terminology and Glossaries	
Chi-Square	.818 ^a
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.366

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 5.5.

4.1.9 Interpreting

According to the data, the observed frequencies of articles belonging to this area were 12 for Taiwanese and 0 for the Indian Journal. Therefore, the Chi-square test could not be performed for this category. The difference between the frequencies was, however, considered statistically significant due to the huge gap between the number of articles in Indian and Taiwanese translation journals. Translators and Interpreters are different, not only in terms of the work they do but also in terms of the core skills required. A translator requires excellent writing skills, whereas an interpreter possesses

excellent listening skills along with a good memory. In Translation and Interpretation programs provided by Taiwanese universities, translation and interpretation are two different tracks. Equal emphasis is placed on research and practice in both tracks. In India, however, both translation and interpretation are taught as a part of the coursework in either foreign or Indian language programs or linguistics. The activity of translation has a long-standing tradition and has been widely practiced in India; therefore, finding literature on translation is easy. However, there is not sufficient literature on interpreting. Interestingly, interpreting jobs are everywhere in India, but there is not enough research on interpreting studies in India. Therefore, further research is needed to gain a better understanding of trends and development in this area.

4.1.10 The Translation Process

Based on the data, the observed frequencies of articles belonging to ‘the translation process’ area were 4 for Taiwanese and 0 for Indian Journal. Therefore, the Chi-square test could not be performed for this category.

4.1.11 Translator Training

Concerning ‘translator training,’ the frequencies of articles belonging to this research area were observed to be 11 for Taiwanese and 5 for the Indian journal. Table 17 provides a comparison between the frequencies of articles categorized in the ‘translator training’ research area.


Table 17 *A Comparison Between the Frequencies of Taiwanese and Indian Journal Articles: 'Translator Training'*

Translation Training			
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
India	5	8.0	-3.0
Taiwan	11	8.0	3.0
Total	16		

Based on the results of the Chi-square test showed in

Table 18, there were no statistically significant differences among the frequencies of Taiwanese and Indian articles, $X^2(1, N = 16) = 2.25, p = .13$; therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 18 *Chi-square test results for 'Translator Training'*



Test Statistics	
Translator Training	
Chi-Square	2.250 ^a
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.134

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 8.0.

4.1.12 The Translation Profession

According to the data, the observed frequencies of articles belonging to the 'translation profession' area were 1 for Taiwanese and 2 for Indian Journal. The expected frequency was 1.5, which is lower than 5; therefore, the Chi-square test could not be performed.

4.1.13 Others

Concerning the ‘others’ area, the frequencies of articles belonging to this research area were observed to be 6 for Taiwanese and 15 for the Indian journal. Table 19 provides a comparison between the frequencies of articles categorized in the 'others' research area.

Table 19 A Comparison Between the Frequencies of Taiwanese and Indian Journal Articles: ‘Terminology and Glossaries’

Others			
	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Taiwan	6	10.5	-4.5
India	15	10.5	4.5
Total	21		

As the results of the test revealed, in the ‘others’ research area, there were no statistically significant differences among the frequencies of Taiwanese and Indian articles, $X^2(1, N = 11) = 3.85, p = .05$; therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected. The results are presented in Table 20.

Table 20 Chi-Square Test Results for ‘Others’

Test Statistics	
	Others
Chi-Square	3.857 ^a
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.050

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 10.5.

4.2 Research Methods

Apart from the research categories, the research methods used in Indian and Taiwanese journals were also analyzed in this study. The analysis showed that in both Indian and Taiwanese journals, qualitative research methods such as ‘case study,’ and ‘discourse analysis’ were used more frequently than quantitative methods like ‘survey’ and ‘experiment.’ It is notable that despite methods such as ‘think-aloud protocol,’ ‘keystroke logging,’ and ‘eye-tracking’ becoming increasingly popular in translation studies, not one article in either Indian or Taiwanese journals employed these methods. Table 21 presents the frequencies of the articles belonging to each research method for both Indian and Taiwanese journals.

Table 21 *Research Methods Used in Taiwanese and Indian Journals*

Research Methods	Taiwan	India
Conceptual	18	42
Survey	6	3
Experiment	4	0
Corpus	16	5
Interview	5	0
Case study	22	42
Observation	2	0
Discourse Analysis	28	33
Content Analysis	5	0
Translation Analysis	9	3
Think Aloud Protocol	0	0
Mixed Method	8	2
Keystroke Logging	0	0
Eye-tracking	0	0
Research Methods Unclear	2	2

The results have been graphically represented in *Figure 4*

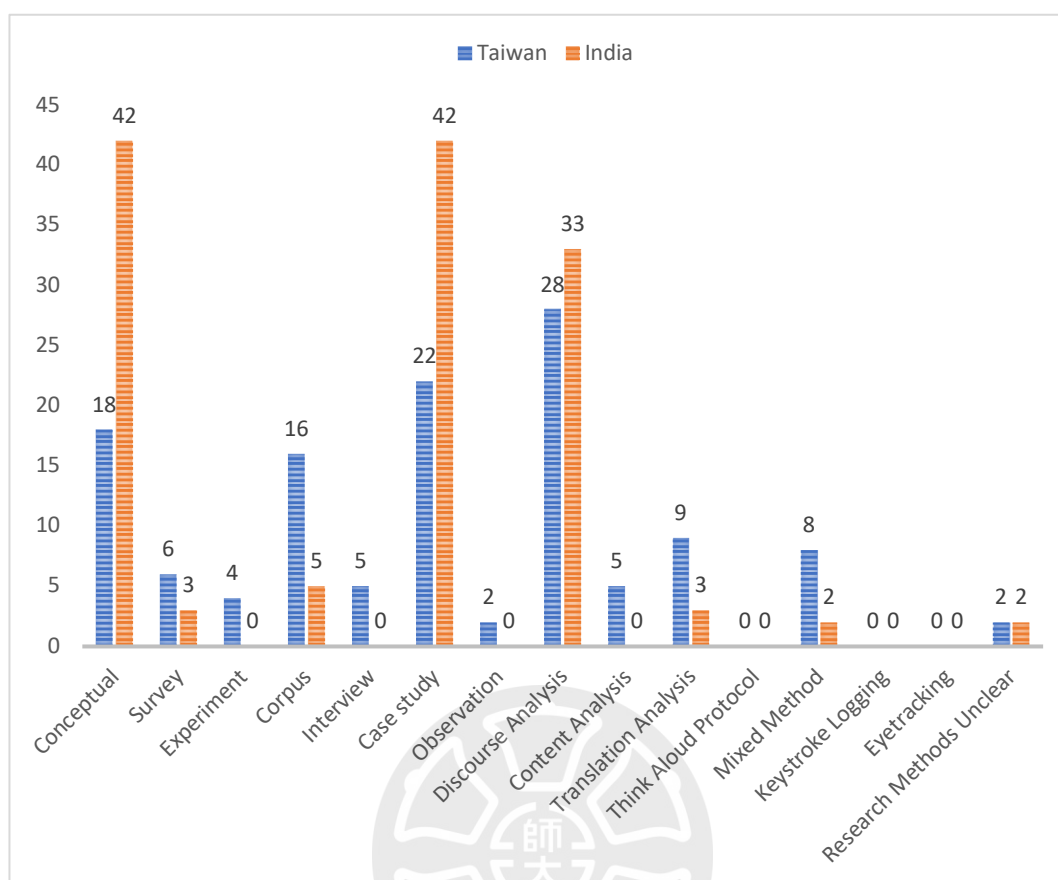


Figure 4. Research methods used in Indian and Taiwanese translation journals

In the above analysis, the biggest challenge was determining the research method used in articles discussing literary works. The articles of this kind discussed various aspects of translation including historical, social, institutional, and cultural aspects. The topics ranged from analysis of texts to the life of an author to translation theories and how they are applied. There was no precise description of the research method used to determine the results in most of these articles.

In contrast, the articles that used the empirical research methods were much easier to categorize as they had a separate section explaining the research method used in the study. Two articles in the Indian translation journal and two in the Taiwanese translation journals lacked a clear description of research method. However, it is

important to note that out of the two Taiwanese articles, one was simply a summary of different sessions of a translation conference and therefore had no structured research method. To ensure the transparency and transferability in a piece of research, it is critical to describe the theoretical framework that guides the study and clarify the conceptual definitions of the concepts being examined (Müller-Staub, 2012). Therefore, research methods should be clearly specified to give readers an understanding of the researcher's overall approach to the study.

Another important observation of this study was that many articles casually claimed they employed a 'case study' research method. While case study is one of the most widely used research methods, there are some pitfalls to avoid. Starman (2013) argues that researchers/ students, while using this method only focus on the subject, which is the case and overlook the importance of defining the analytical framework within which the case can be analyzed and illustrated. If the researcher only focuses on the subject, the broader description and interpretation will get limited, and the researcher will only get a simplified description of the research piece (Thomas, as cited in Starman, 2013). In this study, it was found that although some researchers cited case study as their research method, they neither set a clear boundary nor defined or described the analytical framework within which the case was supposed to be studied and analyzed. A case study is characterized by its boundaries. Therefore, it is recommended that researchers clearly define the boundaries of their research when employing case studies.

4.3 Languages discussed in the articles: Taiwanese Translation Journals

In terms of language pairs discussed in the articles, my study revealed that the majority of the Taiwanese journal articles discussed translations between Chinese and English. The frequency of articles using the pair of Chinese and English was 66. A few articles also discussed some uncommon language pairs that are generally not covered in Taiwanese translation journals. For example, the combination of Chinese, Korean and Manchu or Chinese and Czech are rarely featured in Taiwanese translation journals. Table 22 presents the types of languages discussed in Taiwanese translation journals. The graphical representation of the results is presented in *Figure 5*.

Table 22 *Types of Languages Discussed in the Taiwanese Translation Journals*

Languages Discussed in the Articles	Frequency
Chinese English	66
Chinese English Japanese	3
Chinese English Japanese German	1
Chinese English Japanese Italian	1
Chinese English Vietnamese Indonesian	1
Chinese Korean Manchu	1
Chinese Spanish	1
Chinese French	5
Chinese German	1
Chinese Thai	1
Chinese Greek English	1
Chinese Czech	1
Chinese English Manchu	1
Chinese Japanese	9
English Spanish	1
Minnan Japanese	1

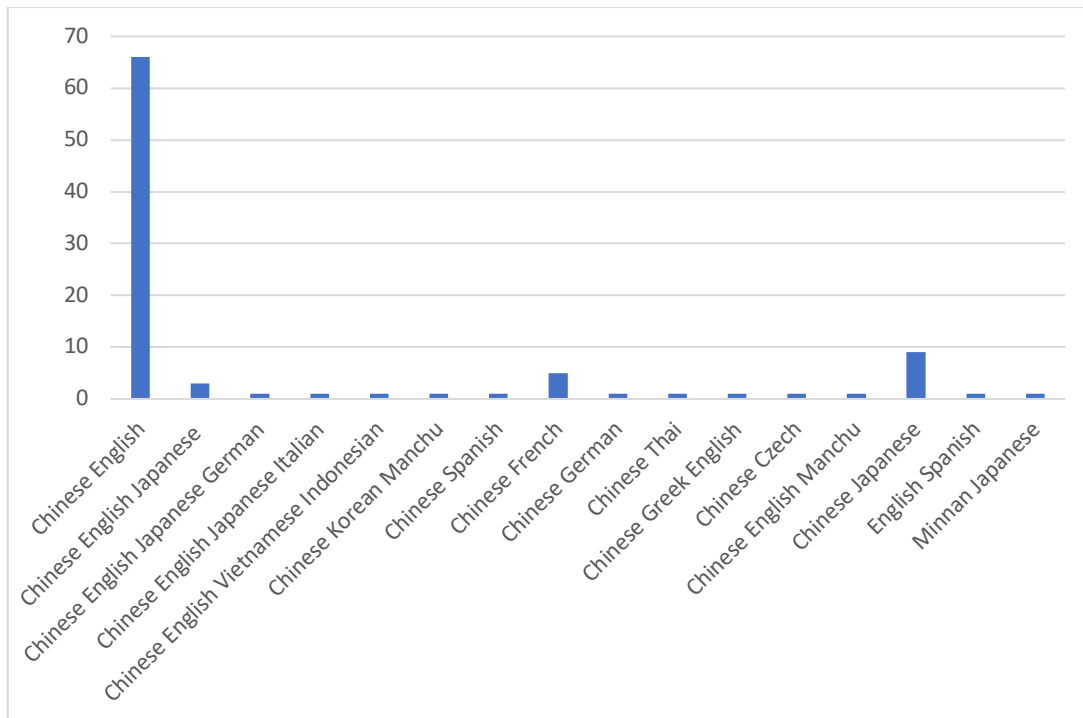


Figure 5 Graphical representation of types of languages discussed in Taiwanese translation journals

English is considered as lingua franca as it is the most widely spoken language in the world. Many multinational companies require a certain level of English proficiency from prospective employees. Taiwan has been experiencing the phenomena of ‘English Fever’ since the 1980s. Parents want their children to become proficient in English and that too with a perfect native accent. There are English ‘cram’ schools located on almost every block in Taipei, where the majority of the enrolled students are junior high and high school aged. Even the Taiwanese government is promoting English education by launching the “2030 Bilingual Nation” policy. The policy aims at making Taiwan bilingual by 2030, and the Ministry of Education (MOE) has already started working on hiring more overseas English teachers.

When we take a look at the number of foreign language students at the university level in Taiwan, out of the 66,285 students enrolled in the department of foreign languages in Taiwan in 2018, English alone accounted for 40,454 students, followed by Japanese (16,228), Spanish (2,283), German (2,264), French (2,171), Korean (500)

and others (2,385) Ministry of Education (教育部, 2019). The numbers are presented in *Figure 6*. Furthermore, Taiwanese universities offer translation and interpretation training mainly in Chinese and English. The fact that English is the most popular foreign language in Taiwan has also been reflected in the results of this study.

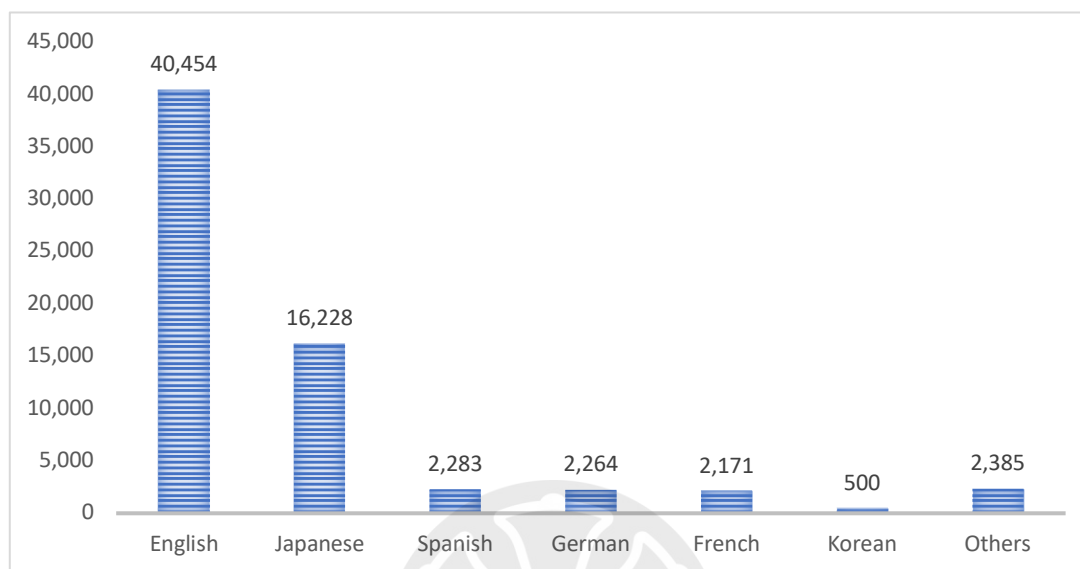


Figure 6. Number of students enrolled in each foreign language
Source: Ministry of Education Taiwan (教育部, 2019)

Aiming to make Taiwan a bilingual nation “to enhance Taiwan’s international competitiveness” (National Development Council, 2018) is not wrong. But this internationalization should not come at the expense of Taiwanese or indigenous languages. In this study, only one article was found to discuss the Minnan language. Languages such as Hakka or indigenous languages like Amis, Atayal, Bunun, Puyuma and others went unmentioned. Despite the fact that Minnan and Hakka are two of Taiwan’s most important languages, the younger generation in Taiwan is less inclined to learn and speak them. The indigenous or Formosan languages are already at risk of becoming extinct. UNESCO’s atlas of endangered languages lists the Taiwanese indigenous language Saisiyat as severely endangered, while Kanakanavu, Kavalan, Hla’alua, and Thao as critically endangered (Huang, 2016).

Although the Taiwanese government is already making efforts to promote and preserve Taiwan's indigenous languages, the objective could not be achieved without producing high-quality research in these languages. Research that can identify the gaps and can come up with recommendations on formulating concrete goals is instrumental in saving these languages. There are obvious challenges to researching these languages, which are compounded by the lack of bilingual speakers and reference materials such as grammars, thesaurus, and comprehensive dictionaries. However, to raise awareness about the importance of these languages and to preserve the rich heritage that is on the verge of extinction, more efforts should be made in this regard.

4.4 Languages discussed in the articles: Indian Translation Journal

The analysis of my research revealed that most of the Indian translation journal articles discussed English paired with either one or two Indian languages. Table 23. presents the results of the analysis. The pair of English and Malayalam had the highest number of articles. Malayalam is a south Indian language spoken primarily in Kerala. It is one of the 22 scheduled languages and is spoken by 2.88% of the total population. Taking the second spot was the pair of English and Bengali. Among foreign languages, German, Arabic, French, Persian, Tibetan, Catalan, Spanish paired with English or other Indian languages were discussed.

Indians place a great deal of emphasis on English. Like Taiwan, fluency in English offers students and job seekers in India a variety of opportunities. According to the All India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE) 2019, published by the Ministry of Human Resources, the total number of students enrolled in foreign languages was 194,702. With 188,250 students, English was the most popular language followed by other

foreign languages (6,452). However, the total number of students enrolled in Indian languages was 298,289, which was substantially higher compared to the number of students studying English or other foreign languages. The numbers are graphically represented in *Figure 7*.

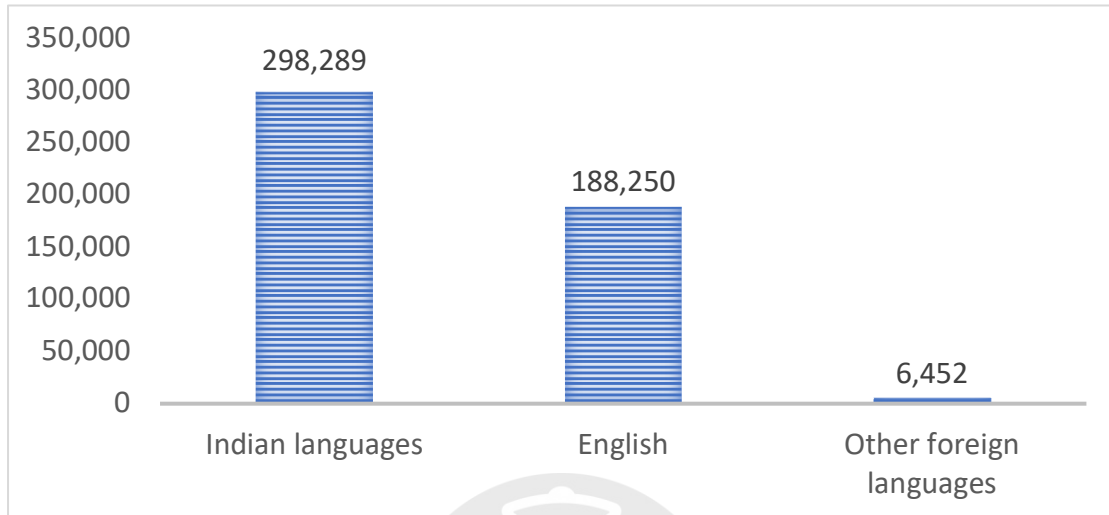


Figure 7. Total number of students enrolled in languages.

Source: Ministry of Human Resources India, 2019

These numbers suggest that compared to foreign languages, more students in India opted to study Indian languages at the university level. The results of this study also reflected this trend, with the majority of articles focusing on Indian languages. However, in most articles, Indian languages were paired with English, emphasizing yet again the importance of English in the Indian education system.

Table 23 *Types of Languages Discussed in the Indian Translation Journal*

Language Discussed in the Articles	Frequency
English Gujarati	1
English Sanskrit Bengali	1
English French Arabic Urdu	1
English Pali	1
English Telugu	4
English Hindi Bengali	1
English Tamil	2
English Odiya	1
English Malayalam	12
English Bengali	6
English Kannada	2
English Hindi	3
Bengali Sanskrit	1
English Marathi	2
English German	1
English Pahari	1
English Nepali	3
English Persian	2
English Urdu	4
English Arabic	1
English Oriya	1
English Bhojpuri	1
English French	1
English Maithili	1
English Hindi Latin	1
Hindi Urdu Japanese	1
Hindi German	1
Hindi Bengali	1
Sanskrit Marathi	1
European languages Malayalam	1
Sanskrit Malayalam	1
Bengali Assamese	1
Marathi Odia	1
Tibetan Spanish Catalan	1
Telugu Bengali	1
Sanskrit Oriya	1
French Tamil	2
Marathi Odia	1
Hindi Urdu	1

For a clearer picture, the results of the analysis are graphically represented in

Figure 8.

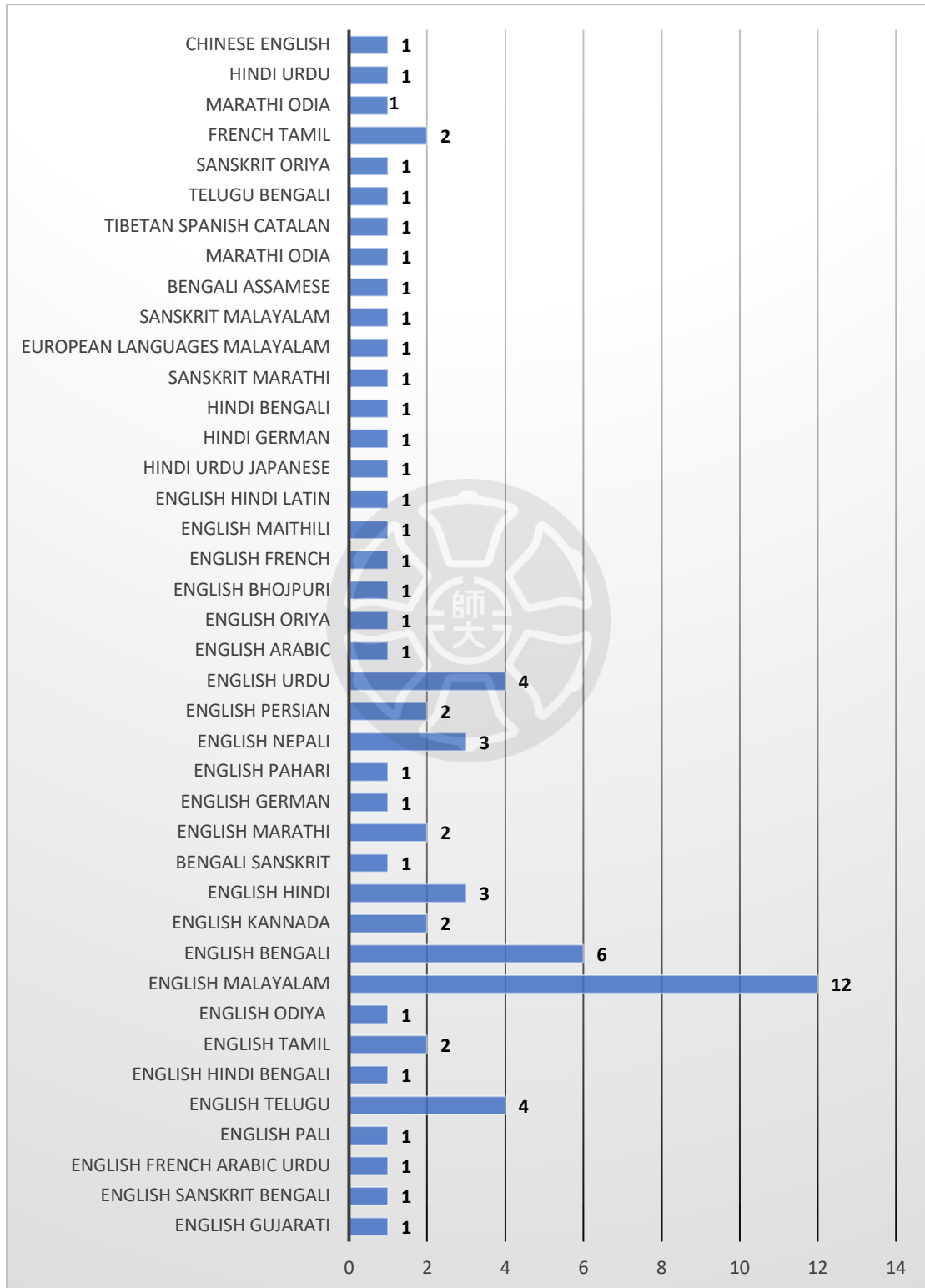


Figure 8. Graphical representation of types of languages discussed in the Indian translation journal.

4.5 The number of Male and Female Authors: Is there any Gender Gap?

Social scientists use the term ‘gender’ to represent all the socially imposed attributes, roles, activities, and responsibilities associated with being a woman or man in a specific society. People are viewed and expected to act differently based on their gender identity, which is a consequence of the way society is structured. Gender divisions of labor vary from society to society and culture to culture, and since most societies have gender power relations skewed in favor of men, tasks performed by men and women are ascribed different values (March et al., 1999). Gender inequality or gender gap remains an issue of major concern for India’s development paradigm. This inequality can be traced to historical, social, and cultural biases that see a son as an “asset” and a daughter as a “liability.” Singh (2017) argues that a large amount of literature on the gender gap indicates that it is one of the major obstacles to access to education.

Figure 9 shows the trend in literacy rate in India by sex. As per the 2011 census, the literacy rate for women was 65.46%, whereas it was 82.14% for men. Despite numerous attempts made by the government to reduce the gender gap and encourage women education and empowerment, the gap still exists in India. In the Global Gender Gap Index report 2021 published by the World Economic Forum, India ranked 140th among 156 countries. The report also stated that, although India has achieved parity in primary, secondary and tertiary education, the gender gap still persists in terms of literacy: one-third of women are illiterate (34.2%) compared to 17.6% of men (World Economic Forum, 2021).

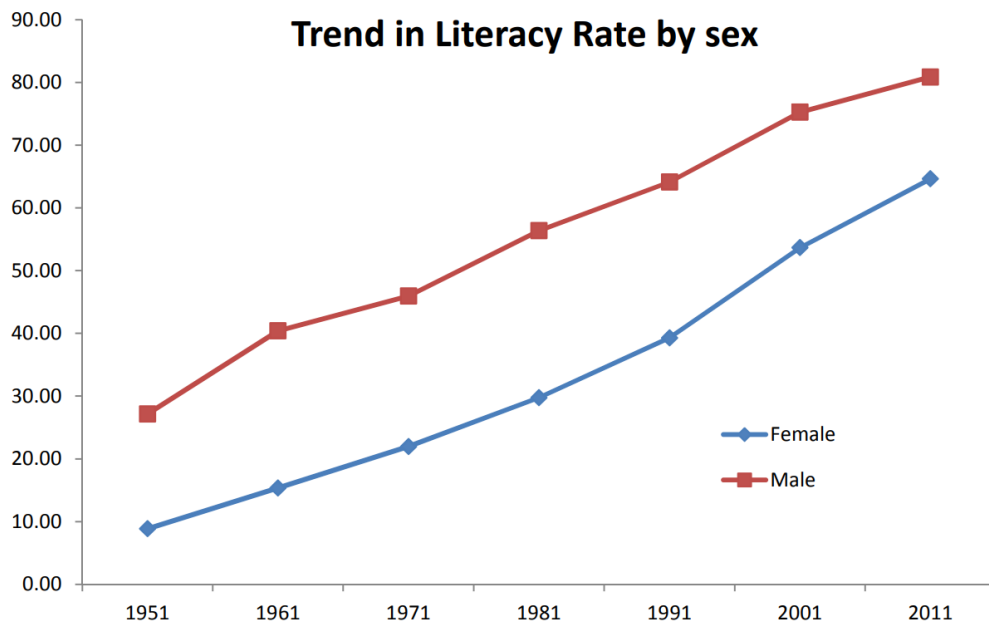


Figure 9. Trend in literacy rate by sex.

Source: Census of India, Office of Registrar General, India

Taiwan, on the other hand has continuously been doing a tremendous job in minimizing the gender gap. According to a self-assessment published by the Executive Yuan's Gender Equality Committee (GEC), Taiwan ranked 1st in Asia and 6th in the world. The rankings were calculated based on the Gender Inequality Index introduced by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) in 2010. The report, however, also indicated that the proportion of female graduates at master's and doctoral levels lagged behind other major industrialized countries. The number of female researchers in Taiwan accounted for 22.6% in 2018, which was less than other industrialized countries like the U.K. (38%), Finland (33.7%), Singapore (30.8%), and so on (Gender Equality Committee of the Executive Yuan, 2021). Therefore, there is room for improvement in this area.

In my study, the frequency of male and female authors in Indian and Taiwanese translation journals was calculated to determine if a gender gap existed in the field of translation studies. Foreign authors were not taken into account when calculating the frequency. *Figure 10* shows the number of male and female authors in the selected Indian and Taiwanese translation journals from 2010-2019. The analysis showed that Taiwanese journals had 18 more female authors than male authors, while the Indian journal had almost an equal number of male and female authors. Therefore, this study found no significant gender gap in the field of translation studies.

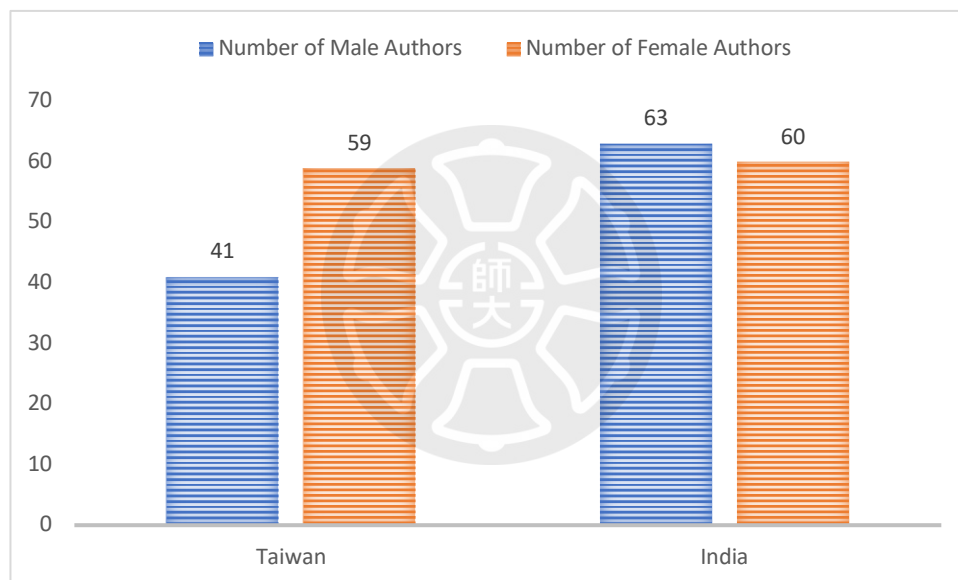


Figure 10. Number of male and female authors in the Taiwanese and Indian translation journals.

The lack of a significant gender gap in translation studies in India can be explained by looking at the proportion of males and females studying Arts and Humanities, which also includes languages. According to the All India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE) 2018-19 published by the Ministry of Human Resources and Development (MHRD) India, the ratio of male students was higher than female students in almost every level, except M.Phil., Postgraduate and Certificate. In most of the states, the

proportion of male students enrolled was relatively higher than that of female students.

Figure 11 shows the Male-Female ratio at each level.

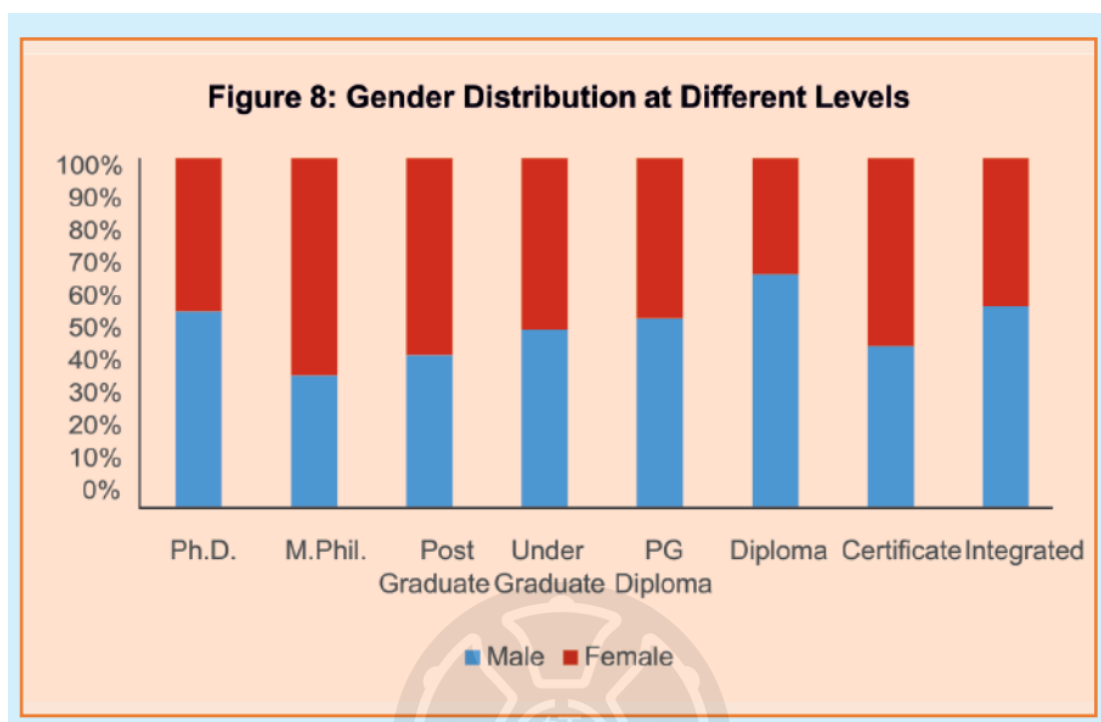


Figure 11. Gender distribution at different levels of education 2019

Source: Ministry of Human Resources, India

The highest number of students in India at the undergraduate level were enrolled in arts and humanities courses (35.9%), followed by Science (16.5%), Engineering and Technology (13.5%) and Commerce (14.1%). Interestingly, of the total number of students enrolled in arts and humanities, 53.03% were female. Out of the 3289 students enrolled in Ph.D. in English, 63% were female, and out of the 25 students enrolled in Ph.D. in French, 60% were female. At the postgraduate level, out of 188,250 students enrolled in the English language, 62.2% were female. Additionally, most the students in Indian languages, including Hindi, Sanskrit and Bengali were also female (Ministry of Human Resource Development, 2019). Unlike other disciplines, the number of women enrolled in arts and humanities in India is comparatively higher than that of

men, which may be the reason why any significant disparity between the number of male and female authors was not observed in the field of translation studies in India.

In Taiwan's case, there were 18 more female authors than male authors, which can also be explained by the proportion of male and female students enrolled in the Arts and Humanities field. According to the Gender Statistics published by the Gender Equality Committee of the Executive Yuan (2019), the number of females enrolled in arts and humanities departments in Taiwan was higher than that of males. *Figure 12* shows the gender distribution in arts and humanities in Taiwan. At the Ph.D. level, the number of females enrolled in arts and humanities discipline was 184, whereas the number of males was 172. The postgraduate level also had a significantly higher number of female students (3087) than the male students (1427). At the undergraduate level, the number of female students enrolled in arts and humanities was 25,395 whereas the number of male students was 11,552. Therefore, the higher number of female authors in Taiwanese translation journals is justified as the arts and humanities discipline is more popular among female graduates compared to males in Taiwan.

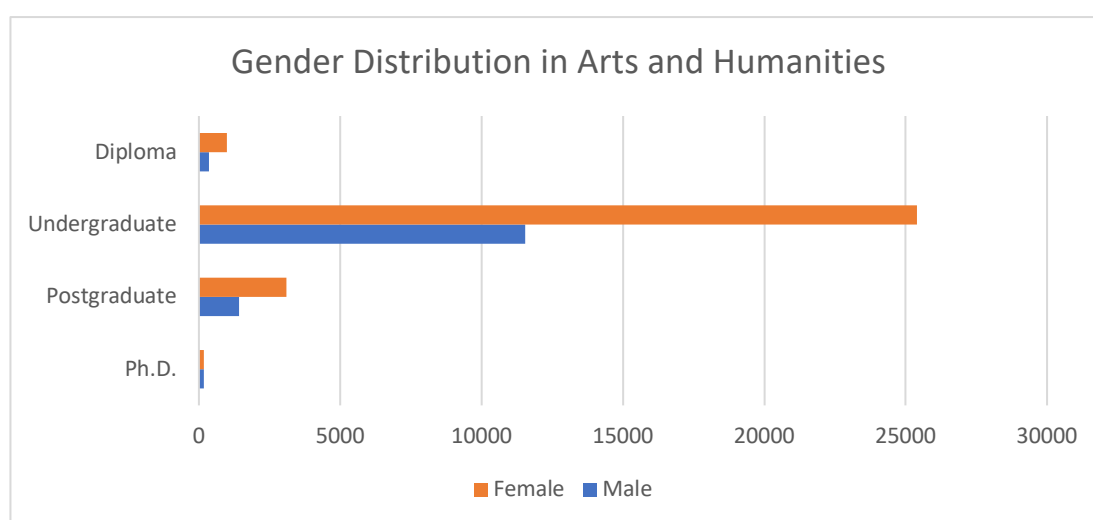


Figure 12. Gender distribution in Arts and Humanities in Taiwan
Source: Gender Equality Committee of the Executive Yuan, Taiwan

Chapter 5 Conclusions and Implications

The present study was aimed at finding the research trends in Translation Studies in India and Taiwan. The articles published between 2010 and 2019 in one Indian and two translation journals were categorized into Williams and Chesterman's (2002) research areas. Additionally, a number of Chi-square tests were conducted to determine whether differences between the frequencies of articles in Indian and Taiwanese translation journals were statistically significant.

5.1 Summary

The important observations of this study are summarized as follows:

- In Taiwanese translation journals, the most frequently researched areas were 'translation history,' 'text Analysis and translation' and 'genre translation,' whereas in the Indian translation journal, the most commonly researched areas were 'translation History,' 'genre translation' and 'translation ethics.'
- The least researched areas in Taiwanese translation journals were 'translation quality and assessment' and 'the translator profession.' In the Indian journal, the least researched areas were 'interpreting,' 'translation quality assessment' and 'the translation process.' Therefore, these are all areas that can be worked on in the future.
- The frequencies of the articles in the Indian and Taiwanese translation journals had statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) in the 'translation ethics,' and 'interpreting' research areas.

- In both Indian and Taiwanese journals, qualitative research methods such as ‘case study,’ and ‘discourse analysis’ were used more frequently than the quantitative methods like ‘survey’ and ‘experiment.’
- Despite methods such as keystroke logging and eye-tracking becoming increasingly popular in translation studies, they were not used at all in the journal articles of India and Taiwan published between 2010 and 2019. While these methods did not appear in the articles published between 2010 and 2019, this does mean they were never employed. Several students have written their Master’s and Ph.D. theses on keystroke logging and eye tracking, among other topics, at the Graduate Institute of Translation and Interpretation, NTNU.
- Research methods used in the Indian journal articles were restricted to conceptual or qualitative methods. To improve the diversity of the research, authors, instead of clinging to the traditional methods of research should be encouraged to embrace newly emerging approaches such as think-aloud protocol, keystroke logging, eye-tracking, etc.
- The majority of Indian and Taiwanese journal articles that dealt with the analysis of literary works, including those that discussed the historical, social, institutional, and cultural aspects of translation, did not clearly describe the research method employed. It is recommended that more emphasis should be placed on explaining the research methods so that the readers will easily understand the researchers’ overall approach to the study.

- Chinese and English were the most common language pairs discussed in the Taiwanese translation journals, while the Indian journal articles mostly discussed English paired with other Indian or Foreign languages.
- Taiwan's native languages, such as Hakka or other indigenous languages, went unmentioned in Taiwanese translation journals. Many Taiwanese native tongues are already on the verge of extinction. Therefore, more research is required in this area to bring more awareness to the importance of these languages and strengthen the government's effort to preserve Taiwan's rich heritage.
- This study also revealed that the number of male and female authors was almost equal in the Indian translation journal. Therefore, the gender gap that exists in higher education in India was not observed in the field of translation studies in this study.

5.2 Significance and Limitations of this Study

The research trends in translation studies have been extensively discussed by foreign scholars; however, there is a surprising lack of information about research trends in translation studies in India. This study is expected to contribute to our understanding of research trends in India. Additionally, this study also suggests areas for future research in Translation Studies. One of the main concerns that any student of Translation Studies faces is choosing a suitable topic for their research. Nouraey and Karimnia (2012) argue that there are a number of issues that a student or a researcher must take into consideration before choosing a topic to conduct research. The topic should not be repeatedly conducted by other researchers with the same significance,

and it should be meaningful and manageable. However, if a researcher is already aware of the significant branch or sub-branch of Translation Studies that is unexplored, choosing a relevant research topic will be much easier. This study provides students and scholars with an overview of the areas that have been explored the most, areas that remain untouched, and the areas that are gradually becoming popular in translation studies in India and Taiwan. Choosing an area that has not been extensively studied increases the significance of the research.

Finally, it is important to note some limitations of this research. Firstly, the sample size was limited. This study analyzed articles collected from *Compilation and Translation Review*, *Studies of Translation and Interpretation* and *Translation Today*, which are well-known journals in the field of Translation Studies in the countries they are being published in. However, this study did not include the theses of the students from various Translation and Interpretation departments in India and Taiwan. Therefore, this research offers a relatively narrow picture of trends and developments in the field of Translation Studies in India and Taiwan. Secondly, the analysis approach may be subjective. Although the categorization was done entirely based on the content of the articles, the results may differ (to some degree) from person to person.

5.3 Suggestions for Future Research

This study aims to find out the research trends in translation studies by analyzing articles from one Indian and two Taiwanese translation journals. To gain a better understanding of the trends, the sample size could be increased by including more scholarly journals and theses of students from various translation and interpretation programs in India and Taiwan.

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**Appendix: List of the articles published in
*Compilation and Translation Review, Studies of
Translation and Interpretation and Translation
Today* (2010–2019)**

Research Area	Code
Text Analysis and Translation	1
Translation Quality Assessment	2
Genre Translation	3
Multimedia Translation	4
Translation and Technology	5
Translation History	6
Translation Ethics	7
Terminology and Glossaries	8
Interpreting	9
The Translation Process	10
Translator Training	11
The Translation Profession	12
Others	13

2019 Compilation and Translation Review

Title of the Article	Author(s)	Research Area Code
臺灣日語文學翻譯發展之現況與議題-以國立臺灣文學館出版品為中心	黃意雯	6
司徒雷登回憶錄《在華五十年》中譯本的意識形態與政治	李明哲	6
數位化時代深度翻譯在《茶經》翻譯中的創新應用	龍明慧	1
孰是孰非:歐立德《乾隆帝》一書中滿文翻譯的商榷	甘德星	1

Images in Translation: Old Peking in the English Translation of Memories of Peking: South Side Stories	Albert L. Chang	1
Motivational Design in Translation Crowdsourcing: A Gamification Approach to Facebook Community Translation	Ya-mei Chen	5
圖文互證:李提摩太《西遊記》英譯本的底本考論	吳曉芳	3
他者之聲:文本中的語言多樣性與重譯以《金甲蟲》為例	吳碩禹	1
Interpreting in the Language Classroom: Effects of Chinese-to-English Interpreting Strategy Training on EFL Undergraduates' Oral Proficiency	吳茵茵 廖柏森	9
Examining Teacher Identity Development: Translation Teachers in the University Context	Karen Chung-chien Chang	10
Images of Bohemia: The Translation of Czech Literature in Taiwan and Mainland China	Melissa Shih-hui Lin	6

2019 *Studies of Translation and Interpretation*

Title of the Article	Author(s)	Research Area Code
Metacognitive teaching of machine translation: Moving towards mind-on/thinking-based learning	史宗玲	11
Professional Translator and Interpreter Training in France: Specificities and Challenges	Jean-François PETIT DE CHEMELLIER	11
Transmutation or Transcreation? : A Comparative Study of the Chinese and English Translators' Translation of Cultural Connotations in Classical Tang Poems	吳怡萍	3
動機!我需要動機! 融合電腦輔助翻譯的大學翻譯課	張綺容 楊儒信 王芝云	5
職業譯員英中同步口譯的停頓時長特徵與認知分析 —基於小型自建多模態口譯語料庫的個案研究	齊濤云 楊承淑	9

自動術語抽取技術於口譯詞彙表之初探應用研究	汝明麗	9
雙關語翻譯實務研究:以《愛麗絲》中譯為例	張華	3

2018 *Compilation and Translation Review*

Title of the Article	Author(s)	Research Area Code
梁啟超翻譯贊助活動研究	田希波	6
再思《聖經》「概念合一」語法的翻譯	周復初 謝仁壽	3
《佛說人本欲生經注》中的翻譯思想 釋道安「五失本」思想的萌芽	劉長慶	1
現象學的翻譯論述 - 論梅洛—龐蒂感知現象學的翻譯觀	吳錫德	13
中華獨立美術協會與早期「超現實主義」譯介	陳慶	6
線上機器翻譯:東南亞新住民語言服務芻議	史宗玲	5
A Cultural-Translation Study of Paratexts via Victor H. Mair's English Translation of the Tao Te Ching	Chih-hong Rudy Chen	1
Translators' Collaboration and Decision-Making in the Case of Bai Hua's The Remote Country of Women	Tzu-yi Elaine Lee	1
蘇曼殊英文能力之再議	強勇傑	6

2018 *Studies of Translation and Interpretation*

Title of the Article	Author(s)	Research Area Code
《亞細亞的孤兒》:翻譯、重譯與翻譯文本外部的聲音	鄧敏君	6
《荒人手記》之翻譯美學:文本功能導向再現與商榷	鄭雅丰	1
An Exploratory Examination of Naturally-generated Oral Peer Feedback in Interpreting Classes using Hattie and Timperley's Feedback Model	郭恬君	11

Intralingual Translation of Patent Claims in Taiwan and China: A Corpus-based Comparison of Collocations and Word Use	何艷娟	8
李昂《殺夫》之副文本言談功能及其對文學翻譯的啟示	吳怡萍	3
Recommendations for Chinese Audio Description Guidelines: A Case Study	沈曉佩	4
Researching Translation & Interpreting: The Challenge and Promise of Interdisciplinarity	張忠安	13
An English Translation of Caiwei 采薇 from Shijing 詩經 with Stylistic Considerations	陳致宏	3
Un análisis histórico comparativo de las traducciones al inglés de Don Quijote	Mario Santander Oliván (馬里奧)	3
What Can We Learn from Translation Certificate Examinations? A Comparison of High Performing and Low Performing Translations	蔡毓芬	12
他們在島嶼翻譯: 戒嚴初期在臺譯者研究	張綺容	6
多語醫療通譯: 失衡的醫病溝通	吳佩玲	9
從「譯文」到「世界文學」: 以 1950 年代中國大陸的政治語境為例	崔峰	6
疏離化、異化與現代中國文學的翻譯: 以賴威廉的魯迅小說英譯為例	陳榮彬	3
社會、語言與翻譯的動態演變: 新加坡華文報章的歐化翻譯現象 —— 以《聯合早報》為例	孫夢漪	3
職業譯員英中無稿同步口譯中的停頓頻次特徵 —— 基於小型雙模態語料庫的個案研究 1	齊濤云	9

2017 *Compilation and Translation Review*

Title of the Article	Author(s)	Research Area Code
中國守財奴的妙汗衫: 從元雜劇《合汗衫》的法譯到《看錢奴》的改編與演出	羅仕龍	3
譯者即作者 論作家雅可對泰譯《金瓶梅》的操縱	鄭佩佩	1

臺灣大專校院翻譯課程師資及 教師教學目標之研究	陳子瑋 林慶隆 彭致翎 林俊宏 何承恩	11
A Case Study of Knowledge Enhancement in Undergraduate Interpreter Training Courses in Taiwan	Gracie Peng	9
敘事視角轉換之譯者風格 以三島由紀夫《潮騷》的中譯本為例	鄧敏君	1
無緣得見的譯本:許章真譯印《現代印度小說選》	杜欣欣	6
字幕組中譯的全球在地觀: 以《柳丁攔來亂》為例	楊惠玲	4
即席發言同步口譯中譯英譯文邏輯銜接強化現象	張嘉倩	9
閱讀與翻譯摩莉的自主獨白 Yes The Enigmatic Molly Bloom: Reading and Translating Joycean Autonomous Monologue	鄭永康	3

2016 *Compilation and Translation Review*

Title of the Article	Author(s)	Research Area Code
千里之行，始於足下:臺灣人文社會學術專書英文長摘實作分析	林奇秀 林慶隆 邵婉卿 張婕妤	1
以班雅明的書寫理念閱讀〈譯者使命〉中「字」的旅行—以「傳達」為例	鄭惠芬	1
翻譯異國、想像中國:張若谷譯《中國孤兒》探析	陳碩文	6
基於語料庫的《一九八四》中譯本 譯者翻譯策略考察	李克莉 邵斌	8
嬌怯柔弱或不讓鬚眉? 中華書局《福爾摩斯偵探案全集》中的 女性形象	林怡婷	6
A Revised Model for the Professionalization of Court Interpreting in Taiwan	Yaling Chen Posen Liao	9
清-朝鮮時期漢.滿.韓互譯中的文字對音-以《漢清文鑑》滿文的韓文表記法為例	邵磊	6
Needs Analysis for the Training of Court Interpreters	Karen Chung-chien Chang	9

臺灣政府單位翻譯需求及人力資源問題分析	林慶隆 陳子瑋 彭致翎 何承恩 張舜芬 吳培若	10
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2015 *Compilation and Translation Review*

Title of the Article	Author(s)	Research Area Code
「實用」的演變：民初上海雜誌譯報實踐初探	葉嘉	6
A Bibliometric Analysis of Translation Studies between 1999 and 2014	Dahui Dong Meng-Lin Chen	13
夏目漱石小說的譯介在臺灣	廖詩文	6
從網路社群翻譯角度再探軟性新聞翻譯之讀者關照	陳雅玫	1
譯者主體性與語言生態	齊嵩齡	6
把故事再說一次：翻譯與改編	陳佩筠	6
翻孔子、譯孝道：以早期的《孝經》翻譯為例反思西方漢學的定位	潘鳳娟	6
A Hybrid Translation from Two Source Texts: The In-Betweenness of a Homeless Orphan	Hung-Shu Chen	1
Examining Patent Translation from a Paratextual Perspective	Yvonne Tsai	3
新聞編譯課程之創新研究	Chi-Yuk Lim Posen Liao	11

2014 *Compilation and Translation Review*

Title of the Article	Author(s)	Research Area Code
中西會通新探— 明末耶穌會著譯對中國文化的影響	李爽學	6
譯者的角色與知識生產：以臺灣日治時期法院通譯小野西洲為例	楊承淑	6
大學部跨系英中翻譯學程之現況初探	汝明麗	11
大學科學教科書翻譯現況之探討 — 以物理教科書為例	陳慶民 廖柏森	2
比較文學中譯者的仲介角色	鄭永康	13
三浦綾子文學的譯介在臺灣	廖詩文	6

從「有司」到「庶人」：“right”在《萬國公法》中的翻譯	楊焯	6
翻譯作品與創作作品之語體特徵比較研究——以劉慕沙歷年翻譯作品與早期短篇小說為例	鄧敏君	1
資本與行動者網路的運作——《紅高粱家族》英譯本生產及傳播之社會學探析	汪寶榮	1
左右為難：遭人曲解的傅東華研究	張思婷	6
逐步口譯筆記技巧 在臺灣高中生英語聽力教學之應用	蕭仕原 張鳳蘭	11

2013 *Compilation and Translation Review*

Title of the Article	Author(s)	Research Area Code
贊助對臺灣文學英譯的發展與傳介之影響	徐菊清	6
跨越全球學術傳播的巴別塔：建構臺灣人文社會學術論著英文長摘機制之芻議	林奇秀 林慶隆 邵婉卿 陳彥如 張瑋麟	13
軟性新聞翻譯之讀者關照	陳雅玫	3
電腦輔助商務翻譯教學—MT及TM之案例研究	史宗玲	11
咆哮山莊在臺灣：翻譯、改寫與仿作	賴慈芸	1
梁譯莎劇的信、達、恰	董崇選	6
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法庭口譯品質提升的功能視角	陳雅齡 陳子瑋	9
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2012 *Compilation and Translation Review*

Title of the Article	Author(s)	Research Area Code
通事與奸民：明末中英虎門事件中的譯者	王宏志	6
孝道、帝國文獻與翻譯——法籍耶穌會士韓國英與《孝經》	潘鳳娟	1
國恥癡情兩淒絕：林譯小說《不如歸》的國難論述與情感想像	潘少瑜	6
食人主義的必要：蒙田《隨筆》·林語堂《生活的藝術》·中國性·文化翻譯	韓若愚	6

身世之謎：《苦兒流浪記》翻譯始末	陳宏淑	6
重構他界想像：晚清漢譯基督教小說《安樂家》(1882)初探	黎子鵬	7
跨文化交流與翻譯文本的建構——論利瑪竇譯《二十五言》	鄭海娟	7
聊齋喻言：衛三畏如何以編譯重寫中國文學史？	張雅媚	6
亦譯亦批：伍光建的譯者批註與評點傳統	賴慈芸	7
跨文化多重視角下的戲劇翻譯：《西廂記》情色之語境轉換及舞台呈現	熊賢關	3
「演繹/譯」唯美：論林徽音之譯作《馬班小姐》與創作《花廳夫人》	陳碩文	7
學習口譯的焦慮與心流體驗	盧姿麟 廖柏森	9
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從語境觀點探討字幕翻譯的理解：以連接詞的縮減為例	高煥麗	4

2011 *Compilation and Translation Review*

Title of the Article	Author(s)	Research Area Code
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翻譯名與實：嚴復與修辭	吳建林	6
論《天路歷程》三個漢譯本的譯詩策略與風格	黎子鵬	1
從句長與句中成份觀察譯者語言選擇模式——基於中日雙向平行語料庫之描述性研究	鄧敏君	8
想像西方：論周瘦鵑的「偽翻譯」小說	潘少瑜	6
從語料庫統計的觀點分析美國之音新聞英文被動句中文譯文	洪千惠	8
逐步口譯中的非語言訊息結構	承淑 笹岡敦子 詹成	10
大學生翻譯學習型態與其翻譯能力之關係	廖柏森	11
人工翻譯與機器翻譯加後編輯之比較	李家璿 廖柏森	5

2010 *Compilation and Translation Review*

Title of the Article	Author(s)	Research Area Code
譯者的操縱：從 Cuore 到《馨兒就學記》	陳宏淑	1
修辭立其誠：從傅柯「論述」理論重審嚴復的信達雅	張煥堂	6
中古譯場的翻譯與政治——以道安譯論之轉變為例	余淑慧	6
文化專有菜單項目之翻譯：從「最佳關聯」至「後設表述」	史宗玲	1
不同母語譯者中譯英主體性之彰顯	董大暉	13
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文學、翻譯、批評：從貝爾曼翻譯評論看馬若瑟之《趙氏孤兒》	杜欣欣	7
大學生英譯中的筆譯錯誤分析與教學上的應用	廖柏森	11
適用中英口譯能力考試之英語測驗題型	林逸欣 張嘉倩	11
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2019 *Translation Today*

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