The Routledge Handbook of Translation and Technology

The Routledge Handbook of Translation and Technology provides a comprehensive and accessible overview of the dynamically evolving relationship between translation and technology.

Divided into five parts, with an editor's introduction, this volume presents the perspectives of users of translation technologies, and of researchers concerned with issues arising from the increasing interdependency between translation and technology. The chapters in this *Handbook* tackle the advent of technologization at both a technical and a philosophical level, based on industry practice and academic research.

Containing over 30 authoritative, cutting-edge chapters, this is an essential reference and resource for those studying and researching translation and technology. The volume will also be valuable for translators, computational linguists and developers of translation tools.

Minako O'Hagan, PhD, is the Discipline Convenor for Translation Studies at the School of Cultures, Languages and Linguistics at the University of Auckland in New Zealand. She specializes in applied translation studies with a technology focus, including game localization and non-professional translation. Her publications include the co-authored *Game Localization* (2013). Her current research interest lies in exploring the nexus of human and machine in translation.

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The book is dedicated to Professor Emeritus John Tiffin and the late Dr. Peter Toma, who chose New Zealand to test their visions for the future of education and translation.

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Introduction

Translation and technology: disruptive entanglement of human and machine

Minako O'Hagan

Background

This book builds on the increasing evidence of the impact of technology on contemporary translation, which serves diverse communicative situations across languages, cultures and modalities. The 2018 European Language Industry Association (ELIA) survey of over 1,200 respondents across 55 countries highlighted 2018 'as the year in which more than 50% of both the companies and the individual language professionals reported as using MT' (ELIA 2018: n.p.). Although the ELIA report is cautious not to overstate the penetration of MT, concluding that the use of MT in the translation industry is not yet mainstream, it is clear that technology has already profoundly affected the way translation is produced. Similarly, the wider public is exposed to machine translated texts of varying quality in different scenarios, including user-generated content (e.g., social media postings) and information gisting for personal use (e.g., hotel reviews). Furthermore, portions of the increased production and circulation of translations are attributable to the work of fans, volunteers or activists who have different backgrounds and motivations, yet are operating in parallel to their professional counterparts. The increased visibility of nonprofessional translation (NPT) can be traced to the availability of technology-supported social and collaborative platforms, on which NPT typically operates (see Chapter 14 by Jiménez-Crespo). In this way, technology has contributed to translation of diverse types and quality, accompanied by an increasing awareness in society at large of translation and the role played by technologies in the translation process. More recently, the newest MT paradigm, neural MT (NMT) is making inroads into translation practice and adding to substantial research interests in Translation Studies (TS), as demonstrated in this volume. The influence of technology, ranging from translation-specific technologies such as MT to more general-purpose speech technologies and cloud computing, is far-reaching and calls into question some of the assumptions about who should translate, how and to what level of quality.

Commercially viable translation today is all *computer-aided* (or -assisted) translation (CAT) and has been for some time. This is a term which comes across as somewhat redundant, given the ubiquitous use of computers in text production practices in

1

general, except that the extent and the nature of the computer aid is constantly shifting. Another frequently used term in the translation industry is translation environment tools (TEnTs), which conveys an image of translators' work surroundings being enveloped by technology. Among the newer terms coming into use is augmented translation (AT), introduced by Common Sense Advisory (Lommel 2018). AT puts the human translator in the centre (Kenny 2018), supported by an advanced suite of technologies, including automated content enrichment (ACE). This allows automatic searches of relevant information associated with the source content and informs the translator and MT to generate better translation (Lommel ibid.). AT and ACE concepts align with AI-supported medicine, which augments human expert judgement with rapid access to vast and relevant key information (see Susskind and Susskind 2015). Such complex technological infrastructure shaping macro and micro translation environments in turn relies on ongoing behind-thescenes standardization work (see Chapters 2 and 3 by Wright and Roturier respectively) to ensure that all technological elements meet required standards and can therefore interoperate. However, the technology-driven modus operandi and technology-based infrastructure on which translation increasingly rests adds to quality concerns (see Pym in Chapter 26). For example, according to nearly 2,800 respondents to the SDL Translation Technology Insight Survey (SDL 2016), quality is currently of the utmost concern for the translation industry.

These snapshots highlight that the human–machine relationship is in a state of flux, with uncharted paths ahead. While human translation shapes and is shaped by technologies, we do not know exactly how this process will unfold. This contributes to a sense of uncertainty among professional translators, which Vieira (2018), following Akst (2013), calls 'automation anxiety' (also see Kenny in Chapter 30). In the midst of ongoing technological transformation, this collected volume is not about translation technology per se. Rather, it is about understanding the dynamic relationship being formed between translation and technology from a range of perspectives. In doing so, it aims to increase our awareness of how contemporary translation is evolving and what it means to be a translator, as the co-existence of human and machine could be qualitatively different in the near future. Such a theme has become a major agenda of the 21st century across different types of work, particularly with AI beginning to affect areas previously considered only fit for humans (Susskind and Susskind 2015, also see Chapter 30 by Kenny). This volume attempts to tackle the topic both at a technical and a philosophical level, based on industry practice and academic research, to present a balanced perspective with TS contributions to a dialogue of global importance.

Historical contexts of research on the nexus of human and machine in translation

For translation, the explicit connection with 'the machine' started in earnest in the 1950s, with research and development (R&D) of MT as a new field for the non-numerical application of computers instigated by the Weaver memo (Weaver 1949) (see Melby in Chapter 25). However, as is well known, the 1966 Automatic Language Processing Advisory Committee (ALPAC) report put an abrupt end to MT R&D, especially in the US, for nearly a decade. Despite this, the frequent references to the ALPAC report in this volume and elsewhere are arguably evidence of its continuing legacy, which is perhaps not all short-sighted and misguided. For example, its support for 'machine-aided translation' has become mainstream in the translation industry under the banner of CAT. Martin

Kay's translator's amanuensis (Kay 1980/1997) envisioned an incremental adaptive electronic aid for the human translator. Similarly, Alan K. Melby's work on the translator's workstation (Melby 1981) embodied a workbench integrating discrete levels of machine aid. Reviewing these pioneers' concepts, Hutchins (1998: 11) highlighted how, in both cases, the human translator had been placed in control as someone who would use such tools in ways s/he 'personally found most efficient'. The questioning of this centrality of human translators in today's transforming translation workflow (Kenny 2018), further validates the aim of this volume to investigate the relationship between human and machine and its ramifications.

Initially CAT tended to be distinguished from MT on the assumption that in the former, it is the human who translates (e.g., Bowker 2002, Somers 2003), whereas MT is automatic computer translation without human intervention. However, this division has become blurred as MT is increasingly integrated into CAT environments (see Kenny in Chapter 30) where the human translator is presented with translation proposals from (human produced) translation memory (TM) matches, together with MT outputs. Similarly, the increasing practice of post-editing of MT (PEMT) is reflected in a growing body of research which has rapidly reached a critical mass especially in translation process research (see collected volumes such as O'Brien 2014, Carl, Bangalore and Schaeffer 2016).

There has been considerable progress made to address the earlier disconnect between MT research and research in TS, although the tendency to exclude professional human translators is still observable 'in certain quarters of MT research' (Kenny 2018: 439). Initially MT research focused on the application of computers to human language, with computer scientists and engineers 'knowingly or unknowingly' attempting to 'simplify the translation process' or 'downplay the nuances of human language' (Giammarresi and Lapalme 2016: 218). But the lack of cross-fertilization can also be blamed on the TS camp, with too few scholars interested in translation technology to widen the scope of translation theory, so that it could consider the increasing integration of technology into the translation process (O'Hagan 2013, Jakobsen and Misa-Lao 2017). In fact, the connection between translation research and MT research can be traced to the 1960s when the idea of equivalence relationships between source and target texts was explored by linguists such as Catford (1965). In particular, Catford's idea of a translation rule as 'an extrapolation of the probability values of textual translation equivalents' (1965: 31) is of direct relevance to subsequent data-driven approaches to MT (Kenny forthcoming), which are based on the use of parallel texts (or bi-texts) (see Simard in Chapter 5). In the 1960s, when Chomsky's linguistic theory (Generative Grammar) was exerting its influence, including on MT, Eugene Nida was among the few early translation theorists cognizant of MT research, and related to it in his foundation work Toward a Science of Translating (Nida 1964). In his endeavour to bring theorizing about translation into the scientific arena, Nida applied Chomskian linguistics and the information theory approach to communication (Nida 1964, Nida and Taber 1969). It is relevant to recall the fact that MT R&D precede the development of TS; it was only in 1972 that James Holmes (1972/1988) named the discipline as 'Translation Studies' (abbreviated as TS in this article) and laid the foundations for theorizing translation to 'explain and predict' translation with 'description' as the first step. In the 1980s TS was shifting away from a linguistic focus to a consideration of broader contexts through functionalism. Attention moved from the source to the target text and translation as action, before the cultural turn in the 1990s moved human translation largely outside the scope of interest of MT circles.

Into the 1990s and 2000s technologies played a key role in empirical TS research by providing research tools, including some for corpus analysis. Other tools, such as keyboard logging (e.g., Translog originally developed by Arnt Jakobsen at the Copenhagen Business School in the late 1990s) and eye tracking (see Jakobsen in Chapter 24), were also introduced more widely into TS, and these have been used to better understand translator behaviours and the behaviours of translation users in the context of translation reception; for example, in audiovisual translation (AVT) (see Kruger 2018). In particular, these research tools contributed to the further development of cognitive translation studies as a specialized field of research (see Schwieter and Ferreira 2017), one which is now set to probe neural representation with non-invasive neuroimaging techniques, such as functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) and positron emission tomography (PET) (see Shreve and Diamond 2016: 155).

This brief look back at the trajectory of the connection between translation and technology shows increasing 'border crossings' (Gambier and van Doorslaer 2016) to neighbouring disciplines such as computer science, computational linguistics and now neuroscience.

Aim and scope of the publication

The spread of computers across global markets gave rise to new areas of practice and research in TS, such as localization (see Folaron in Chapter 12). This saw TS scholars engaging more fully in theorizing about technologies by tapping into sociological, cultural or philosophical aspects (see Chapters 23 and 31 by Olohan and Cronin respectively), on the one hand, and cognitive or usability/ergonomic dimensions on the other (see Chapters 21 and 24 by Ehrensberger-Dow and Murphy; and Jakobsen respectively). There is also a large body of knowledge being accumulated in translator training and education focused on technology (see Kenny in Chapter 30). Furthermore, as a result of technological advances, research-led practices are becoming more common in fields such as accessibility and universal design (see Remael and Reviers in Chapter 29). In this way, technology more than anything else started to bring together the interests of academy and industry. Technological dimensions continue to present fresh scope to bridge the gap between translation theory and practice, ideally to respond to ever-present translator suspicions as to the usefulness of theory in actual translation practice – a topic earlier addressed in Chesterman and Wagner (2002) and more recently in Polizzotti (2018). As demonstrated in this volume, the exploration of the relationship between technology and translation is leading to a fresh examination of contemporary translation benefitting not only translators as users of technologies but also those who develop and research translation technology. It is hoped that this volume contributes critical insight into the complex symbiosis between humans and machines so that translation (and interpreting, which is covered to a limited extent in this volume) can serve increasingly diverse communication needs in the best and most sustainable way.

With the above overall goal of the publication, the *Handbook* has a number of specific features. First, it is designed to represent the interests of different stakeholders in the translation industry. The fragmented nature of the translation industry is recognized as it affects the level of implementation and the types of technologies used in translation. The translation industry consists of a large population of freelance translators (see Zetzsche in Chapter 10) and language service providers (LSPs) which range from small-and-medium-sized (see King in Chapter 9) to multinational vendors (see Esselink

in Chapter 7). In addition, often well-resourced public international organizations (see Caffrey and Valentini in Chapter 8) play an important role as early adopters of new technologies. Although not officially part of the industry, non-professional translation is also contributing to translation production, forming part of a participatory culture (Chapters 13 and 14 by Altice and Jiménez-Crespo, respectively). Similarly, the use of translation technology in (second) language learning is part of the picture in the technology and translation alliance (see Chapter 11 by Yamada). The volume therefore reflects different settings for technology uses according to the different segments of the industry as users of translation technology, encompassing contributors who reside outside academia. Secondly, this publication attempts to make sense of the current position of technology from diachronic perspectives. What is considered new technology often had a prior incarnation as a rudimentary prototype or an embryonic concept which needed further maturing, perhaps requiring relevant surrounding technologies and conditions. While historical approaches are well explored in TS research in general, their application in the context of translation technology research has not been traversed to the same extent. In the context of MT, John Hutchins was the first to demonstrate the merit of a historical approach with his comprehensively chronicled Machine Translation: past, present, future (Hutchins 1986). The Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Technology (Chan 2015) is a more recent example also with regional foci. Among the many chapters in the present volume which provide a historical trajectory, historical perspectives are more applicable and prominent in certain chapters. For example, Sue-Ellen Wright in her chapter on Standards follows periodization, drawing on Galinski (2004 cited in Wright) to cast a spotlight on key phases of the evolution of approaches and applications of standardization across language, translation and the localization industry. Similarly, Debbie Folaron (Chapter 12), in discussing technical translation as an established practice and localization as a relatively new addition within TS, traces their historical trajectories. The historical approach contexualizes and recontextualizes the development of specialized translation practices in dynamic interaction with technology. Such an approach allows Folaron to present a critical discourse on the links between technology and localization as well as technical translation, enabling the author to systematize the epistemology of the field. In turn, Sabine Braun (see Chapter 16 on technology and interpreting) tracks technological developments in telecommunications which have shaped varied modes of distance interpreting and configurations of technical settings. This richly traces the new demands on professional interpreters to serve different technological constructs as their working environments. Thirdly, this volume addresses a number of substantive matters under Part V as overarching issues that challenge translation practice and research concerned with technology, ranging from quality to ecology. This part, along with the research foci and methodologies addressed in Part IV, aims to provide scholars and industry players with key topics, future avenues for research and analysis and insight into the implications of technologies for translation. Finally, the volume takes into account readers who may not be familiar with the topics addressed by some chapters and provides additional information: a list of relevant standards in Chapter 2, a glossary of terms in game localization in Chapter 13, an explanation of eye tracking technology in Chapter 24 and a list of recent major funded projects relevant to accessibility research in Chapter 29.

In terms of the macro-structure, Part I addresses key underlying frameworks and related technologies as relevant across different modes and areas of translation. Part II examines the adoption of technologies by different user groups. Part III considers the impact of technologies on each of the distinctive areas of translation (and interpretation)

practice. Part IV discusses research settings and methodological issues for selected research areas particularly relevant to the emerging relationships with technology. Part V explores the overarching issues in TS resulting from the increasing influence of technologies. The micro-structure of each chapter has certain key elements that are common across all chapters, yet is not uniform, as the final decision on the key content was left to the liberty of the chapter authors. The cross-referencing to other chapters was mostly added by the editor.

The next section provides an overview of how each contributor addresses their specific topic.

Part I: Translation and technology: defining underlying technologies – present and future

Part I consists of five chapters which explain the fundamental building blocks and related general-purpose technologies key to understanding translation and technology at present and in their emerging guises. In Chapter 2, 'Standards for the language, translation and localization industry', Sue Ellen Wright provides a historical overview of how and why standards have developed over time, concerning technology applications in sectors spanning the translation, language and localization industry. Various standards for processes, products and services in today's complex technological world play a key role, including generating the basis for a 'feedback-rich information life cycle' beyond individual documents which may be chunked, repurposed and retrieved. Drawing on Briggs (2004 cited in Wright), Wright stresses, '[s]tandards transform inventions into commercial markets'. This is why international cooperation and expert consensus in a given field are critical in setting standards. Wright uses a historical approach to illustrate the role of standards and connections among them, without which today's technologically interlinked world through the Internet and use of tools in collaborative modes would not have been possible. A closely linked theme is taken up in Chapter 3, 'XML for translation technology', by Johann Roturier. Roturier shows how XML forms key backbone file exchange standards to ensure interoperability between translation tools and also the offline portability of tools in different user settings. The significance of XML can be illustrated in the statement, as quoted by Roturier, that 'over 90% of data for translation is generated with XML' (Zydroń 2014 cited in Roturier). Nevertheless, as the chapter explains, dynamic changes including the emergence of non-proprietary open source formats mean that this is a constantly developing area. Translators working especially in areas such as localization face the issues associated with these underlying factors in dealing with translation tools and files. Chapter 4, 'Terminology extraction and management', by Kyo Kageura and Elizabeth Marshman addresses terminology extraction and management as particularly pertinent in specialized translation (see Chapter 8 by Caffrey and Valentini). Terminology was one of the earliest areas within the translation workflow to have exploited electronic, as opposed to manual, processing, yet efficient terminology management within real-life translation practice remains a challenge. The chapter explains in some detail the different methods used in automatic term extraction (ATE), which is a critical upstream process, but is a computationally complex task to perform. The authors see ATE as a challenge especially in terms of quality, as is the case with collaborative terminology management. Finally, the role of terminology in connection with data-driven MT, including NMT, is briefly discussed, highlighting the importance of terminology quality in the training data. Here the need for human judgement at critical junctures within terminology management is stressed. Related to the theme of electronic processing of linguistic resources, the following chapter focuses on linguistic data as a bi-product of, and an ingredient for, translation technology. In Chapter 5, 'Building and using parallel text for translation', Michel Simard explains the key techniques behind collection, structure, alignment and management involved in parallel text (consisting of an aligned source text and target text pair). These issues gained great importance with the widespread adoption of TM and data-driven MT, which use parallel text as training data. In reference to the more recent word alignment process in NMT, Simard refers to a 'soft' alignment mechanism known as 'attention'. The anthropomorphic use of 'attention' in reference to a computational operation highlights its human-like function, albeit one not always achieved successfully. In turn, the lack of trust by human translators towards MT outputs, as alluded to by Simard, aligns with the findings elsewhere in TS literature (see Chapter 19 by Vieira). The last point signals some fundamental questions that arise when thinking about humanmachine cooperation in translation. Further probing the cooperative dimension, the next chapter turns the focus to general-purpose technologies whose relevance to translation is increasing. In Chapter 6, 'Speech recognition and synthesis technologies in the translation workflow', Dragos Ciobanu and Alina Secară examine the development and deployment of speech technologies i.e. speech-to-text and text-to-speech and their emerging uses in the translation workflow. While the authors find actual use cases of speech technologies in CAT scenarios are currently limited they point to the way in which speech recognition systems are integrated into live subtitling in 'respeaking' mode (also see Remael and Reviers in Chapter 29). The chapter reports recent empirical research conducted to test productivity gains and quality issues when combining automatic speech recognition systems in the process of translating as well as other tasks, such as revision and PEMT. The results highlight productivity gains as well as accuracy and stylistic issues while also pointing to the need for improvement in achieving a smoother integration of such technologies into CAT tools, together with consideration of task types.

Part II: Translation and technology: users' perspectives

Consisting of five chapters, this section addresses the perspectives of different translation technology users. The chapters represent different sectors of the translation industry. It ranges from large-scale language service providers (LSPs) and public institutions to freelance translators as well as language learners and translation practitioners who are not professional translators, but who benefit from translation technologies. Chapter 7, 'Multinational language service provider as user' by **Bert Esselink** looks into large LSPs for their use of technologies centred on translation management systems (TMS) which are divided into: Process Management and Automation, Project Management and Administration, Customer Management and Commerce, and Translation and Quality Management. The detailed description of the features and functionalities of TMS gives insight into how technologies are used to deliver an optimum translation service to customers by large LSPs. The chapter signals the increasing presence of AI and its likely significant impact in future, including in the area of project management, with implications for substantial change to the current human-based model. In Chapter 8, 'Application of technology in the Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT) Translation Division of the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO)' Colm Caffrey and Cristina Valentini provide the perspective of a large public institution as a technology user. Patents form one of the most targeted fields of specialized translation heavily facilitated by technology. Caffrey and Valentini describe how TM and terminology

management systems are used in the PCT Translation Division, with its concerted efforts to provide translators with sophisticated terminological support via their terminology portal WIPO Pearl. Such terminological resources are a result of the integration of corpora, MT and machine learning algorithms, which may not be achievable by smaller organizations, let alone freelance translators. The authors further report on WIPO NMT which has been used since 2017 for all of the Division's nine languages, benefiting from a large body of indomain training data (i.e. parallel corpora) available in-house. However, the authors suggest that the integration of NMT into the workflow means a change in the way translators deal with particular characteristics of NMT output which may be fluent yet contain terminological issues. This in turn implies different ways of using the terminological resources independently according to the need of the translator. Compared to large organizations, smaller translation operators have different settings and contexts in which to consider technologies, as described by Patrick King in Chapter 9, 'Small and medium-sized enterprise translation service provider as technology user: translation in New Zealand'. Drawing on his experience as a translator, editor and translation company operator, King explains how a mediumsized LSP in New Zealand is implementing technologies to achieve a productivity gain while maintaining translation quality. In particular, he shares translators' perspectives on new technologies, showing evidence of the openness of (some) translators to using technology, and that of NMT in particular. At the same time, King advises that technology should be assessed 'on its own merit', not simply because it introduces some improvements on the previous version. These days, most LSPs and freelance translators alike operate internationally, yet local contexts are still significant, as in New Zealand where Māori and South Pacific languages have unique requirements. King reminds the reader of the reality of translation service operating requirements, for example, dealing with a range of languages with unequal levels of compatibility with machine-processing. The fragmented translation industry continues to be supported by a large number of freelance translators. In Chapter 10, 'Freelance translators' perspectives' Jost Zetzsche opens the discussion by defining what a freelancer is and then moves on to examine key issues which initially delayed the uptake of technologies by freelance technical translators. By tracing a historical trajectory since the 1990s when CAT tools first became widely available, Zetzsche shows why uptake was initially relatively low and how translators changed from careful crafters of text to recycling 'CAT operators' who 'fill-in-the-blanks'. He argues that, at least in certain contexts, some tools are found to be 'stifling instruments for the human sensitivities of the technical translator'. Among the high use general-purpose technologies, Zetzsche highlights freelance translators' use of social media platforms from relatively early on, such as various online translator forums as a means to stay in contact with peers rather than for finding clients. The author points out that freelance translators tend to see the value of technology investment for its immediate link to increased revenue and this is why terminology management is a constantly undervalued element. He observes that MT is more accepted by translators compared to CAT when it was first introduced. Into the future with the increasing use of AI, Zetzsche sees the ideal role of translators as providing support by guiding technology developers. Chapter 11, 'Language learners and non-professional translators as users' by Masaru Yamada shifts the focus from the role of technology in official translation service provision to that of second language learning. Yamada explores the link between translation technologies and TILT (Translation in Language Teaching), with language learners and also non-professional translators using such technologies to improve their second language competency. Based on recent research on TILT, the chapter highlights the benefit of using MT output as a 'bad model' to boost language learners' competency through post-editing (PE) tasks. Furthermore, Yamada draws on research pointing to the benefit of human-like errors made by NMT, which incur a higher cognitive effort in PE compared to errors produced by SMT, which are generally easier (more obvious) to repair. The former are therefore more conducive to learning. The capacity of translation technologies to boost lesser skilled translators' abilities is seen as empowering in this chapter. Yamada suggests the use of translation technologies in TILT could logically link to Computer-aided Language Learning (CALL), providing further research avenues.

Part III: Translation and technology: application in a specific context – shaping practice

The technologization of translation is affecting different translation practices but with specific implications for each specialized area. Part III looks into different translation practices divided into eight chapters. In Chapter 12, 'Technology, technical translation and localization', Debbie Folaron takes on technical translation and localization to deconstruct their relationship with technology, taking a historical, methodological and critical approach. Through such lenses the chapter highlights, for example, how the emergence of localization practice has cast this new practice in relation to globalization, as articulated in the industry framework of Globalization, Internationalization, Localization and Translation (GILT). Furthermore, the localization process, which cannot be completed without the use of a technological platform, led to the development of specialized tools, in turn contributing to the formation of localization ecosystem (also see Cronin in Chapter 31). Folaron demonstrates the relevance of a critical digital discourse in shedding light on such practices as localization which is intertwined with digital artefacts. She then calls for TS scholars to engage more with the field of digital studies, which provides scope for the critical analysis of translation practice in an increasingly digital world. In Chapter 13, 'Technology and game localization: translation behind the screens' Nathan Altice inadvertently responds to Folaron's call to engage with digital studies with his discussion on localization of video games, especially by fans as non-professional localizers. Focused on the technicity of game hardware and software, Altice identifies a core feature of game localization with the practice of ROM (Read Only Memory) hacking, which involves unauthorized access and modification of a game's ROM by game fans, including the modification of the original language of the product. Characterized by its subversive and highly technical nature, ROM hacking communities continue to be active and visible. Informed by platform studies perspectives within game studies, Altice shows how 'language' is encoded 'graphically, materially and procedurally' by design in both the console/platform (hardware) and the game (software). This topic then naturally links to the following chapter focused on the broader concept of non-professional translation (NPT), which has recently gained considerable research interest in TS. In Chapter 14, 'Technology and non-professional translation (NPT)' Miguel A. Jiménez-Crespo examines the phenomenon of NPT, exploring its symbiotic relationship with broader technological developments represented by Web 2.0. The chapter gives close scrutiny to the increasingly visible practices of NPT, such as translation crowdsourcing and online collaborative translation. NPT involves participants who are not 'classically' trained translators, operating as part of translation communities in diverse contexts from pursuing fandom to activism or humanitarian initiatives. The chapter highlights the close correlation between NPT and digital technologies. NPT is characterized by non-uniform uses of translation technologies compared to its professional counterpart. Consequently, human-machine interaction in NPT can often be different from that in professional translation, adding to the complexity of such relationships in contemporary translation. NPT encroaches on a variety of research foci, ranging from audiovisual translation (AVT) to PEMT, as well as raising questions of quality and ethics, affording scholars multiple lenses of analysis.

Within TS literature, localization and AVT are considered to be the areas most affected by new technologies and as a result having the greatest influence on the theorization of translation (Munday 2016: 275). In Chapter 15, 'Technological advances in audiovisual translation' **Jorge Díaz Cintas** and **Serenella Massidda** reflect on some of the formidable transformations within the rapidly expanding field of AVT. The chapter surveys an increasing body of research on the application of TM and MT in AVT, although the authors point out the benefit of these technologies is currently relatively limited. Cloud subtitling is seen as a new way for professional translators from different geographical locations to work together on collaborative platforms. Cloud-based dubbing and voice-over as end-to-end managed services are shown as rapidly developing examples. The authors explain how the availability of a wide range of tools and platforms is having a democratizing impact on AVT, yet is also heating up the competition among industry participants and causing increased anxiety among professional translators. The authors observe the way technology is altering relationships between stakeholders, highlighting its deep-seated impact.

Translation technologies are seen to be closely associated with (written) translation, yet MT is also core to machine interpreting (MI) which combines MT with speech technologies. In Chapter 16, 'Technology and interpreting', Sabine Braun focuses on the field of interpreting, including the rising demand for 'distance interpreting' and the milestones in MI. The chapter provides a comprehensive survey of the historical development of technologies shaping distance and on-site computer-assisted interpreting by humans, introducing different terminology used for different technology application settings and configurations of participant locations. While MI currently cannot service situations requiring highly accurate professional interpreting, Braun suggests that ongoing research, especially into neural networks, provides scope for further development. Highlighting the increasing reports by remote interpreters of psychological and physiological problems, the author stresses that interpreting is a cognitively challenging task and any other distracting issues relating to the lack of physical presence can affect the interpreter's performance. At the same time Braun raises the question of the sustainability of the profession as an important consideration in light of implementing smart technologies. Overlapping with some of these concerns, in Chapter 17 'Technology and sign language interpreting', Peter Llewellyn-Jones addresses settings specifically for Deaf people. Beginning with how the invention of the telephone disadvantaged the Deaf community, the author charts the development of spoken-signed language interpreting services via telephone, computer and video links. Comparing the situation in the US to Europe, the UK and Australia, the chapter argues that services such as Video Relay Services (VRS), where all interlocuters are in different locations, or Video Remote Interpreting (VRI), where only the interpreter is in a separate location, should not be developed simply to exploit available technologies; they must be carefully thought through to adequately enable the highly complex cognitive task of sign interpreting. Drawing on the research literature, Llewellyn-Jones illuminates the serious consequences that can result from making decisions purely based on the cost efficiency seen to be achieved by the use of technologies.

As touched on in the earlier chapter by Jiménez-Crespo, technologies are increasingly used to facilitate volunteer translators' involvement in humanitarian causes. A tragic

reminder of the need for 'crisis translation' is the 2017 Grenfell Tower fire, in which the apartment block's multi-ethnic occupants speaking a diverse range of languages were largely unable to receive accurate information in their language in a timely manner. In Chapter 18, 'Translation technology and disaster management', Sharon O'Brien homes in on the role of technologies in disaster management and translation, which constitutes a relatively new area of research in TS and elsewhere. O'Brien argues translation is a neglected aspect in disaster management literature and policy, yet its role can be significant. This chapter illustrates the function of translation with the use of technologies serving beyond the 'response' phase of disaster risk management to all of the '4Rs': the predisaster phases of 'reduction' and 'readiness' and the stages of 'response' and 'recovery'. However, despite the proven successes with translation technologies in disasters such as in the Haiti Earthquake, technology deployment can be challenging, given issues such as disrupted infrastructure. Additionally, information recipients of written texts may have differing levels of literacy, not to mention cultural and accessibility considerations. Above all, this field highlights the socially significant role of translation, with challenges ahead including ethical considerations, linking to translation ecology thinking (see Cronin in Chapter 31). During the second decade of the new millennium, the use of MT within professional translation has become highly visible, with a raised interest in post-editing, as discussed at the beginning of this introduction and also amply demonstrated by the contributors to this volume. In Chapter 19, 'Post-editing of machine translation', Lucas Nunes Vieira gives a comprehensive survey of the growing research interest and industry practice of post-editing of Machine Translation (PEMT). Vieira begins the chapter by reminding us that PE used to be a 'machine-centric' activity in a mode of 'human-assisted machine translation' but is now geared rather towards 'machine-assisted human translation' in CAT environments. Drawing on the literature, Vieira presents the evolution of post-editing as a spectrum from MT-centred (automatic PE) to human-centred PE (interactive/adaptive) (also see Chapter 22 by Läubli and Green). Vieira sees the future of PE as better integrated into the professional translation process, where PE is no longer a discrete task. His conclusion highlights the need for further research into human agency in relation to PE activities and wider CAT environments. Vieira then highlights the role of TS in providing evidence-based findings to temper the hyperbolic claims made by some NMT developers and enables well-informed assessments to be made about technology.

Part IV: Translation and technology: research foci and methodologies

This section consists of five chapters which address specific foci and methodologies adopted to answer research questions probing the relationship between translation and technology.

In Chapter 20, 'Translation technology evaluation research', **Stephen Doherty** highlights how translation technology evaluation has gained key importance due to the prevalent use of technologies in contemporary translation. In particular, MT and post-editing have provided a strong impetus for this research area with the continuing development of automatic evaluation methods (AEMs) to complement or as an alternative to human-oriented evaluation of MT. Technology evaluation affects different stakeholders who have diverse needs, including technology developers and suppliers as well as providers and buyers of translation products and services, end-users and translation researchers. Doherty argues that despite the often-highlighted differences in purpose and context between evaluation methods used in academia versus in industry settings, the evaluation process is

inherently the same in that the evaluator needs to align the evaluation purpose with the available resources and methods, and the desired format. While advances in technology evaluation research are providing increasingly sophisticated evaluation mechanisms, Doherty calls for further research focused on three areas: universalism and standardization, methodological limitations and education and training. These will allow more inclusive and standardized approaches to meet the needs of the different stakeholders. In Chapter 21, 'Translation workplace-based research' Maureen Ehrensberger-Dow and Gary Massey provide an up-to-date survey of workplace-based research, which has steadily gained importance in TS over the last decade. This is where research moves out of the translation classroom or laboratory into real life workplaces, filling the gap in the other research settings and providing ecological validity by capturing data from translators in situ. Ehrensberger-Dow and Massey show how increasing technologization has made it relevant to see expert activity as a manifestation of situated cognition, whereby human cognition is assumed to extend beyond individual minds to, for example, interaction with technological artefacts. The chapter articulates the way workplace-based research can highlight with empirical data how technologies can facilitate or disrupt the human translation process. The chapter calls for more transdisciplinary action research to ensure human translators are empowered by working with technologies and not undermined by their technological environments. In Chapter 22, 'Translation technology research and human-computer interaction (HCI)' Samuel Läubli and Spence Green address translation and technology from the perspective of professional translation as HCI. Focused on users of translation technology, they discuss 'interactive MT' (IMT) as opposed to the 'static' model (also see Vieira in Chapter 19), and examine factors behind the often-negative response of professional translators to PEMT tasks. The chapter draws on empirical evidence to highlight how seemingly trivial User Interface (UI) design issues, such as font size, lack of shortcuts, copy-paste functionality, etc. can hinder efficient human-computer interaction. Similarly, the authors point to the findings in the literature that user irritation relates, above all, to the repeated need to correct the same MT errors. The authors surmise the key challenge in HCI as the limitation of the machinery's ability to learn from (human) users, whereas humans can learn to use 'novel machinery'. Furthermore, 'making the state and effects of adaptation understandable to their users' is part of the challenge in creating adaptive systems. This in turn critically requires the iterative involvement of translators in the development process, a lesson still being learnt from the early MT projects that lacked translator participation. In Chapter 23, 'Sociological approaches to translation technology' Maeve Olohan examines the key research questions and methodologies in sociologically-oriented studies on translation technologies. The chapter traces the development of SCOT (social construction of technology) as a field of study to demonstrate how 'science and technology are socially constructed cultures' (Pinch and Bijker 1984: 404 cited in Olohan's chapter), accommodating both successful and failed technologies. In parallel with SCOT the author explains other sociological approaches applied in TS research. Despite the increasing use of sociological approaches in TS research to shed light on translation technologies, Olohan concludes that there is more to pursue in 'sociology of translation', both conceptually and empirically. For example, she argues that critical theory of technology can be fruitfully combined with constructivist approaches to reveal unequal power distributions, which often affect the adoption of technologies. Olohan suggests these lines of inquiry could lead to a further renewal of the traditional conceptualization of translation. Methodological innovations are part of the increasing sophistication of research in TS and eye tracking is one of the key examples. In Chapter 24, 'Translation technology research with eye tracking', Arnt Lykke Jakobsen provides explanations about eye tracking technology and a detailed survey of this popular research tool now used in diverse areas of TS. This chapter shows how eye tracking software can trace with fine granularity the translation process and the dynamics of the translator's interaction with translation technology, for example TM or MT, while performing translation or post-editing. Or it can capture the translation user's response to dynamic text presentation modes, such as in subtitles. Translation is an 'effortful cognitive activity', yet to what extent technological tools add to or lessen such efforts is a question which calls for empirical evidence. Jakobsen suggests eye tracking could provide insight, for example, into reasons for 'the global preference of multimodal, analogic communication' compared to 'unimodal, symbolic communication' despite the assumption that the former is more effortful. While cautioning that not everything about visual attention and cognitive processing is fully explainable from eye tracking data, Jakobsen predicts there are likely to be widening avenues for eye tracking in future as part of mixed-methods research design used with 'qualitative data and neuroscience technologies'.

Part V: Overarching issues

The final section consists of seven chapters which focus on a number of critical overarching issues arising from significant uses of technology in translation. This section covers MT, quality, fit-for-purpose translation, accessibility, reuse of translation data, translator training and translation ecology. In Chapter 25, 'Future of machine translation: musings on Weaver's memo', Alan K. Melby explores where the next paradigm of MT is headed, centring on the challenge arising from sub-symbolic deep learning (i.e. its inner workings are non-inspectable to humans) applied in the current generation of NMT. This issue of increased opacity in machine learning is noted by scholars as a cause for concern (see Kenny 2018). As a way to think about future developments of MT, Melby uses a detailed analysis of Warren Weaver's 1949 Memorandum. The chapter treats the early pioneer's concepts presented in the memo as 'seeds' behind the subsequent successive paradigms of MT, from RBMT (Rule-based MT) to SMT (Statistical MT) to the current evolving state of NMT. Melby then considers developments in the intervening times of enabling technologies and surrounding contexts to build his conjecture by mapping the seeds in Weaver to the MT paradigms. With sub-symbolic deep learning, Melby argues, even those who are modelling AI cannot seem to predict exactly what goes on inside the 'black box'. The discussion leads Melby to the question of what it means to 'understand' the text in human and machine translation, which he believes is significant for the next phase of MT, i.e. seeing Weaver's final seed – linking MT to the human brain – sprouting.

Not unrelated to the issue of 'understanding', quality is a key challenge for translators and the translation industry. Pym clarifies the two meanings of 'quality', the first being 'properties' a la Aristotle, if used in the plural, and, in the singular, meaning 'the relative excellence of the thing' for a given purpose. The two meanings are often related, as we are reminded by Pym, with changes of properties leading to changes in the status of excellence, as applicable to the quality of translation technologies. In Chapter 26, 'Quality', **Anthony Pym** addresses translation quality in the context of translation technologies by treating it as 'relations' based on Chesterman (2004 cited in his chapter); namely relations between the translation and the target text, comparative texts, purpose, industrial standards and the translator. For example, with the prevalence of TM and MT in the translation process, Pym highlights the critical need for greater quality control of such technologies

which are exerting 'unspoken forces behind the industrial standards'. In reference to the relation between translation and the translator, Pym argues that a likely consequence of technologization manifesting in more pre- and post-editing for translators, could still be made satisfying for them, if such work was presented as 'authorizing' the final translation. He suggests it is up to translators and their employers to ensure that the work is recognized and rewarded as such. Discussing these relations, the chapter teases out human elements in quality to remind the reader that evaluations of quality 'reside on human values' that are 'built on a fundamental indeterminacy'. As highlighted in his conclusion, Pym draws our attention to 'the human in the machine', so the quality debate is not overshadowed by the technology and the extreme ideological stances both for and against it.

This chapter is followed by the closely related topic of 'Fit-for-purpose translation' in Chapter 27, where the indeterminate nature of quality is explored. Here Lynne Bowker discusses translation as a balancing act between the 'triple constraint' used in the project management field of quality, cost and time. Furthermore, the author points to 'a perception problem' in reference to the negative associations of the use of translation tools. Bowker reminds the reader that 'translations can be commissioned for a diverse range of purposes', while a translator's job is to 'choose the strategy best suited to producing a target text that fits the specified purpose'. With the technologization of translation, Bowker highlights, translators need to be able to optimize technologies to best meet different translation purposes, as specified by the clients. This may result in different levels of quality in translation, in conflict with professional ethics, which currently do not provide adequate guidance to translators in respect of the use of technologies. As much as there is a need for client education, Bowker stresses the need for professional translator (re)education to recognize the challenges and not denigrate translators who are catering for 'bulk translation services'. The final thought offered by Bowker is indeed ironic as she suggests: if lesser quality translations produced for different purposes start to affect the quality of the training data for MT, in turn affecting MT quality, fit-for-purpose translation may inadvertently ensure the survival of human translators. Bowker's last point relates to the increasing harvesting of translation as data used for machine learning, as discussed next.

In Chapter 28, 'Copyright and the re-use of translation as data', Joss Moorkens and Dave Lewis address the increasing secondary use of translation currently treated as a cheap commodity. This is becoming an issue in the advent of data-driven MT and especially for NMT, due to its requirement for a significant amount of training data for machine learning. The authors highlight that the metaphor of 'oil' or 'gold' used for the translation as training data implies they are naturally occurring, which is untrue, giving rise to the question of translation rights. The issue is that this subsequent benefit generated by the original translation is not passed on to the translator who translated the text. In view of the 1889 Berne Convention, which codified the copyright of translation as a derivative work, the authors point out that the current reuse of translation as data was not envisaged in the Convention, nor was its potential liability in relation to NMT. They argue that current copyright laws are not equipped to deal with the situation of the reuse of translation data, while new proposals, such as digital commons with a range of rights, could potentially be applied through professional translation organizations. The authors suggest the latter is more conducive to ensuring the sustainability of the translation industry by improving the redistribution of equity within translation production networks. The authors suggest that this could be realized in collective agreements accruing royalties to the translators, as is already the case among some subtitlers in Nordic countries. However, the chapter concludes that the forthcoming EU Directive on Copyright in the Digital Single Market is not likely to resolve the issue of translation copyright, which will remain as a key question requiring the attention of translators.

In Chapter 29, 'Media accessibility and accessible design', Aline Remael and Nina Reviers discuss media accessibility (MA), which has rapidly become integrated into research agendas in TS with practical implications for audiovisual translation (AVT) driven by digitization and globalization. The authors argue that in today's 'highly mediatized society', the accessibility of audiovisual content, and eventually accessible design, has become a central concern for society at large. They assert technology is making it 'theoretically' possible to cater for all types of media users, given the right policy and legislation. MA involves 'translation' of an 'intersemiotic and multi-modal' kind where aurally or visually conveyed information is converted into modes to suit the target audience's needs. For example, subtitles for the Deaf and the hard-of-hearing (SDH) involve a conversion from aural to visual mode where the target audiences can 'read' the dialogue. SDH now includes live subtitling, which is commonly delivered in the form of respeaking, whereby subtitles are generated synchronously through the use of speech recognition. The technology applications in this field are wide-ranging, from speech recognition and synthesis to MT as well as avatars used for sign interpreting. Initiatives on universal design for MA are well underway, with examples such as accessible filmmaking in which accessibility is foregrounded in the filmmaking process itself (Romero-Fresco 2018). Applying an actornetwork theory framework, this chapter critically traces the developments taking place in media accessibility in which practice and research interact with technologies exerting considerable force as enablers. In the unpredictable technological milieu, the authors see 'translation' in its broad sense as playing a major role of a key 'actant' to progress this significant social issue of the modern age of technologies towards universal design.

In Chapter 30, 'technology and translator training', **Dorothy Kenny** addresses the issue of translator training in the advent of technologization, comprehensively drawing on the growing literature in the field. Kenny argues 'a nuanced understanding of how technology and translation are intertwined should be a vital ingredient of any broad education in translation studies'. Kenny therefore advocates the view that technological competence need not remain merely 'instrumental' but can make 'a significant contribution to the development of critical citizenship'. The chapter provides a critical analysis of contemporary thinking behind translator training and education, which is then extended to a key concern for the long-term health of the translation industry, including economic factors such as 'technological unemployment' in the advent of AI. In the author's words the next challenge lies in 'the integration of machine learning into translator training', which would signify indeed a paradigm shift in translator education. Implicit in this chapter is ecological thinking, viewing translation and technology as an intrinsic part of the technologizing global world, which relates to the theme of the next final chapter.

In Chapter 31, 'Translation, technology and climate change', **Michael Cronin** interprets the agenda of translation and technology in terms of the big picture, employing ecological perspectives and proposing a new methodological approach based on eco-translation thinking. Cronin maintains that the fate of translation enterprise is inevitably implicated in what happens to technology which is, in turn, linked to accelerated climate change. This chapter constructs an argument through the notion of translation ecology, with the key concept of the 'posthuman' which provides an approach for understanding the deepening relationship developing between humans and digital technologies. Cronin insists on treating technology not as 'an inert tool' but as 'an animated part of the human ecosystem,

a constituent element of the translator's transversal subjectivity'. His ecological thinking in turn gives rise to a renewed perspective on ethical issues, as Cronin asks: 'Is it...ethically responsible and professionally adequate to train translators using technologies that will not be sustainable in an environmentally compromised future?' This line of concern relates to crisis translation settings (O'Brien in Chapter 18), which may only allow lowtech solutions due to the destruction of the communications infrastructure. Also, it relates to the issue raised by Moorkens and Lewis (Chapter 28) in questioning the continuing secondary use of translation as if it is a bottomless resource to feed into MT until it is depleted - or until eventually the translation quality deteriorates as a consequence of fit-for-purpose translation (Bowker in Chapter 27). In this critical age of climate change and rapid technologization, Cronin directs our attention to planetary contexts as a productive way to locate translation through an eco-translation framework, as we grapple with the role of humans in relation to the role of technologies in translation research and practice. Joining Ehrensberger-Dow and Massey (Chapter 21), Cronin advocates for transdisciplinary approaches to be adopted by scholars. This could usefully lead to a re-evaluation of the role of translation and translators in the age of technologization through collaboration with community members and organizations. In this way, Cronin argues, Translation Studies can participate in the critical dialogue at a time of environmental crises brought about by the Anthropocene era.

In summary

This volume sets out to discuss translation and technology as a growing yet disruptive relationship. Together the contributors paint a picture of a profession or an activity that is dynamic and plays important social and ecological roles, sustaining global communication needs for businesses and individuals in public and private spheres. The examples discussed in the volume span NMT, post-editing, ROM hacking, crisis translation in disaster settings, media accessibility and interpreting at a distance for the Deaf community, to name a few. The volume highlights the central position technologies are occupying in translation and in some interpreting practices while drawing the reader's attention to human agency. In all this, as already acknowledged by TS scholars, translation continues to defy an exact definition (Williams 2013: 5-9) and technological factors are only confirming the multiplicity of the practice and concept of translation. From a practising translator's perspective, Mark Polizzotti (2018: xi) describes in his Sympathy for the traitor: a translation manifesto the nature of translation work as ambivalent, 'skirt[ing] the boundaries between art and craft, originality and replication, altruism and commerce, genius and hack work'. His manifesto celebrates the variability of human translation and defends the oft-used analogy of a translator as a traitor in the sense that translation decisions are not always deducible from the words in the source text alone. The challenge for 'augmented translation' or any other advanced technology-mediated environment would therefore be to facilitate such a complex, ill-defined human decision-making process. The inquiry into the deepening connection between translation and technology, and also translation by the human and by the machine, will widen the scope for the future development of Translation Studies and the translation profession, as the contributors of this volume eloquently demonstrate. In the spirit of participatory culture, the more stakeholders who partake in the examination of what is happening with the human-machine unison or abrasion in contemporary translation, the more chance we have of grappling with the changes taking place. It is hoped that the diverse observations presented in this volume will provide a fresh impetus for theory building for scholars, which will enable translators to better navigate increasingly technologized environments that are complex, unpredictable and fragile. This in turn will help us ensure the survival and sustainable evolution of translation, in the advent of algorithm-led intelligence. Finally, the reference to 'entanglement' in the title of this introduction is borrowed from quantum physics. Described by Einstein as 'spooky action at a distance', quantum entanglement refers to the phenomenon where particles separated in space and time are inextricably linked (de Ronde and Massuri 2018). This deep-seated correlation and the synched status of two entities evokes the inescapable bond being formed between the human and the machine. It could be the vision for the future of the refined, if inscrutable, art of translation with human and machine learning enriching each other. This is ultimately related to the question of what it is to be human and a translator in the technologizing age.

Notes

- 1 See the abbreviations list in the References section for full forms of standards bodies and related acronyms.
- 2 Even as this article was being written, the core specifications of the treaty changed for the first time (and potentially last) time.
- 3 The reader should not imagine cassette tapes of any size: at end of day, enterprises would record entire data transactions for the day on a magnetic tape or tapes, often twice the size of a movie reel, and cart them off to some external storage site for safe keeping. In 1980, major institutions and companies had entire floors devoted to the storage of large reels of magnetic tape for data storage.
- 4 See http://rosettaproject.org/blog/02010/jul/21/building-audio-collection-all-worlds-languages/
- 5 * = Under Development [SC3]
- 1 TransSearch is commercialized by Terminotix: http://tsrali.com
- 2 www.linguee.com
- 3 www.tradooit.com
- 4 https://context.reverso.net
- 5 www.taus.net/history
- 6 http://commoncrawl.org/
- 1 https://cloud.google.com/speech/docs/languages
- 2 www.voxforge.org/
- 3 http://julius.sourceforge.jp/en_index.php
- 4 www.microsoft.com/en-us/garage/profiles/presentation-translator/
- 5 In the UK, Ofcom, the UK's communication regulator, sets out targets for broadcasters in their provision of access services captioning, audio description and sign language based on revenue and audience share. These targets are expressed as percentages of their total service, and they 'rise from a low level to the ten-year targets prescribed by the Act, that is 80% for subtitling, 5% for signing and 10% for audio description' (Ofcom 2017: 3).
- 6 https://techcrunch.com/2017/01/04/facebook-video-captions/
- 7 www.facebook.com/business/news/updated-features-for-video-ads
- 8 https://slator.com/press-releases/memogfest-2018-was-a-major-success/
- 1 The authors jointly discussed and designed the contents and style of the entire paper (co-authoring Introduction, Historical Trajectory and Conclusion). However, Colm Caffrey is mainly responsible for Translation Memories in the Division and Emerging Issues and Cristina Valentini for Terminology in the Division, and Corpora, MT and Machine Learning in WIPO Pearl.
- 2 As of October 2018, the responsibility for supporting translation and terminology technology throughout WIPO was given to the newly created 'Translation and Terminology Technology Section' in the PCT Translation Division. Similarly, the Terminology Unit, which remains under the Support Section in the PCT Translation Division, has also been given the mandate to harmonize methodology and procedures of terminology work in the Organization.
- 3 http://www.wipo.int/patentscope/en/
- 4 Nematus-Theano and Marian are NMT toolkits and AmuNMT is an NMT decoder.

- 5 For Arabic, data from PCT translations, the International Telecommunication Union and WIPO's Language Division was also used.
- 6 All averages in this paragraph were calculated using a corpus of 342,847 Japanese-language abstracts.
- 7 Over 505,000 TUs as of June 2018. While substantial in size, the number of TUs is substantially lower than those used for the WIPO Translate NMT (see Table 8.1). This is to avoid potential performance issues concerning speed and relevance of content.
- 8 http://www.wipo.int/reference/en/wipopearl
- 9 See WIPO Pearl for the full list of partners. Universities typically have a terminology module in their curriculum and students' work is revised at different stages before work is finally submitted and integrated in the PCT Termbase (Frérot 2017).
- 1 Other terms instead of technical are 'functional' or 'commercial'.
- 2 See segate.sunet.se/cgi-bin/wa?A0=LANTRA-L.
- 3 See, for instance, the back cover of the ATA Chronicle 10/31, 2002.
- 4 As of November 2018, see proz.com/about.
- 5 See prozcomblog.com/2013/03/22/cat-tool-use-by-translators-who-is-using.
- 6 See arts.kuleuven.be/ling/ccl/projects/scate (retrieved November 2018). SCATE is a multiinstitutional European research project sponsored by the Belgian Agentschap Innoveren & Ondernemen (see arts.kuleuven.be/ling/ccl/projects/scate/facts).
- 7 See appstore.sdl.com/list/?search=machine%20translation.
- 8 See, for instance, Weinberger 2017. Here Olivier Fontana, the Director of Product Strategy and Marketing, Microsoft Translator, discusses a new automated translation feature in PowerPoint. He is quoted with 'The team behind the new feature was inspired by Captain Kirk and company' and 'Our goal is to break the language barrier'.
- 1 Errors are annotated based on a set of error categories (see Figure 11.1) from MNH-TT (Babych *et al.* 2012), a collaborative translation training platform. This set of categories provides an error typology designed specifically for scaffolding translator competence. It is optimized for translator training and customized for the English–Japanese language combination. See also Yamada (2019) for details.
- 1 The boundaries between professional and non-professional translation in general are often fluid and not clearly established according to TS literature (i.e. Jääskelainen, Kujamäki and Jukka 2010, Grbič and Kujamäki 2018).
- 2 Activist translations represents a technology—mediated process in which 'translators enact their agency and affiliations' by means of 'choosing what texts to translate, in which manner, and for what purposes' (Carcelen Estrada 2018: 261). In the context of translation and activism, collaborative practices are currently being used as 'instrument[s] of human political intervention' (Cronin 2010: 102), in a way that the combination of technologies and activism can be used to 'to further human concerns or agendas' (ibid).
- 3 https://www.ted.com/about/programs-initiatives/ted-translators
- 4 https://www.viki.com/community
- 5 https://www.khanacademy.org/contribute
- 6 https://translate-coursera.org/
- 7 This process is known as 'scanlation' (Simo and Rosaria 2005), or 'a streamlined manga fan translation practice where officially published pages of manga are first scanned digitally, translated and distributed often through internet channels by fans' (O'Hagan 2008: 162).
- 8 According to TED's website the tasks of the 'language coordinators' are to 'elevate translation quality', 'support collaboration', 'mentor new volunteers' or 'perform the final proofread of subtitles (approval step)' (TED np.).
- 9 Unbabel offers both a paid and unpaid/volunteer option in its platform and can thus accommodate both professional and non-professional participation.
- 1 It is a convention within the Deaf Community that the word 'Deaf' with a capital 'D' denotes a member of the sign language using Deaf Community, rather than someone who cannot hear or who has lost their hearing and continues to identify with the wider community.
- 1 www.ifrc.org/en/what-we-do/disaster-management/about-disasters/what-is-a-disaster/ [last accessed 26 Oct. 2017].
- 2 See: https://mymemory.translated.net/ [last accessed 28 October 2017].

- 3 See: http://translatorswithoutborders.org/twbnewsletter/04/the-translators-without-borders-translator-survey/ [last accessed 28 Oct. 2017].
- 4 See: https://reliefweb.int/report/world/reliefweb-glossary-humanitarian-terms [last accessed 28 Oct. 2017].
- 5 http://app.translatorswb.org/ [last accessed 28 Oct. 2017].
- 6 Note that at the time of writing The Rosetta Foundation had merged with TWB.
- 7 www.darpa.mil/program/low-resource-languages-for-emergent-incidents [last accessed: 08 Nov. 2017]
- 8 Personal communication, Mirko Plitt, TWB, 13/11/2017.
- 9 http://voicetra.nict.go.jp/en/index.html [last accessed 08 Nov. 2017].
- 10 www.fujitsu.com/global/about/resources/news/press-releases/2017/0919-01.html [last accessed 08 Nov. 2017].
- 11 This question is being tackled, at the time of writing, by the H2020-funded INTERACT project (grant agreement No 734211), which is testing and evaluating training materials for citizen translators in disaster settings. Further information is available in: Federici and Cadwell (2018).
- 1 Examples of other studies examining the feasibility of post-editing relative to 'from-scratch' translation include Carl *et al.* (2011) and Jia, Carl and Wang (2019). For a summary, see Screen (2019).
- 2 See https://lilt.com/.
- 3 See https://lilt.com/kb/memory/mt.
- 4 See https://unbabel.com/translators/ for a similar example.
- 1 http://producthelp.sdl.com/SDL_TMS_2011/en/Creating_and_Maintaining_Organizations/Managing_QA_Models/LISA_QA_Model.htm
- 2 A detailed discussion of historical and current approaches to the evaluation of translation quality can also be found in the list of further reading.
- 3 www.qt21.eu/quality-metrics/
- 4 www.taus.net/evaluate/dqf-background
- 5 www.iso.org/standard/59149.html
- 6 www.kantanmt.com/overview-measure.php
- 7 www.statmt.org/wmt18/
- 8 www.mt-archive.info/
- 9 www.gala-global.org/
- 1 Barrachina *et al.* (2009) refer to this metric as keystroke ratio (KSR). They also consider the number of mouse actions (MSR) and the total of both keystrokes and mouse actions (KSMR) divided by the number of characters in the final target text.
- 2 In the International Standard on human-centred design for interactive systems (ISO 9241-210), user experience is defined as 'person's perceptions and responses resulting from the use and/or anticipated use of a product, system or service'.
- 3 See also Jakobsen's (2003) considerations on the use of Think Aloud Protocols in translation process research.
- 4 Cleveland and McGill (1984) empirically tested how accurately participants can make 'a quick visual judgement'. They provide an ordering of means for information encoding from most to least accurate: '1. Position along a common scale; 2. Positions along nonaligned scales; 3. Length, direction, angle; 4. Area; 5. Volume, curvature; 6. Shading, colour saturation'.
- 1 According to Google Scholar, the McCulloch and Pitt paper had been cited over 15,000 times by late 2018.
- 2 A recent commentary on Shannon's work, including the notion of a Noisy Channel, is available in an MIT news article (http://news.mit.edu/2010/explained-shannon-0115).
- Unicode allows multiple languages to be stored in the same file without the fragile representations of non-English text used previously (e.g., ISO 2022). ISO 2022 was fragile because it was 'stateful'. The interpretation had to begin at an escape character, which could be far away from the desired text. Thus, a single-bit error in an escape character could cause hundreds or even thousands of subsequent bytes to be misinterpreted. Early computers and word processors used single-byte approaches without escape characters, mostly EBCDIC and ASCII, which allowed only English characters and punctuation. They included a few accents (e.g., acute, grave, circumflex and tilde)

- separate from the character they modified, to be represented directly, but no accented characters could be represented as a single code point.
- 4 A bitext is a source text with a corresponding translation; segmented and aligned, usually at the sentence or paragraph level. For more information, see Harris (1988) and Melby (2015).
- 5 For this work, Kilby shared the year 2000 Nobel Prize in physics: see www.nobelprize.org/prizes/physics/2000/summary/
- 6 For major updates to Lamb's approach see Lamb (1999, 2016).
- 7 The programme of the January 2019 conference of the Linguistic Society of America (www. linguisticsociety.org/node/9647/schedule) indicates that pursuing a universal deep structure underlying all languages is not part of the current research agenda for theoretical linguists.
- 8 For more on the history of neural networks and the influence of McCulloch and Pitt's article, see Rojas (2013). For in-depth information about McCulloch, see a recent biography by Abraham (2016) and an analysis of McCulloch's article (Piccinini 2004).
- 1 I use the term *start text* rather than *source text* because technologies mean that translations are these days produced from translation memories, glossaries and machine-translation proposals, all of which are as much a 'source' as the text the translator actually starts from. The term also brings us into line with what is said in neighbouring languages: *Ausgangstext*, *texte de départ*, *texto de partida*, for example.
- 1 Dormehl (2016: 156) commented that if 'data is the oil of the digital economy, then we need to place a proper valuation on it'.
- 2 This practice, in which translations are 'produced not from the original, but from an existing translation in another language' is common for minor language subtitling (Gottlieb 1994: 117).
- 3 LSPs commonly expect or impose discounts for 'perfect and near matches' from a TM when paying a translator per word for a translation (García 2006: 97).
- 4 Early NMT systems usually comprized several types of neural network and an 'attention mechanism', which predicted likely collocates for words. The transformer model focuses on this attention mechanism, dispensing with many of the other neural networks. Vaswani *et al.* (2017) found this model to produce superior results, leading to its popularization within the MT research community.
- 1 A list of some major projects is provided separately with annotations.
- 1 See, for example, arguments summed up in Kenny (1999:65–66) and Bowker (2015: 89–90).
- 2 On the broad distinction between translator training and translator education, see Bernardini (2004).
- 3 Most commentators would include the following under 'computer-aided translation' tools: translation memory tools with their associated quality assurance and text analysis tools and terminology management tools.
- 4 Probably the first mention of the ALPS Translation Support System being used in academia relates to its deployment in Computer-Aided Language Learning (Corness 1986).
- 5 Another early intervention in this field is that of L'Homme (1999).
- 6 The University of Limerick's now superseded MSc in Multilingual Computing and Localisation, founded in 1997, was billed in 2015 as the first and the longest running postgraduate localization education programme in the world (www.localisation.ie/education/, last accessed Jul. 31, 2017).
- 7 See, for example, Freigang (2001). The MA in Translation Studies at Dublin City University, founded in 1992, had also begun offering a dedicated module in software localization by 1997, alongside its already established module in translation technology. By 2000, the Monterey Institute of International Studies, California and Kent State University in Ohio were also offering training in localization and project management to language and translation students (Esselink 2000:10).
- 8 Somers (2001: 25) observes that a small number of papers that had appeared in the 1980s on the subject of machine translation and teaching were 'rather general in nature'.
- 9 Language Engineering for Translators' Curricula. See www.iai-sb.com/forschung/content/view/ 37/50/ and www.iai-sb.com/docs/D22.pdf [last accessed Jul. 31, 2017].
- 10 www.leeds.ac.uk/arts/info/125053/centrefortranslationstudies/1807/researchandinnovation/5 [last accessed Jul. 31, 2017]
- 11 www.leeds.ac.uk/arts/info/125053/centrefortranslationstudies/1807/researchandinnovation/7 [last accessed Jul. 31, 2017]

- 12 www.leeds.ac.uk/arts/info/125053/centrefortranslationstudies/1807/researchandinnovation/6 [last accessed Jul. 31, 2017]
- 13 http://mellange.eila.jussieu.fr/index.en.shtml [last accessed Jul. 31, 2017]
- 14 www.certt.ca [last accessed Jan. 31, 2019]
- 15 http://linguistech.ca [last accessed Jan. 31, 2019]
- 16 https://ec.europa.eu/info/education/european-masters-translation-emt/european-masters-translation-emt-explaineden#documents [last accessed Jul. 31, 2017]
- 17 The importance of the involvement of the European Union in initiatives to support translation, translation technology and translator training cannot be underestimated. No doubt much of this involvement serves the political interests of the Union, which is concerned with protecting institutional multilingualism at the same time as controlling the associated costs, and for whom youth unemployment and migration present major challenges. The maintenance of a healthy language industry, the prioritization of employability as an educational outcome (in the Bologna process and initiatives such as the EMT network), and the control of translation costs through increased technologization, all serve to meet these challenges.
- 18 www.ressources.univ-rennes2.fr/service-relations-internationales/optimale/ [last accessed Jul. 31, 2017]
- 19 www.instb.eu [last accessed Jan. 31, 2019]
- 20 Note that there is no consistency between commentators in the terminology used to describe what I call here 'procedural' and 'conceptual' knowledge.
- 21 Note also that in other fields, for example mathematics education, there is evidence that conceptual and procedural knowledge support each other, and grow iteratively (Rittle-Johnson and Scheider 2015). In the absence of relevant research in the acquisition of translation technology competence, we might hypothesize that conceptual and procedural knowledge are also mutually reinforcing in our field.
- 22 The affective dimension is also prevalent in work concerned with technology acceptance. See, for example, Koskinen and Ruokonen (2017).
- 23 Assertions about the likely automation of even non-routine, cognitive jobs are now legion. Most are based on an analysis conducted in 2013 and published as Frey and Osborne (2017). Surowiecki (2017) provides a sceptical response.

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