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Translation quality, use and dissemination in an Internet era: using single-translation and multi-translation parallel corpora to research translation quality on the Web

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ABSTRACT

The Internet revolution is having a profound impact on the practice and theorisation of translation. Among the many changes induced by this revolution, this corpus-based study focuses on the impact of the immediacy afforded by the Internet on the fuzzy notion of translation quality. If this notion is understood as a relative construct due to economic and time constraints (Hönig 1998), increased time pressure entails inevitable compromises between access to information and translation quality. In order to research this issue, this paper contrasts the quality in a corpus of White House official translations of Obama's speeches to a parallel corpus of similar translations released by online media immediately after their delivery. Following previous time-pressure studies (De Rooze 2003), an error-based quality analysis is used and the differences between both textual populations are quantitatively and qualitatively described. In a second stage, the quality of the translations under pressure is contrasted with their reuse or reposting on the WWW. The results of this analysis do not show a direct relationship between translation quality and the potential for use and subsequent reuse. Rather, there seems to be a direct relationship between translation reuse and the volume of traffic of the website in which a translation was posted. This study sheds some light on the uneven relationship between translation quality, time pressure enhanced by Internet immediacy and the impact of translated texts on receiving cultures.

KEYWORDS

Time pressure studies, translation quality, multi-translation parallel corpora, corpora and translation

1. Introduction

For centuries, the control of the quantity and quality of the translations that have circulated around the world has been in the hands of academic, governmental or publishing institutions. The Internet revolution is challenging this model and, currently, anyone with an Internet connection can produce and distribute translations globally (Munday 2008; O'Hagan 2012). Translations have found a new revolutionary medium to reach an ever expanding global audience, and this has brought changes that were unthinkable a couple of decades ago. For Translation Studies, the greater democratisation in translational activity, coupled with the huge amount of translations available online, pose new challenges to established models and conceptualisations (Jiménez-Crespo 2012a, 2013). This is the case of translation quality in an era defined by digital immediacy. There seems to be a shifting balance between quality associated to professional expertise (Muñoz Sánchez 2009; Shreve 2006b) and immediate access to contents. The possibility of reaching a wider audience does not necessarily mean that end users skillfully navigate the WWW when searching for translated

content. In fact, users might retrieve whichever translations can be accessed faster or first, even when higher quality or more adequate translations might be available. The starting question for this paper therefore is: is professional translation quality being redefined in our new Internet age?

In general, the ways in which human (as opposed to machine) translations are distributed and used online are having a profound impact on the practice and theorisation of translation. This is not an isolated phenomenon, as the technological revolution is rapidly redefining many tenets of modern translation theories, such as the notion of unitary source and target texts (Bowker 2006; Jiménez-Crespo 2009a, 2013; Pym 2010), the relationship between dominant and minority languages and cultures (Cronin 2003, 2013), the distinction between professional or non-professional translation (O'Hagan 2012), the boundaries between machine and human translations with the new post-editing paradigm (García 2010a, 2010b), or the fact that translation can proceed without a complete source text (Pym 2010, 2004). From a professional perspective, translation practices are being reshaped worldwide, from advances in assisted translation technology (Daelemans and Hoste 2009) to communication practices between all agents in the translation process (Gouadec 2007).

This paper is motivated by two specific recent phenomena:

- 1) The fact that the Internet allows for different translations of the same source text to be globally available.
- 2) The fact that when several translations of the same source text are available, Internet users might not necessarily retrieve or use the one with the highest quality.

This is a vital issue in Translation Studies as the impact of the Internet on society has the potential to redefine the attitudes towards translators and translation. In order to analyse these phenomena, this study contrasts the quality of translations under pressure published online to those produced without marked time constraints. Translations of President Obama's speeches are used, as they represent a prime example of how certain events create such global expectations that the time pressure to distribute translations is dramatically increased (Jimenez-Crespo 2012b). Given that quality is understood in relative terms (Hönig 1998), the first step in the study will be to obtain a quality comparative baseline upon which to compare translations under pressure in the WWW. This will be accomplished through an analysis of speech translations posted by the White House on their websites, as they arguably represent the most reliable source of professional quality standard for the genre under study. This quality baseline will be contrasted to the quality of translations under pressure collected immediately following Obama's speeches (2012b). Methodologically, two parallel corpora of translations of speeches are used: on the one hand, a multi translation corpus of Obama's inaugural speech

in the Spanish language media (2012b) and a corpus of official speech translations from the website <http://iipdigital.usembassy.gov/>. The first group embodies the impact of the immediacy afforded by the Internet on translation processes and products, and the second represents the more traditional 'authoritative' translation model. For both groups, the Internet provides the medium to reach a global audience, but both embody two distinct translation contexts, one represented by news agency translations in which immediacy is key to its purpose (Bielsa and Bassnet 2009; Hajmohmmadi 2005), and another in which quality is in principle more important than digital immediacy.

Given the dynamic and novel nature of technology, as well as its impact on Translation Studies, the next section reviews from a theoretical standpoint how this revolution is changing the theorisation and practice of translation.

2. Internet, technology and translation: from medium of dissemination to fertile ground for digital genres

Technology has been rapidly changing the practice of translation and its profession. From the wide availability of computers since the late 1980s to the WWW revolution in the 1990s, translators and trainers have been constantly adapting to technology advances (Gouadec 2007; García 2009; Alcina 2009). Nowadays, the concept 'translator's workbench' (Bowker 2002; Quah 2006) has evolved from an ideal technological setup for the professional to sheer necessity. This impact has not only changed professional practices, but it has also brought new trends in empirical research and the theorisation of translation. According to Munday (2008: 179):

The emergence of new technologies has transformed translation practice and is now exerting an impact on research and, as a consequence, on the theorization of translation.

This impact can be witnessed by the increasing attention of researchers in the field, mostly focusing on translation memory tools (i.e. L'Homme 1999; Austerlühl 2001; Bowker 2002, 2005; Höge 2002; Corpas and Varela 2003; Reinke 2004; Freigang 2005; Wallis 2008; Diaz Fouges 2009; Daelemans and Hoste 2009; García 2009), on globalisation (Cronin 2003, 2013), or the impact of technology in translator training (Kenny 1999; Alcina 2008; García 2010; Jiménez-Crespo 2014). Within the framework of 'shifts' or 'turns' in Translation Studies (Snell-Hornby 2004), scholars have even begun to signal the existence of a 'technological turn' in the discipline (O'Hagan 2013). It is logical to assume that current and future translation practices and theorisations cannot be understood without the constant development of new technologies (Jiménez-Crespo 2012a; Hartley 2008). This technological influence will continue to redefine "the role, relationship and status of translators" (Munday 2008: 192), together with a redefinition of the role, relationship and status of 'translations' in receiving cultures. If these changes brought by the technology and the Internet are closely examined, they can be summarised as follows:

- a) New translation modalities have emerged, such as software localisation (Esselink 2000), web localisation (Jiménez-Crespo 2008, 2013), videogame localisation (O'Hagan and Mangiron 2013; Chandler and O'Malley 2011), teletranslation, teleinterpreting, etc. (O'Hagan and Ashworth 2003).
- b) It has changed many processes and procedures in the profession, such as communication practices or new file types beyond traditional paper or .doc files (Gouadec 2007). This is not an isolated phenomenon as, already in 2005, 54% of British translators claimed that they translated web-based materials (Reinke 2005). Obviously, technology and the Internet has led to faster turnaround (Pym 2010; Garcia 2009; Bowker and Barlow 2006), also modifying the expectations of both end users and translation agencies.
- c) It has opened a new era, in which non-professional translations, localisations and subtitling are commonplace on the Web, the so-called 'crowdsourcing model' or 'User Generated Translations' (O'Hagan 2012, 2009).
- d) An increasing amount of translated texts are the result of many translators, thus challenging the individual character of translation (Pym 2010; Tymozcko 2005).
- e) The flow of translations from minority cultures into English has increased dramatically (Gouadec 2007; Cronin 2003).
- f) The Internet allows for anonymous or user-generated translations to be posted (Cronin 2010), thus challenging the more authoritative model in printed translations.
- g) The Internet revolution has led to the development of new digital genres, some of which are now among the most translated genres globally. This is the case of corporate websites or social networking sites (Jiménez-Crespo 2012a, 2008; Santini 2007; Kennedy and Shepherd 2005).
- h) There is an increased tendency to work with decontextualised segments due to web localisation strategies, content management systems or web-based translation memories (Pym 2010; Jiménez-Crespo 2009a; Shreve 2006a).
- i) The notion of quality in translation is being redefined (Jiménez-Crespo 2012, 2009b), mostly through the impact of Internet immediacy, translation crowdsourcing, funsubs, and the constant improvements in online corpus-based machine translation.

This last issue of quality is the main focus of this paper, as the enormous volume of translated web content approaches translation quality to international quality standards' definitions: the ability to meet and satisfy

translation users' implied needs (ISO 9000)¹. The issue at hand is that, if translation quality is understood as a relative notion (Hönig 1998), in certain WWW contexts users might be satisfied with a funsub translation found on the Internet or a translated newspaper article using Google Translate (Quah 2006). This certainly moves the focus of translation quality from translators to end users through the inclusion of implicit constraints that are accepted and assumed by recipients. Additionally, in minority cultures with limited access to translated content, access to information might be a more determinant factor than translation quality in certain situations. User centered approaches to translation quality are definitely not new to the discipline (Nida and Taber 1974), but the immediacy and volume of content on the Internet reinforces the idea that quality is context dependent (Wright 2006) and in no means an absolute notion (Gouadec 2007; Hönig 1998).

The textual populations represented in this study respond to two distinct communicative contexts in which users might consciously or subconsciously prime, for example, immediate access to contents over translation quality. The empirical study analyses the extent to which quality is impacted by time pressure and whether this impact extends to the capacity of translations to fulfill their purpose, understood here as their potential reuse or reposting in other sites.

3. Empirical study

In this empirical study, the quality of ten published translations under pressure will be compared to the quality of a representative sample of official translations published on the White House website. The analysis of this second parallel corpus will provide a quality baseline upon which to compare the effect of time pressure on those translations produced under this context. Thus, even when both textual populations share the same medium for distribution, the underlying assumption is that time pressure will result in distinct features in translation products (De Rooze 2003; Jensen 1999). This might lead to a potential distorted view of the source text and culture in the eyes of the target recipients. The hypotheses set forth for this empirical study are:

1. Published translated texts under pressure will show distinct features and lower quality levels if compared to similar published texts produced in a more regular professional context.
2. In the Internet era, translations of the same source text with different levels of quality will have the same probability of being used.

It should be stressed that a small number of experimental studies with subjects have already explored the impact of time pressure on translation processes, mostly from a cognitive perspective (Hansen and Hönig 2000; Jensen 1999, 2000; De Rooze 2003; Sharmin *et al.* 2008; Pym 2009). Nevertheless, to date no study has explored the impact of time pressure in actual published texts available to users, that is, product-based studies

instead of process-based ones. Thus, it should be mentioned that the fact the compiled texts have been ‘published’ online would be one of the main differences between this study and previous experimental ones, as well as its contribution to the body of knowledge on translation under pressure. The following section describes in detail the corpora compilation process and the contrastive methodology used.

3.1. Methodology

Two corpus-based methodologies are combined in this study: a parallel corpus of source texts with their respective target Spanish translations (Baker 1995), and a parallel corpus of one source text with multiple translations (Laviosa 2002; Malmkjær 1998). The latter methodology is less frequent in Translation Studies, and it has been mostly used to study translator’s style in literary texts or the work of translation trainees.

The first parallel corpus comprises translations of Obama’s inaugural speech on Jan 20th 2009. It was compiled during the 12 hours following its delivery at 12 p.m. Eastern US time. This corpus will be referred to as PCUP (Parallel Corpus of translations Under Pressure). Most Spanish-language online news outlets posted translations or bilingual versions, while some of them opted for the source English version². The Google News search engine was used and 28 Spanish translations were found. Nevertheless, most news outlets published the translation provided by the largest Spanish-language news agency, EFE, and therefore, only 11 different translations were later identified.

	News outlet	Total
Translations in PCUP corpus	EFE News Agency, ABC (Spain), El País (Spain), El Universal (México), US Embassy (El Salvador, Nicaragua), La Cuarta (Chile), La Jornada (Mexico), La Vanguardia (Spain), Periodista Digital (Spain), Sendero y Peaje (USA)	10
Incomplete translations	<i>El País</i> (Costa Rica)	1
Editions of the EFE Agency translation	<i>Diario Burgos</i> (Spain), Univisión TV website (United States), <i>Clarín</i> (Argentina)	3
Online news outlets using the EFE translation	<i>Ideal group</i> (Spain), <i>El Mundo</i> (Spain), <i>Miami Herald</i> (USA), <i>La nacional</i> (Chile), <i>Diario de las Americas</i> (USA), <i>El Correo</i> (Spain), <i>El Periódico</i> (Spain), etc.	

Table 1. Final composition of the PCUP corpus (Parallel Corpus of translations Under Pressure) and summary of compilation process.

After a closer analysis, the translation posted by the Costa Rican paper *El País* was rejected because it only included 40% of the source speech. As far as the file types, most online postings were in HTML format, with a few others using PDF, mostly the version provided by the EFE News Agency. Table 2 shows the complete data for the PCUP corpus. All translations were randomly assigned a sequential number, from TRA1 to TRA10. All analyses were carried out using Wordsmith Tools. The total number of words in the translation under pressure corpus is 24,624, with an average of 2462 words per translation, while the original speech contained 2401 words.

PCUP corpus	Source- tokens	Target Tokens	Target Types
TRA1	2401	2617	981
TRA7	2401	2572	1017
TRA10	2401	2527	943
TRA2	2401	2524	968
TRA4	2401	2481	933
TRA8	2401	2466	934
TRA9	2401	2448	931
TRA6	2401	2438	928
TRA5	2401	2289	851
TRA3	2401	2262	837
TOTAL		24,624	2464

Table 2. PCUP statistics and composition.

The second parallel corpus was compiled on July 14th 2010, using the website <http://iipdigital.usembassy.gov/>. This website is localised into Spanish, French, Chinese, Russian, Arabic and Persian, and most speeches are translated into all six target languages³. Ten presidential speeches and their translations into Spanish were compiled. This corpus will be referred to as PCOT (Parallel Corpus of Official Translations). The number of tokens or running words for each speech varies from 6021 to 444. The total number of source running words is 37,288.

Corpus Official Translations	Source tokens	Target tokens	Source types	Target types
Text 1 "Address to the Joint Session of Congress." Feb. 24 th , 2010	6021	6419	1456	1766
Text 2 "Remarks at Summit on Entrepreneurship." April 26 th , 2010	2336	2488	741	860
Text 3 "Remarks at the New School Graduation." July 7 th , 2009	4232	4548	1166	1327
Text 4 "Remarks at Cairo University." June 4 th , 2009	5831	6132	1439	1644

Text 5 "Protecting Our Security and Our Values." May 21st, 2010	6040	6262	1421	1668
Text 6 "Remarks at the the Esperanza National Hispanic Prayer Breakfast." June 19 th , 2009	1524	1582	503	561
Text 7 "Remarks at Re-Opening of Ford's Theatre." Feb. 11 th , 2009	444	516	226	250
Text 8 "Address on Immigration Reform." July 1 st , 2010	4167	4449	1278	1433
Text 9 "UN climate speech." Sept 22 nd , 2009	1540	1604	569	627
Text 10 "Remarks to the UN General Assembly." Sept. 23 rd , 2010	5151	5508	1348	1591
Total	37,288	39,508	4502	5924

Table 3. Comparative table of tokens and types in the corpus of official translations (PCOT).

Despite the relatively small size of both parallel corpora, they are representative of the textual population targeted, and can be extremely useful in this type of research (Johansson 1991; Malmkjaer 1998). The relatively small size of the corpus is, as Malmkjaer (1998: 7) predicted, due to the difficulty in finding many real life translations of the same source text:

The problem, of course, would be that there are not many genres which include texts that have had several translations made of them, so that anyone wishing to use this methodology would probably be forced either to rely on literary texts or to commission the translations.

This study can therefore be considered a contrastive initial analysis that, depending on the results, can lead to larger analyses in order to confirm the findings in this or other text types or genres (Malmkjaer 1998). This study can also spark other empirical studies that can test other hypotheses. The variables used in the empirical study are quality (Q) and reuse-access to translations on the Internet (IRUse). Following a previous translation under pressure study (de Rooze 2003), quality will be assessed using an error-based model that focuses on the error types that according to this experimental study are mostly recurrent in time pressure conditions⁴: calques, typographic or spelling errors, and inadequate additions/omissions. This last category is defined as deviations from the original that add or subtract inadequate propositional content and cannot be associated to any particular translation strategy (i.e. Vinay and Darlbertnet 1958). All other translation errors are grouped under the 'other' category (OT). For this last category, the review of error types in Translation Studies by Martínez and Hurtado (2001) was used. The researchers point out that, in most typologies, three error categories appear depending on the etiology of the error: (a) errors relating to the source text, such as

wrong sense, omission, no sense, etc., (b) errors relating to the target text, such as grammar, lexical or style errors, and (c) pragmatic and functional errors, that is, those related to inadequacies as far as the function or 'skopos' of the translation is concerned (Reiss and Vermeer 1984). The variable reuse (IRUse) will serve to measure through Google and Bing how many times the translations were reposted online. Finally, the traffic rankings of the sites in which the translations were posted will also be used as a variable (TRank).

3.1.1. Methodology to measure quality and Internet reuse.

Despite the limitations of error-based analyses (Waddington 2001; Williams 2004; Colina 2009; Angelelli 2009; Drugan 2013), the notion of quality needs to be operationalized using this approach. Consequently, the quality analysis does not take into account other user-based (Nida and Taber 1974; Nobs 2006), discourse/textual (House 1997) or empirical holistic approaches to quality evaluation (Colina 2009; Angelelli 2009). For the contrastive purposes intended, this error-based approach can provide reliable data in order to perform contrastive quality analyses. Most importantly, it can provide a reliable method to establish intragroup quality rankings.

All source and target texts in both corpora were aligned using the parallel corpus tool Paraconc (Althelstan). Following previous studies on tagging translation errors on corpora (Lopez and Tercedor 2008), each translation was analysed side by side with the source text. The translations were tagged manually by the author using the previously mentioned error types⁵:

a) Spelling and typographic errors (<ORT>). These are defined following Spilka's (1998) notion of 'mistake', and in the translations under study they are related either to erroneous use of typographic conventions (such as commas, capitalisations, numbering conventions), directly transferring certain uses of the hyphen or dash into Spanish, typing errors, etc. As an example, in the following segment a comma is missing:

Translation: La gente ha perdido hogares, empleos [,] negocios.
(People have lost homes, jobs [,] business.)

Source text: Homes have been lost; jobs shed; businesses shuttered.

In the next example is a typing error in which the Spanish preposition *por* 'for' and the determinant *esta* 'this' are misspelled as *pos* and *estar* respectively:

Translation: ...así como <ORT>*pos* la generosidad y cooperación que ha demostrado en <ORT>*estar* transición... (...as well as *fos* the generosity and cooperation he has shown throughout this*ed* transition...)

Source text: ...as well as the generosity and cooperation he has shown throughout this transition...

b) Accent marks. A specific case of typographic errors in Spanish are those related to accent marks, and they were separated in a specific category due to their language-specific nature. As shown in Figure 1, they were marked with the tag <ACC> in the corpus. In the following example, the adverb *más* 'more' is missing the required accent mark.

Translation: ...que estamos dispuestos a ejercer nuestro liderazgo una vez <ACC>mas⁶. Source text: ...that we are ready to lead once more.

N	Concordance	Set	Tag	Word No.	File	%
29	promise of citizenship. <ACC>este es el precio			4,080	univ~1.txt	87
30	And all this we will do. <ACC>ésto es lo que va			1,683	uar~1.txt	36
31	or la confianza que me <ACC>habeis otorgado, c			47	riod~1.txt	1
32	ostoso y cada día trae <ACC>mas evidencia en			449	univ~1.txt	10
33	randes capitales a los <ACC>mas pequeños pu			2,466	uar~1.txt	53
34	oder es mayor cuanto <ACC>mas prudente <O			2,721	jorn~1.txt	57
35	o porque es el camino <ACC>mas seguro para			2,348	jorn~1.txt	49
36	a regañadientes sino <ACC>mas bien con aleg			4,209	riod~1.txt	87
37	sabiendo que nada es <ACC>mas satisfactorio			4,061	uar~1.txt	87
38	stro liderazgo una vez <ACC>mas. Recall that e			2,598	jorn~1.txt	54
39	r, basada en intereses <ACC>mútuos y respeto			3,144	uar~1.txt	67
40	C>mútuos y respetos <ACC>mútuos. To those			3,147	uar~1.txt	67
41	Concord y Gettysburg, <ACC>Normandia y Khe			1,208	der~1.txt	25
42	siendo la nación más <ACC>prospera y podero			1,297	uar~1.txt	28
43	e día con recuerdo, de <ACC>quienes somos y			4,445	riod~1.txt	92
44	e menos de 60 años y <ACC>quién <OT>trabaja			4,233	univ~1.txt	90
45	e nuestro poderío por <ACC>si solo no podría			2,577	uar~1.txt	55
46	o muy pequeño, sino <ACC>si acaso <CAL>tr			1,916	uar~1.txt	41

Figure 1. Screen capture of a corpus search using the accent mark error tag <ACC>.

c) Calques. The identification of lexical and syntactic calques was carried out with the support of authoritative dictionaries and style guides, online Spanish corpora such as the CREA from the Spanish Royal Academy, as well as online searches. The tags <CAS> and <CAL> were used:

Lexical calque. Translation: Cuarenta y cuatro estadounidenses han prestado <CAL>*ahora* juramento presidencial (Forty four Americans have just taken the presidential oath).

Source text: Forty-four Americans have now taken the presidential oath.

Syntactic calque. Translation <CAS>*En reafirmar* la grandeza de nuestro país...

Source text: In reaffirming the greatness of our nation⁷...

d) Omissions and additions. Inadequate omission and additions in this study were defined as those that either subtracted or added considerable propositional content from the source text, and not legitimate translation strategies (Vinay and Darlbert 1958). The tag <OM> was used. Omissions were much more prevalent than additions in both corpora, especially the corpus under pressure. Normally, most omissions were

related to difficulties in translating some segments, such as the following in which the entire subordinate clause was omitted:

Omission. Translation: ...seguimos siendo una nación joven, pero como dice la <ORT>escritura, <OM> (We remain a young nation, but in the words of Scripture, Ø)

Source text: We remain a young nation, but in the words of Scripture, *the time has come to set aside childish things.*

e) Other errors. An additional category was created for all other translation errors other than the ones above, such as distortions. The tag <OT> was used for this type of inadequacy.

In order to analyse the reuse on the Internet (variable= IRUse), the search engines Bing and Google were used. Both search engines were combined in order to guarantee that the results would not be biased by the search procedures of any particular search engine. From each translation, 10 segments that included one or more errors or typos were selected throughout the entire text, such as the segment “Cuarenta y cuatro estadounidenses han prestado <CAL>*ahora* juramento presidencial” (Forty four Americans have just taken the presidential oath.) that includes the lexical calque. Using segments from the beginning, middle and end of the document guaranteed that the results would not be biased due to repostings of small sections from the beginning of the speech. Each of the 10 segments per translation was searched using the ‘exact match’ search function, or in other words, placing the segments in quotation marks. The average length in words for the searched segments was 8.94 words. The results or hits from each segment were annotated and the average for the 10 segments was recorded. This average number is the value of the variable IRUse for the study, and this was the foundation for an intragroup ranking of reuse for the translations in the corpus.

The last variable used in the study is the web traffic rank for the website (TRank). It was obtained using the website www.alexa.com. This website provides traffic ranks for websites both globally and in-country. As an example, the Spanish online newspaper www.elpais.es, ranks in 477th place globally and 15th in Spain. This variable will allow us to analyse whether the reposting or reuse is more related to translation quality or to the volume of traffic for the website. The following section describes the results of the study.

3.2. Results

The result section will start with a quality analysis of the translations of the Parallel Corpus of Official Translations (PCOT). This will provide a baseline of average professional quality for this genre. The same analysis will be performed on all the translations in the Parallel Corpus of translations Under Pressure (PCUP), followed by a contrastive study of the results obtained in both corpora. After the comparative qualitative and quantitative analysis of

both textual populations, the next analysis compares the intragroup quality ranking for the PCUP to the intragroup ranking using the variable Internet Reuse. Finally, the intragroup ranking using the variable IRuse will be contrasted to the results of the analysis using the variable Traffic Rank (TRank).

3.2.1. Quality analysis of the PCOT

Table 4 shows the results of the error-based quality analysis of the official translations collected in the PCOT corpus. As previously mentioned, the analysis includes typographic, spelling and accentuation errors, calques, omissions, additions, while a special category was created for all other errors. The tag used for other errors was <OT>. The table includes a section for the combination of typographic and accentuation errors as both can be related to the same etiology. The results were normalised to the percentage of errors per 100 source words, as this measure will assist in comparing the data from both corpora. The average number of errors per translation ranges from 0.26 errors per 100 source words (Text8) to 1.32 (Text3). The average number of errors in all categories per 100 source words across all texts is 0.73. The average of typographic, spelling or accentuation mistakes in all texts per 100 words is 0.309. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the majority of these latter mistakes in PCOT are related to one incorrect “typographic anglicism” (Martinez de Sousa 2003: 1) in the Spanish rendering: calquing the English use of the hyphen in the translations, with very few accentuation or spelling mistakes. The bottom row of the table contains the percentage of errors per 100 words in all categories. The less frequent errors are additions (AD=0.005) and omissions (OM=0.01), while the combination of ORT plus ACC is turned out to be the most prevalent error (ORT+ACC=0.295).

Translations in PCOT	Error type								Total. ORT+ACC	Total errors /100 source words
	ORT	ACC	OT	OM	AD	CAL	CAS	Total		
Text 1	9	0	27	0	1	10	4	51	9	0.84
Text 2	1	1	5	0	0	0	1	8	2	0.34
Text 3	18	6	22	1	0	7	2	56	24	1.32
Text 4	13	6	14	1	0	6	6	46	19	0.78
Text 5	19	3	10	1	1	9	3	46	22	0.76
Text 6	2	3	5	0	0	2	0	12	5	0.78
Text 7	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	5	2	1.12
Text 8	5	1	3	0	0	1	1	11	6	0.26
Text 9	4	2	0	0	0	0	0	6	6	0.38
Text 10	14	1	16	1	0	0	1	33	15	0.64
Average /100 source words	0.23	0.064	0.281	0.01	0.005	0.093	0.048	0.73	0.295	0.73

Table 4. Comparative analysis of error types in the PCOT corpus

The results from this analysis do not show a direct relationship between the length of translations and the frequency of errors: the translation with the lowest percentage of errors has 4167 words (Text 8=0.26 errors/100 words), while the translation with the highest percentage has a similar length, 4232 words (Text 3=1.322 errors/100 words). The longest translation, Text 5, has 6040 source words and 0.761 errors per 100 words, while the shortest, Text 7, has 444 and 1.12 average errors. This confirms that length of a text is not related to the number of errors, but rather, other potential variables might be at play, such as translator's style or translation constraints (Baker 1999). In fact, the texts show traces of dialectal variation in Spanish, such as 'argentinisms' or 'mexicanisms,' and therefore, this confirms that translations in the corpus were produced by different translators.

3.2.2. Quality analysis of the PCUP corpus

Once the average quality measure for professional translations without marked time pressure was obtained, the same type of analysis was performed for the corpus of translations under pressure. As expected, these translations show considerable higher levels of errors than those posted on the White House website. Table 4 shows the error and average percentages for all texts in the PCUP.

Translation	Error type									Error s per 100 sourc e word s
	ORT	ACC	OT	OM	AD	CAL	CAS	Tot al	Total ORT+AC C	
TRA3	57	7	39	21	4	12	2	142	64	5.91
TRA5	45	21	31	17	1	7	0	122	66	5.03
TRA8	15	14	36	0	0	17	7	89	29	3.706
TRA9	15	6	38	0	0	18	7	84	21	3.49
TRA10	26	6	28	1	0	13	2	76	32	3.16
TRA4	8	13	23	1	0	17	6	68	21	2.83
TRA7	11	2	29	1	7	10	2	62	13	2.582
TRA6	8	5	23	1	0	6	3	46	13	1.91
TRA1	11	0	12	0	0	5	4	32	11	1.33
TRA2	5	0	14	1	0	5	0	25	5	1.04
Average /100 source words	0.81 6	0.30 1	1.10 9	0.17 5	0.04 9	0.44 7	0.13 4	3.03	1.117	

Table 5. Comparative analysis of error types in the PCUP corpus

This analysis illustrates that the range of errors vary widely among the collected texts, from 1.04 errors per 100 source words in TRA2 to 5.91 errors in TRA3. It is of interest that despite the fact that TRA3 and TRA5 show the highest number of errors, other translations have higher levels for specific types, such as lexical and syntactic calquing for translations TRA4, TRA8 and TRA9. This variation offers a clear glimpse into translators' styles under pressure, as shown by the fact that TRA3 has the highest number of overall errors, but nevertheless, TRA5 shows three times more accent mark errors than the former (TRA3= 7 ACC errors, TRA5= 21 ACC errors). Another example of this effect can be observed in TRA9 as it shows the highest percentage of calquing errors. The considerably lower quality level for TRA3 and TRA5 might indicate that they could be transcriptions from a simultaneous interpreting TV broadcast, one of the potential strategies to cope with strict time constraints. Nevertheless, the different distribution of typographic, accent mark and other types of errors does not suggest that they could be revised versions from the same transcription.

Another interesting finding is that the difference between the text with the lowest number of errors in the Total category (TRA2: 25 errors) and the one with the most (TRA3:142), amounts to 5.8 times higher. However, the difference in values for the typographic and accent marks mistakes in the translations with the highest and lowest scores amounts to 12.5 times (TRA5: 66 ORT+ACC errors, TRA2: 5 ORT+ACC errors). As reported by de Rooze (2003), this is an indication that the effect of time pressure might result in higher number of errors related to typography, spelling and accent marks.

3.2.3. Contrastive analysis of PCUP and PCOT

If the data from both corpora are compared, it can be clearly observed that translations under pressure show higher percentages in all error types, and therefore, reduced levels of translation quality. Despite a wide range of quality among translations in the PCUP, if the results are averaged, the total number of errors per 100 source words is 3.03, while the average for the PCOT corpus is 0.73. This means an average of 4.15 times more errors in the first corpus if compared to the latter. From all the translations in the PCUP corpus, only two translations, TRA1 (Total= 1.332) and TRA2 (Total=1.041) show error levels similar to those of the one with the highest count in the PCOT corpus, Text3 (Total=1.322), although this is still not far from the 0.73 average for the PCOT corpus.

As previously mentioned, typographic and spelling mistakes are normally more prevalent in translation under pressure (de Rooze 2003). If the results of both corpora are compared, the average of errors in the PCUP corpus is 1.117 while the average for the PCOT is 0.295, that is, 3.78 times higher. This difference is slightly lower than the one between both corpora in the total count (4.15) and therefore, this might also confirm the findings from de Rooze's studies in which typographic and spelling mistakes are the most significant effect of time pressure in translation. Nevertheless, the

contrastive analysis in Table 6 shows that for the genre under study, omissions are the type of error most impacted by time pressure, as the chance of finding omission errors increases 17.9 times if compared to those translations performed without marked time pressure. This is followed by additions (+9.8 times) and lexical calques (+4.92 times).

	Error type								
Averages per 100 source words	ORT	AC	OT	OM	AD	CAL	CAS	Total	ORT+ACC
PCUP	0.837	0.308	1.137	0.179	0.049	0.458	0.137	3.107	1.145
PCOT	0.23	0.064	0.281	0.01	0.005	0.093	0.048	0.73	0.295
<i>Differential</i>	<i>+3.64</i>	<i>+4.81</i>	<i>+4.05</i>	<i>+17.9</i>	<i>+9.80</i>	<i>+4.92</i>	<i>+2.85</i>	<i>+4.26</i>	<i>+3.88</i>

Table 6. Contrastive analysis of average number of errors between the PCOT and the PCUP.

Despite the evident difference in translation quality, one of the most important correlations found between both textual populations is the fact that the range of intragroup quality is remarkably similar. The difference in error counts between the texts in the PCUP corpus with the highest (Tra3= 5.91) and the lowest (Tra2 = 1.04) error average is 4.47 times higher. In its turn, the difference in error counts between the texts in the PCOT corpus with lowest (Text 8 = 0.26) and the highest (Text 3=1.32) error average is 5.07 times. This suggests that despite different situational factors and completely different quality levels, these two distinct translation populations show a similar range of intragroup variation.

3.2.4. Additional distinctive features: explicitation or 'lengthening'

Explicitation, understood as a longer rendering or lengthening of target texts or text expansion in translation (Baker and Olohan 2000), has been widely accepted as a feature of translated language (Vanderauwera, 1985; Baker 1995, 1996; Olohan and Baker 2000; Puurtinen 2004; Dimitrova 2005; Saldhana 2008; Jiménez-Crespo 2011). The number of tokens or running words in the translations from the inaugural speech in the PCUP varies widely, from 2617 words to 2262 words, ranging from 5.79% fewer words than the source text to 8.99% more. The average of words for all translations in the PCUP is 2462, or an average expansion of 2.54%. As far as the PCOT, all of the translations show higher word counts than the source texts, from 16.21% expansion in Text 7 to 3.67% in Text 5. The average text expansion for the entire corpus is 5.95%.

This difference in the degree of lengthening or explicitation is an additional distinctive feature between the PCUP and the PCOT, as the rate of expansion is considerably higher in the corpus of official translations, 5.95% vs.

2.54%. Another difference between both textual populations is that some translations in the PCUP showed lower word counts than the original text, mostly due to omissions and lower explicitation levels, while all the translations in PCOT show higher word counts than their respective source texts. While the results in the PCOT support that explicitation is a general feature of translation, it is of interest that some translations in the PCUP showed lower word counts than the original text. This might indicate that procedural changes introduced in situations of time pressure can lead to translations with distinct features. Thus, following Chesterman's (2004) approach to the study of the general features of translation, translations produced under time pressure could be added to one of the potential subsets in which general tendencies should be tested.

As a conclusion to this section, these contrastive analyses have shown some differences of both translation populations in terms of error counts, ranges of quality, error distribution and explicitation. As expected, these analyses confirm the first hypothesis regarding the presence of different features between both textual populations. The differences have been quantified and some correlations have been identified, such as the fact that the intragroup variation in terms of error counts is remarkably similar in both textual populations. The following section analyses the potential relationship between quality and Internet reuse of the translations.

3.2.5. Relationship between Internet distribution, reuse and quality

The previous analyses provided a ranking in terms of quality of all the translations in the PCUP corpus. In this section, the intragroup quality rankings are compared to the redistribution or reposting of all these translations on the Internet. For this purpose, the Internet Reuse (IRUse) described in the methodology section was used. The results of the analysis are shown in Figure 2. The right or red side of the graphic represents the quality ranking of the texts, while the left side, in blue, shows the intragroup rankings for the same translations according to the variable IRUse.

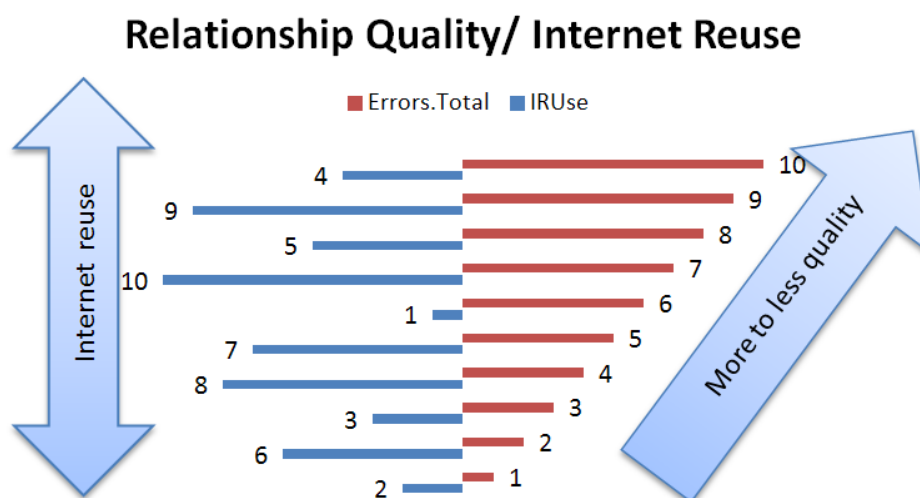


Figure 2. Relationship between translation quality and Internet redistribution for the translations of Obama's inaugural speech in the PCUP.

The results of this analysis do not show a direct relationship between the quality of the translation and its potential for reuse or redistribution. The translation with the highest redistribution level, TRA10, places seventh in the intragroup quality ranking, while the translation with the lower intragroup quality, TRA3, places fourth in the redistribution ranking. This analysis therefore confirms that quality cannot be directly associated to the Internet redistribution of the translations.

3.2.6. Contrastive analysis of Internet redistribution and web traffic ranking

The results from the previous section highlight that reuse of translations measured by repostings is not directly related to quality. The next analysis intends to search for a potential explanation for this finding. It is logical to think that the traffic volume or overall number of user visits to a website might correlate with the potential for reuse of texts posted on it, regardless of quality. Thus, the next analysis compares the variable IRUse to the volume of traffic of the website in which it was posted. For this purpose, the variable TRank or web traffic rank was obtained using the web information website www.alexa.com. This website provided the world ranking in terms of web traffic for each website. All the translations were ranked according to the overall global web traffic ranking of the site in which they were posted. Nevertheless, it should be noted that two of the translations were collected in specific online news websites, but they were originally provided by two of the largest international news agencies, the Spanish language EFE and the French agency AFP. As an example, multiple postings of the translation of the EFE agency were found, but they were collected from the online newspaper with the highest volume of traffic in Spain, *El Mundo* (see Table 1).

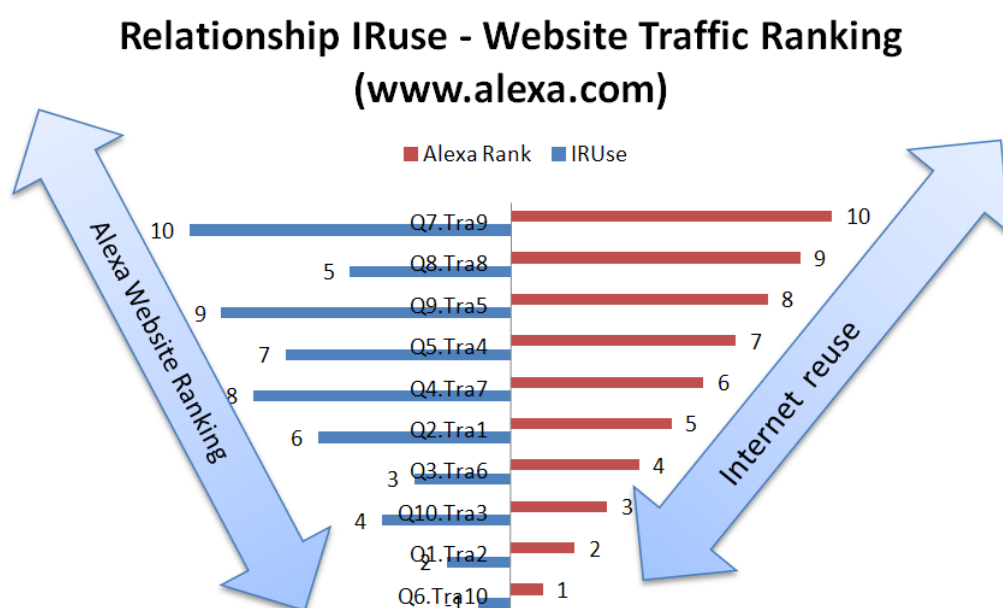


Figure 3. Contrastive analysis of Internet redistribution and web traffic rankings.

If Figure 3 is compared to Figure 2, it can be observed that there is a closer correlation between the variables IRuse and TRank, than between IRuse and Quality (see Figure 1). In fact, the translation of the news agency EFE posted in the newspaper *El Mundo*, places first in both rankings, while it places sixth in the quality ranking. Additionally, the translation with the highest quality, that of *El País*, places second in both, while it is the translation with the highest overall quality. The translation of the AFP news agency places third in terms of quality, third in IRuse and fourth in the ranking of the news website where it was collected, *La Jornada*.

These results seem to confirm the second hypothesis in the study, as it has been observed that the Internet allows for translations of the same source text with higher or lower quality to be distributed globally. However, the reuse of the translation is more related to the potential traffic rank of the website, rather than the actual quality of the translations. This seems to contradict one of the assumptions behind this study: the fact that the notion of the authority of the agent responsible for the translation is slowly disappearing in the Internet era. The fact that translations on websites with higher traffic volume, and therefore, a potential assumption of authority, are more widely reposted might mean that after all, users simply trust the party responsible for the translation. Nevertheless, this might also entail that despite the wide use of search engines, users simply retrieve content from those websites they visit most frequently, without contrasting and comparing the content in the overwhelming WWW.

4. Conclusions

The technological revolution brought by the Internet is having a profound impact on the practice and theorisation of translation (Munday 2008; Pym 2010). Among the many potential changes brought by this revolution, this paper focuses on both the relationship between time pressure and translation quality, and on the relationship between quality and translation use in the receiving cultures. The two hypotheses set forward have been confirmed. The first one was related to the fact that the Internet increases the tendency to distribute translations produced under pressure that possess different characteristics than those produced in a more standard professional context. The analyses performed have shown that the translations in the PCUP have on average 4.15 times more errors than those officially released by the White House. As reported by De Rooze (2003), the text translated under pressure showed consistently higher percentages of typographic and spelling errors than other error types, but nevertheless, if the impact of time pressure is compared to official translations without marked time pressure, the possibility of finding omissions, additions and lexical calques was even higher than typographic errors. Another different feature found between the two translation groups is related to the potential for lengthening; PCUP translations showed an average of 2.54% expansion, while the average for the PCOT was 5.95%. These differences can be attributed to differences in the application of translation strategies or the

influence of general tendencies in translation, such as explicitation in both cases, and due to the limitations of this paper, this issue would require further investigation. As an example, most omissions in the PCUP corpus are found in segments difficult to translate, and this might signal a strategy that is applied in cases of time pressure. However, this strategy was not observed in the PCOT, when the four identified omissions were due to translators randomly skipping over some source text. The experiments on time pressure by Jensen (1999) did not find significant differences in the strategies applied by translation experts when the variable time pressure was applied, but nevertheless, further analysis of the data compiled for this study could be used in order to identify what strategies were applied in the two professional contexts under study.

As far as the second hypothesis is concerned, whether translation quality correlates with the potential reuse of the translations on the Internet, it has also been confirmed that quality is not necessarily a factor when translations are redistributed. In a search for a potential explanation, it was identified that the volume of traffic of the website, and hence, the potential authority or popularity of the agent behind the translation, closely correlates with the potential of redistribution. This raises interesting questions regarding the widespread use of crowdsourcing and volunteer translations in some of the websites with the highest web traffic in the world (O'Hagan 2012, 2009), such as Facebook (second), Wikipedia (sixth) or Twitter (eleventh)⁸. Does this mean that conscious or subconscious assumptions of translation quality are related to popularity or traffic volume of websites, regardless of translation quality, professional vs. user generated translations, etc.? This is an interesting issue that would require further investigation, as more and more websites are turning to crowdsourcing (Jiménez-Crespo 2012a, 2013; O'Hagan 2009). It is hoped that this paper will be of use to translation researchers and trainers. It is also hoped that this study will spark additional research into the fascinating, and not always well understood, impact of the Internet on the theory and practice of translation.

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Endnotes

¹ This is precisely the definition of quality laid out by the ISO 9000 definition: “the totality of features and characteristics of a product or service that bears on its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs” (ISO 9000).

² That was the case of the Spanish paper “Expansión.”

³ In some cases, speeches are translated into more languages.

⁴ The doctoral dissertation of De Rooze (2003) offers a comprehensive review of these error types and the reasons for their selection in studies of translation under pressure.

⁵ Tagging errors in parallel corpora have been mostly used for didactic purposes in Translation Studies with Learner corpora, such as the Mellange Learner Corpus or the work of Lopez and Tercedor (2008).

⁶ The missing accent mark error in this segment would not have an impact on understanding as this type of accent mark is used to differentiate Spanish monosyllabic words, such as *de* (of, from) and *dé* (give!- imperative).

⁷ The syntactic calque would result in an incorrect construction in Spanish. It would lead to a lack of understanding by readers of this segment.

⁸ According to www.alexa.com on Feb 21.02.2014.