# UNIVERSIDAD DE QUINTANA ROO

## División de Ciencias Políticas y Humanidades

**English-Spanish translation of the text: chapter 8 "Undertaking historical research in literacy" from the Handbook of Reading Research volume III**

**MONOGRAFÍA**

**En la modalidad de traducción**

**Para obtener el grado de:**

**LICENCIADA EN LENGUA INGLESA**

**Presenta**

**Shirley Salgado Soberanes**

**Asesores:**

**Dra. Edith Hernández Méndez**

**Dr. Moisés Damián Perales Escudero**

**Dra. Griselda Murrieta Loyo**



Chetumal, Quintana Roo, México, octubre de 2018.

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Monografía elaborada bajo la supervisión del comité del programa de Licenciatura y aprobada como requisito para obtener el grado de:

LICENCIADA EN LENGUA INGLESA

COMITÉ DE MONOGRAFÍA

Supervisor: ______________________
Dra. Edith Hernández Méndez

Supervisor: ______________________
Dr. Moisés Damián Perales Escudero

Supervisor: ______________________
Dra. Griselda Murrieta Loyo

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**ABSTRACT**

This paper is a translation from English into Spanish of Chapter 8 from the Handbook of reading research Vol. III, an academic text about the process of conducting a historical research and its use in the field of literacy. Chapter 8 is similar to a guideline with the steps or phases to follow in order to complete a historical research, whose usefulness can be applied in other areas besides literacy.

An analysis of the translation techniques used in the process of translation is included as well as a section where the main techniques stablished by Vinay and Darbelnet are discussed and illustrated with some examples in English and Spanish. The section of conclusion contains detailed thoughts, knowledge and experiences acquired during the whole translation process of chapter 8.

# CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

Translation is one of the oldest occupations in the world. Since the beginning of time plenty of tongues and dialects have coexisted over the world, so how did people communicate among them without knowing each other's language? The answer is translation, or more specifically at that time *interpretation*. Sofer (2002) explains that in the ancient world translators had a vital role for trades and affairs of state. Translation has always played the role of a bridge; whose work is to connect two different worlds, and the translator is equal to the bricklayer who builds this connection.

The purpose of translation can vary depending on which public this is addressed, but over time its principal target has always been *communication*. Finks (1997) defines translations as the "turning of words from one language into its equivalents in another tongue" ("A tour of the grounds" para.1). Even though the goal of translation is to convey information from one language form to another language form, it does not mean that all the types of translations are exactly the same.

Indeed, translation can be divided into two branches, as stated by Finks (1997). These are written translation and interpretation. Let us focus now on the former branch. Written translation is also divided into literary translation and technical translation. According to this, translators can be separated, depending on their work area, into two types: *literary translators*, who carefully work with the message and stylistic figures of a text that should be transmitted into another language and *technical translators*, who work with non-cultural, universal material (Newmark, 1988) that is generally aimed at a specialized audience. Although both literary and technical translators work in the same translation branch, their expertise areas are considerably different.

On the one hand, literary translation "focuses on the artistically creative forms for written expression, which are conventionally classified as: prose, poetry and drama" (Finks, 1997, "A tour of the grounds" para. 4). Taylor (1998) argues that literary texts require special attention and analysis due to the fact they contain pragmatic, stylistic and linguistic features that make them unique. So, literary translators bear a heavy responsibility for examining and analyzing every sentence in terms of denotative and possible connotative meanings as it is, in this way the translator will be able to find the correct equivalents for the different situations that could come up in a literary text.

On the other hand, technical translation "is primarily distinguished from other forms of translation by terminology" (Newmark, 1988, p. 151), it is easy to differentiate it by the informative nature and use of vocabulary that is highly "field specific" (Finks, 1997), likewise, as stated by Newmark (1988) "it is usually free from emotive language, connotations, sound-effects and original metaphor" (p.151). It must be noted that technical vocabulary cannot be translated without knowing the topic at hand in a deep way. Despite these knowledge needs, some have viewed technical translation rather unfavorably. As stated by Byrne (2006):

> "Technical translation has long been regarded as the ugly duckling of translation, especially in academic circles. Not particularly exciting or attractive and definitely lacking in the glamour and cachet of other types translation, technical translation is often relegated to the bottom division of translation activity and regarded as little more than an exercise in specialized terminology and subject knowledge. Indeed, these factors, particularly subject knowledge, have in some quarters led to technical translation being feared and loathed, like a modern-day barbarian of the linguistic world" (p. 1).

Even though technical translation has been considered the ugly cousin of literary translation, nowadays the increased need for technical and commercial communication across languages has "served to make this an even more rich and complex area than previously believed" (Byrne, 2006, "preface" para.3).

This project is a technical translation of an academic text, one that is specifically focused on "literacy". This translation of the chapter *Undertaking Historical Research in Literacy* by Monaghan and Hartman, comes up due to the necessity of helping students -whose first language is Spanish and do not speak English- to understand the selected readings for the subject "cultura escrita" of the master´s degree in Lengua Española, which will be offered by the Universidad de Quintana Roo. This translation will help not to exclude those students that are interested in the subject and ensure they will be able to get the important knowledge from the texts.

## 1.1Rationale

The meaning of the word “literacy” changes across contexts. Back in time, literacy was considered to be related with how well educated a person was (UNESCO, 2006). According to Lawton and Gordon (1996, p.108), literacy was once defined as “the level of skill in reading and writing that any individual needs in order to cope with adult life”. UNESCO (1978) defines it as “a context-bound continuum of reading, writing and numeracy skills, acquired and developed through processes of learning and application, in schools and in other settings appropriate to youth and adults” (p.30). Nowadays, the concept has been simplified, the Cambridge Online Dictionary defines it as “the ability to read and write”. It can be said that literacy is very close related with education, as in a cause effect relation; for a person to become literate, it is necessary to pass, first, through the path of basic education. The importance of literacy has been always clear. As mentioned by Wilkinson, Freebody and Elkins (2000), in 1989 emerged the idea of considering literacy education to be related to equality and access to public goods, services and productive employment pathways. In a broader way, the UNESCO claims (2006) literacy to be linked with human, political, cultural, social and economic benefits. The last benefit is the most desired worldwide.

Historical research is the discipline whose role is to answer the important questions of our past (Monaghan & Hartman, 2000). One of the main objectives of historical research is to provide “another layer of context for understanding events by locating them in specific times and places.” (Monaghan& Hartman 2000, p. 109). For example, in order to understand more about a particular reading method, a historical research study must be conducted to know how was stablished and performed and how it is being performed nowadays to compare the differences and the possible mistakes between times. This will finally lead to a conclusion and, of course, to a better understanding of the topic.

Monaghan and Hartman (2000) sets the pedagogical value of historical research on literacy as that which “provides us with possible rather than probable understandings, and the ability to take precautions rather than control possible futures” (p.109). So, the direct relation between literacy and historical research for pedagogical matters is that the teachings of past events will help to improve literacy education in the present.

The importance of historical research on literacy is evident in the United States, where this research tradition has produced plenty of material about these topics. In Mexico, this area is less researched. Thus, there is less material about it than in Anglophone countries.

The translation of this chapter will help to amplify the readings about the topic historical literacy for those whose first language is Spanish and do not speak English. This translation will also help to the inclusion of Students that speak only Spanish in the MA in “Lengua Española” at UQROO, where this text will be used. The main objective of this translation is, therefore, to provide the teacher and students of the subject of “cultura escrita” of the master´s in Lengua Española with a translation into Spanish of the chapter 8 from the Handbook of reading research Vol. III, whose focus is on how to research literacy from a historical perspective step by step.

## 1.2Objectives

This translation project will focus on achieving the following objectives:

- To translate faithfully and clearly into Spanish the chapter 8 of the Handbook of reading research Vol. III by E. Jennifer Monaghan and Douglas K. Hartman.
- To provide an analysis of the techniques used in the translation process, paying special attention to the difficulties during the translation and the appropriate methods used to solve those problems.

## 1.3Relevance

The chapter 8 of the Handbook of reading research Vol. III by E. Jennifer Monaghan and Douglas K. Hartman is part of the reading list for the MA in “Lengua Española” at UQROO. This MA is planned to include people, whose mother tongue is Spanish and it is not a requirement to speak English. However, there are some readings as it previously mentioned that are not available in Spanish, that is why it is important to translate the chapter 8 for the MA in “Lengua Española”. This translation will be for all the Spanish speaking students who are willing to take the master’s degree in “Lengua Española” in order to help them to read this selected reading in their mother tongue. Plus, historical research or in Spanish “investigación histórica” is a topic that can be applied to any topic, if what you want is to research how the process and past events helped something to be how it is in present days. The only problem is that the material in Spanish about this topic is not so broad. I started an expedition in the web page of the Uqroo´s libraries and when I looked for investigación histórica, luckily I found one book named; *La investigación histórica: teoría y método by Julio Aróstegui*, but when I researched for investigación histórica en alfabetización, the result was 0. Therefore, the translation of this text is also aimed for those students in the Uqroo interested in the subject of *historical research in literacy*, whose English proficiency is not enough to access to English readings about this topic whether they plan to sign up for the MA or not.

Research is a very important part of society and human development. It has helped people to prove theories and discover new information throughout history. The online Cambridge Dictionary defines research as "a detailed study of a subject, especially in order to discover (new)information or reach a (new) understanding". However, other authors as Booth, Colomb and Williams (1995) state that research is part of our daily routine; it is something that we do all the time and we sometimes or most of the time cannot see it, but it doesn't mean it isn´t there.

> Turabian (1937) has a similar view and sets that "You do research every time you ask a question and look for facts to answer it, whether the question is as simple as finding a plumber or as profound as discovering the origin of life. When only you care about the answer or when others need just a quick report of it, you probably won't write it out. But you must report your research in writing when others will accept your claims only after they study how you reached them" ("What research is", para 1).

As research is part of our every day, it can be said that it forms an intrinsic part of humans. We have always had the restlessness of asking why things happen. Research is the tool that humans use for answering those concerns, it is a whole process that will end up in an answer for our question or a result for theories.

Monaghan and Hartman (2000) state that the rationale for knowing about history is that we are able to learn from the past and it will help us to improve and do not repeat past mistakes. Therefore, historical research specifically focused on literacy is important in order to know more about and understand how I am able to write this text and how you are able to read it. Important questions of literacy can be answered with a glace to its history. For example, in a literacy investigation we can use information about past events to know how education has been able to bestow the status of "literate" upon an individual, how literacy has changed, the literacy processes of the past, who we have been as a literate community, where literacy started, and so on. This translation monograph intends to convey the information about historical research on literacy from English to Spanish by translating the chapter 8 from the Handbook of reading research Vol. III, which is focused on the undertaking of this type of research in literacy area.

This paperwork also includes an analysis of the techniques employed in the translation process of the chapter 8 in order to explain the final results of the most challenging parts for translating from English into Spanish. This will also help to provide a deeper insight of the changes that language itself suffered through the translation.

## 1.4 Literature Review

In a globalized world where language diversity can represent a great barrier for those who do not speak more than their own language, translation becomes an important bridge that helps to surpass this obstacle for communication.

This section first discusses definitions of translation and then establishes the specific kind of translation that this monograph represents. Next, a related translation project is reviewed.

In the search for monographs with related topics at the Uqroo's library, just one related text was found. The translation into Spanish of the text: "Cultural Perspectives in Reading: Theory and Research", which is a monograph written by Estefanía Amairany Cabrera Morales, that is focused on the translation of a text about reading and literacy as a human activity, it has the aim of providing more effective solutions to everyday needs such as recording important events, facilitating commerce and broadening means of communication. This text analyzes the connections between literacy and culture. It contains a historical summary of the culture focused on the investigation of reading and criticism of research with cultural factors in the acquisition and teaching of literacy. While there are other monographs dealing with educational topics, only this one addresses the subject of literacy.

Nevertheless, the topic of my monograph is different from Cabrera's. The text in focus, "Undertaking historical research in literacy" by E. Jennifer Monaghan& Douglas K. Hartman is focused on literacy while makes use of historical research to go through this topic and analyze it in a deeper form. While working important data about the history of literacy, the original text uses historical research in order to create a whole understandable guide for those who are interested in historical research. This text takes us along past events of literacy to make easier the explanation of the performance of historical research and how it can be used for researching other topics. Even though both texts mention literacy, the content is quite different and the foci are not the same. The next paragraphs point some of the difference between them.

While the original text of “Cultural perspectives in reading” describes and highlights the differences between reading and literacy while explaining how the cultural perspectives influence the acquisition and teaching of literacy, the text “Undertaking historical research in literacy” explains the importance of historical research as a means for the investigation of present literacy trough past events in order to prevent past mistakes in present events. It is also important to mention that the former text is more focused on the role that culture plays in the development of reading and the impact of cultural factors to give better guidance to teachers and schools.

Additionally, the text “Cultural perspectives in reading” points out the differences in language between the distinct racial, ethnic and cultural groups. The disposition, the attitudes of students and their approaches to learning is mentioned as content worthy of being taught in the formal curriculum of teaching. Literacy is not the main focus in this chapter. Finally, “Undertaking historical research in literacy” is also a guide which teaches step by step how to properly convey and apply historical research through different stages until reaching the final goal: the publication of the research product. The paragraphs below turn attention to the definition of translation.

From a linguistic point of view, Catford (1965) defines translation as “the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL).” His definition gives a key for translation “equivalents”. In order to translate something, equivalents are necessary to make sure the same idea is conveyed from the source text into the target language text. Thus, equivalence can be understood as the central task in translation. Finks (1997) states a very similar point of view: he defines translation as “the umbrella term for turning words from one language into their equivalents in another tongue.” In a social context, translation can be understood as an activity that allows for communication between humans.

We can say that the malleability of the translation allows it to make different contributions depending on the field of study in which it is used. It allows people to get access to new information that normally they couldn’t understand without speaking the source language of the text, and it can also be seen as a means of communication between people who speak different languages and as a method to learn a second language.

It is also important to differentiate between scientific translation and technical translation. Diéguez (2002) sets that scientific translation "is mainly devoted to texts in which the informative function of the language prevails and the translator requires a lot of knowledge of the subject, terminology and translation techniques that allow to transmit the meaning of the original text without necessarily having to respect the same form" (P. 341). This kind of translation covers all the areas of the exact sciences such as mathematics and engineering, even social sciences, such as political science and philosophy. The main characteristics of scientific translation are: 1) it shows an objective reality and uses a denotative language; 2) it is mostly focused on the expansion of knowledge, as stablished by Kuhiwczak and Littau (2007) "this area includes translation activity concerned with the acquisition and expansion of knowledge" (P.73).

On the other hand, technical translation according to Newmark (1988) is "primarily distinguished from other forms of translation by terminology, although terminology usually only makes up about 5-10% of a text" (P. 151). Terminology is crucial for this kind of translation, therefore; the translator must convey the exact meaning for the terminology into the target language, for this is necessary to have certain specific knowledge about the topic you are working with. So, a specialization in an area is recommended to work with technical texts. Technical texts are usually "free from emotive language, connotations, sound-effects and original metaphor" (Newmark, 1988, p.151).

Even though scientific and technical translation are almost the same, some authors suggests some differences between them:

A technical text conveys information as clearly and effectively as possible, on the other hand a scientific text discusses, analyzes and synthetizes information in order to explain ideas and proposes new theories or evaluates methods. Thus, the differences between types of texts mark the difference between the language used in both texts, therefore the techniques and strategies used will definitely vary (Pinchuck,1977).

Although translation is an activity which all people whose knowledge of a second language is enough can perform, of course in an amateur or pro manner depending on the capacity of the performer. However, this does not imply that all people who know a second language are qualified to be called *translator*. Sofer (2002) says that "any person who knows more than one language has the ability to explain a word or a sentence in what the translators call *the source language* (the language you transfer from) by using an equivalent word or sentence what they call *the target* *language* (the language you translate into). This, in effect, is the beginning of translation. But is only the beginning. It does not automatically turn a person into an accomplished translator" (p.33).

To speak English does not transform a person automatically in a translator. Translators are translators because they have aptitude for translation, they are prepared and have linguistic and cultural knowledge, among others abilities, to do a trustful work. For example, Technical translators are typically "either trained linguists who develop specialized research skills along with ancillary knowledge in selected technical areas, or engineers, scientists and other subject area specialists who have developed a high degree of linguistic knowledge, which they apply to the translation of texts in their fields of specialization." (American Translators Association Series, 1993, Editor´s Preface: Technical Translation, para 1). Therefore, translators must be considered superhumans, whose role has helped to strengthen ties between nations since ancient times with the help of their super power "the process of translation".

So far, different definitions of translation have made me think about what I consider translation. To me, translation is the art of finding the equivalent words between two different languages. I call it an art because just as a guitarist needs to know the chords of a song to interpret exactly the same song, translation requires the exact equivalents to convey the content meaning of a text from one language to another.

I also like to think that translation is like finding a voice. The voice of the original author of a text in a language distinct from his own. The translator is the one who is in charge for transmitting the exact idea and the style of the author´s writing, it is almost like finding the voice itself in another language. More recently I have begun to believe that translation is comparable to a bridge, a bridge that helps people from different places and from different culture and languages to communicate. This bridge also allows access to new information and experiences that can only be enjoyed through translation.

Finally, but not less important, this translation and its analysis (included later) is based on the seven methods of translation from the Canadian school of translation by Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet. Vinay and Darbelnet divide the seven methods: borrowing, calque, literal translation, transposition, modulation, equivalence, and adaptation into two kinds of methods called direct, or literal translation and oblique translation. According to the Canadian school translators are able to read a message and form in their minds an impression of the target language message they want to reach and they write in their minds a solution, sometimes this solution -target language units- are so sudden, but the translator must still go over the text in order to be sure none of the source language elements was omitted. Thus, the translation methods they proposed help the translator to go over each unit in the SL text and compare it with the TL text, so a final and perfect version, for the translator in turn, can be reached.

Even though the Canadian school by Vinay and Darbelnet is the principal pillar in this translation, Gerardo Vázquez-Ayora´s (1977) vision of the translation methods was also implemented, due it contains examples from English to Spanish and his methods have similarities with the Ones from the Canadian school. Vázquez-Ayora proposes the literal and oblique translation between his methods, some of them with great similarities with Vinay and Darbelnet´s translation methods. Due to the vision of the Canadian school and that of Vázquez-Ayora propose analysis as a fundamental step for the translation process (see Vinay and Darbelnet,1995, P. 30-31) and the guidelines of the analysis are the translation units and the principles of comparative stylistics, I decided to use some examples of methods similar to those of Vinay and Darbelnet.

I should clarify, again, that the basis of this translation was the Canadian school by Vinay and Darbelnet and that the inclusion of Vázquez-Ayora was only for the purpose of analyzing examples that translations from French into English did not provide clearly, since I do not speak French.

# CHAPTER II. METHODOLOGY

In the process of translating, translators work with the equivalent words and ideas between the source and the target language. They have the capacity of analyzing the best possible way to convey the ideas from one linguistic system (SL) to another (TL) in a quick process of translation. However, these first ideas, as mentioned by Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) are considered potential and adaptable, thus; through the process of translation a first draft can be surely improved until it reaches its perfect form -according with the translator-. In some cases, the findings of appropriate TL equivalents will be very sudden and an unpracticed translator could think that the translation work is complete. Nevertheless, in these cases "translators still have to go over the text to ensure that none of the elements from the SL have been omitted before the process is finished." (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995, p. 31). Translation techniques are required to convey the meaning of a text from a SL to a TL, they will facilitate the process, especially in those cases where the equivalents are difficult to find.

In order to carry out this translation project, the method followed in the process has its foundation on the translation techniques suggested by The Canadian School of Translation with Vinay and Darbelnet, and also profits from the guidelines of Vázquez-Ayora.

Depending on the schools, the different methods or procedures will vary in form and number. To the Canadian School, translation techniques are divided in two methods, direct and oblique translation. In direct method, Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) talk about a structural parallelism, i.e. that the source language message can be translated element by element. There are three types of direct translation: literal translation, linguistic borrowing and calque. In oblique or indirect, the metalinguistic differences do not allow the change of stylistic effects without altering the syntactic order. There are five types of translation: transposition, modulation, equivalence, adaptation, addition or amplification and reduction or omission.

## 2.1 Direct translation:

### *2.1.1 Borrowing:*

The Borrowing technique is also called “the simplest of all translation techniques”, this technique is usually used when there is a lexical gap in the target language. In the cases where the term in SL has no equivalent into the TL the same word without being translated is passed into the target language text. For instance, in order to introduce cultural flavor, a new technical process or unknown concept such as the borrowing is the correct technique to be used.

**Example from Spanish to English:**

Mexican Spanish food names are always borrowed due to they have no equivalence into other Languages.

- Tortilla → Tortilla
- Tequila → Tequila

Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) state that there are some other older cases of borrowing where the words are so widely used that they become part of the respective TL lexicon.

**Example from French to English:**

- Déjà vu → Déjà vu
- Chic→ Chic

### *2.1.2 Calque:*

Calque is a special type of borrowing where one language takes an expression form of another and then a word for word translation is done.

Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) explain that there are two types of calque:

a) Lexical, which respects the syntactic structure of the TL.

Example:

- Weekend → Fin de semana

b) Structural, which introduces a new construction into the language.

Example:

- Science-fiction → Ciencia ficción

### 2.1.3 *Literal translation:*

Translation is a word for word translation that directly transfers a text from a source language to a grammatically correct and appropriate target language text. This technique gives as a result an idiomatically correct text without any modification of the original syntactic structure. This type of translation usually happens when the SL and TL belong to the same linguistic family or when the languages share some similarities in their culture.

**Examples:**

- She is reading → Ella está leyendo.
- I´ve left my book on the table → He dejado mi libro sobre la mesa.

Even though literal translation could be a correct and ideal translation that is sometimes belittled it is not that usual. Sometimes an incorrect literal translation could lead to a translation with a different idea or even a meaningless text.

## 2.2 Oblique or indirect translation

Whereas in literal translation there is correspondence between the elements and categories of the words in both languages, the oblique translation moves away from the direct transfer of each of the elements in the source text.

### 2.2.1 *Transposition:*

Transposition involves a change in the grammatical category of the words in the SL when they are translated into the target language. This grammatical category change performed correctly do not interfere with the idea of the original text. Vázquez -Ayora (1977) sets that the purpose of the translation procedure is to reach the naturalization of the expression in the target language.

**Examples:**

- Before he <u>comes back</u> (verb) → Antes de su <u>regreso</u> (noun).
- A <u>genuinely</u> International body (Adverb) → Un <u>genuino</u> cuerpo internacional (Adjective).

Vázquez -Ayora (1977) also mentions the existence of obligatory and optional transposition.

**a) Obligatory transposition** occurs when the literal translation opens the way to ambiguity. In this case, the principle of fidelity is violated and in order to preserve the original idea the transposition is mandatory.

**Examples:**

| ***English*** | ***Spanish/Literal*** | ***Spanish/Transposition*** |
|---|---|---|
| *There's a reason for life* → | Hay una razón para la vida → | Hay una razón para vivir |

**b) Optional transposition** allows to choose between two or more correct translations or techniques that do not commit ambiguity.

**Examples:**

- *Of interest to Latin America* — (a) De interés para la América Latina. (b) Que interesa a la América Latina.

### 2.2.2 *Modulation:*

Modulation is a variation of the form of the message obtained by changing the perspective or angle from which it is seen. The translator is allowed to use a different phrase in both source and target language, and even with these different forms the same idea in SL text will prevail when it is translated into the TL text.

**Examples:**

| ***English*** | ***Spanish/Literal*** | ***Spanish/Modulation*** |
|---|---|---|
| *Make your check payable to* → | Haga su cheque pagadero a → | Libre su cheque a nombre de. |
| *He lifted him off his feet* → | Lo levantó desde sus pies → | Lo levantó en alto (en medio de una pelea). |

### 2.2.3 *Equivalence:*

Equivalence technique is used when the same situation can be represented by using a completely different stylistic and structural forms. This method deals with a much more complex modification of the text. However, for a very proficient translator in SL and TL cultures it should be a piece of cake. It is mostly used in the translation of fixed expressions such as “idioms, clichés, proverbs, nominal or adjectival phrases, and onomatopoeia of animal sounds” (Vinay and Darbelnet,1995). Vázquez-Ayora (1977) considers equivalence as an extreme case of modulation that is already stablished between each language.

**Examples:**

| **English** | | **Spanish** |
|---|---|---|
| Don’t get so excited | → | Tranquilízate |
| Winter isn´t far away | → | El invierno se aproxima |
| As like as two peas | → | Parecidos como dos gotas de agua |

| **French** | | **English** | | **Spanish** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cocorico | → | Cock-a-doodle-do | → | Quiquiriqui /kikiriki |
| Miaou | → | Miaow | → | Miau |

### *2.2.4 Adaptation:*

Adaptation is used when the situation being referred to in the source language message is unknown in the target language culture. The laborious task here, for those translators whose cultural knowledge of the TL is not enough, is to create an equivalent situation in target language that represents the same idea as in the SL situation. According to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) this can also be called a “situational equivalence”.

**Example:**

- English: He kissed his daughter on the mouth.
- French: Il serra tendrement sa fille dans ses bras.
- Spanish: Abrazó tiernamente a su hija.

There are other two techniques that were added later by Vinay and Darbelnet: expansion and reduction. These techniques are not considered neither *direct* nor *oblique* translations, they are adjustments made to the content of the source idea in order to respect the syntactic rules in the target language. As well, Vázquez-Ayora (1977) sets those two techniques as *amplificación (expansion)* and *omisión (reduction)* and explains them as:

### *2.2.5 Expansion*

It is used when the translator adds more words into the target language text to translate the idea as clearly as possible. The addition of unnecessary information must be avoided.

**Example:**

| **English** | | **Spanish** |
|---|---|---|
| • He said cockily | → | Dijo con aire presuntuoso. |

### *2.2.6 Reduction*

It is the opposite from expansion. It is mostly used when the translator considers that is necessary to omit redundancy or repetition to make the target language text clearer.

**Example:**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| • What a speech! I would like to have it illuminated to hang in the office. | → | ¡Qué discurso! me gustaría tenerlo para colgarlo en mi oficina. |

During the process of translation not only the translation methods, previously mentioned, were used, but also online dictionaries and bilingual dictionaries such as: Wordreference.com, Linguee.com, Cambridge Dictionary.com, Merriam webster.com, LONGMAN dictionary, the free dictionary by FARLEX, and DEL from La Academia Española, these Dictionaries and Bilingual online dictionaries helped to solve doubts about terms, idioms and words in specific situations. Other tools used were: discussion forums -WordReference.com Language Forums-, Corpus from Spanish -CORPES XXI, CDH, CREA and CORDE- and websites such as: EF EPIEF English Proficiency Index, International Literacy Association, and Repositorio Institucional Uqroo.

The compendium *Translation 1: Anthology of Reading and Exercises* by Prof. Argelia Peña Aguilar for the subject Translation 1, taught at the UQROO Chetumal, addresses a very crucial issue in the translation process, the steps for translation. The reading *eight steps of translation* includes the next steps:

1) Browse through the text to identify: source/ type/register/style/readership.
2) First reading: know the topic/ context/ meaning.
3) Second, deep reading or “reading with translation intention” -underline unknown term- mentally confront translation difficulties / write possibilities/alternatives.
4) Preliminary translation -consult dictionaries (monolingual, bilingual, synonymous) OXFORD, COLLINS SIMON &SCHUSTER/LAROUSSE all words must be understood- write first draft.
5) Compare with the original -every idea /element must be present in the translated text.
6) Revise words chosen=do they match with the original text? Are ideas rightly conveyed?
7) Write a second draft including changes deemed necessary.
8) Final draft check= correctness in Spanish=grammar/use.
   Hand in the final work and det paid for it at the same time.

These steps where the pillar of the translation process in this paper. However, through the process I noticed my translation did not exactly follow this order and, in some cases, other steps joined to this process. Next, I will enlist and explain the steps that resulted from my translation process:

1) Browse through the text to identify: source/ type/register/style/readership.
2) First reading: know the topic/ understand the context/ understand the meaning.
3) Second reading: research for unknown words in order to read again the text and make sure to understand the whole text, if necessary to investigate about the topic of the reading in other sources to better understand.
4) Third deep reading or “reading with translation intention” -underline unknown term- mentally confront translation difficulties / write possibilities/alternatives.
5) Preliminary translation -consult dictionaries (monolingual, bilingual, synonymous) Wordreference.com, Linguee.com, Cambridge Dictionary.com, Merriam webster.com, LONGMAN dictionary, the free dictionary by FARLEX, and DEL from La Academia Española - write first draft.

6) Compare with the original -every idea /element must be present in the translated text.
7) Look for the original text of the incoherent translations and retranslate the text of paragraph taking care that the original idea is conveyed correctly into the TL text.
8) Give the text to someone else, whose first language is Spanish: it is important to let someone else to read the text, so he/she can say if your Spanish translation sounds natural.
9) Revise words chosen=do they match with the original text? Are ideas rightly conveyed?
10) Write a second draft including changes deemed necessary.
11) Give the text to your supervisors and wait for corrections.
12) Write a third draft including changes suggested by your supervisors.
13) Final draft check= correctness in Spanish=grammar/use.

At the beginning of this translation, I believed that the eight steps were the only ones to follow. Nevertheless, I found out that the steps can vary depending on how translators work, the difficulty of the text, the type of text, the help of third persons (supervisors, target language readers, etc.) and the time you have to do the translation.

At the end, all the previous techniques, the steps, and the tools were required to translate and convey the ideas from the source language text into the target language text.

# CHAPTER III. TRANSLATION FROM ENGLISH INTO SPANISH OF THE TEXT "UNDERTAKING HISTORICAL RESEARCH IN LITERACY"

Capítulo 8

Cómo emprender investigación histórica de la alfabetización

E. Jennifer Monaghan

Instituto Brooklyn de la Ciudad Universidad de Nueva York

Douglas K. Hartman

Universidad de Pittsburg

**La importancia del estudio de la historia de la alfabetización**

El valor de la historia tiene su propia historia. Llamada *historicidad,* esta justificación del estudio del pasado ha sido una práctica esencial de los historiadores por casi 3,000 años (Marrou,1966). Su trabajo ha sido abucheado, quemado, declarado maligno, proclamado profético, olvidado e ignorado. Esta marginación del trabajo histórico, que se hace presente también entre los estudiosos de la alfabetización, nos lleva a esbozar varias razones por las cuales el estudio de la historia de la alfabetización es valioso (Moore, Monaghan & Hartman, 1997).

La justificación más antigua y venerable de conocer y hacer historia es que podemos aprender del pasado. Sin embargo, el desafío está en saber a qué lecciones recurrir y cómo hacer el mejor uso de ellas. Hacer comparaciones simplistas directas entre una situación del pasado y otra del presente puede tergiversar las dimensiones únicas de cada evento y conducir a conclusiones erróneas. Incluso las lecciones construidas juiciosamente no son garantía para saber qué hacer o decidir en el presente. Por ejemplo, Tomas Jefferson escribió que las lecciones de la historia eran mejores para prevenir la repetición de imprudencias que para trazar el curso del futuro con sabiduría (citado en Gagnon, 1989, p.113). Entonces, el valor pedagógico de la investigación histórica de la alfabetización es que nos proporciona un entendimiento posible y no probable, así como la capacidad de tomar precauciones en lugar de controlar futuros probables.

Hay otras razones para emprender el trabajo histórico. Una es que la historia proporciona otra capa de contexto para entender los acontecimientos ubicándolos en momentos y lugares específicos. Por ejemplo, comprender un método de lectura en particular requiere más que simplemente saber del tema; debe situarse en el entorno de su época. Además, la investigación histórica nos ayuda a identificar quiénes somos como comunidad. La historia es una señal fundamental de madurez, vigor y creciente conciencia de cualquier comunidad y brinda la base para un sentido colectivo de dirección y propósito. Al crear un conjunto de conexiones entre el pasado y el presente, nos vemos a nosotros mismos como parte de un drama más grande que nuestros intereses particulares, áreas de estudio o afiliaciones organizacionales. Como miembros de la comunidad lectora, en particular de la que ha descuidado su propio pasado, necesitamos adquirir una imagen más clara de quiénes somos examinando dónde hemos estado.

La investigación histórica también promueve la interdisciplinariedad. Responder las preguntas importantes de nuestro pasado nos pone en contacto con un círculo más amplio de colegas y su trabajo, desde bibliotecarios hasta anticuarios. Adicionalmente, estudiar historia es intelectualmente enriquecedor y desafiante. La historia que más invita a la reflexión se cuestiona sobre el por qué de las cosas; ¿Por qué la educación progresiva falló? ¿Por qué **la serie de libros de texto** *McGuffey Readers*[1] se convirtió en el método de enseñanza de lectura más popular del siglo XIX? ¿Por qué a las mujeres en la América colonial se les enseñó a leer, pero con menor frecuencia a escribir? Y ¿Por qué el libro tiene la forma que tiene? Responder preguntas como estas nos obliga a teorizar, buscar y ponderar evidencias, hacer inferencias, y formular conclusiones. Por supuesto, todos los científicos sociales hacen esto, pero el trabajo de la historia se caracteriza por hacer y responder preguntas que no pueden investigarse experimentalmente, ni mediante observaciones o estudios de caso. Finalmente, la investigación histórica es divertida. ¿Qué otra disciplina te permite hurgar en los asuntos de los demás y llamar trabajo académico serio al producto de tal fisgoneo?

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[1] N. del T. *Los libros de texto* ***McGuffey Readers*** fueron una serie de libros, usados en la escuela primaria, que ayudaron a estandarizar el uso del idioma inglés en los Estados Unidos y que ayudaron tanto a reflejar como a moldear los valores morales del país en el siglo XIX. Con más de 122 millones de copias vendidas en 1925, los libros *McGuffey Readers* enseñaron a más estadounidenses a leer que cualquier otro libro de texto.
**Para más información véase el link:** https://www.britannica.com/topic/McGuffey-Readers

Quizá la más grande desventaja asociada con la historia de la alfabetización es que sus mensajes para el presente son ambiguos. De hecho, esta puede ser la razón por la cual, a la alfabetización, un campo firmemente anclado en el presente, le ha tomado tanto tiempo aceptar la investigación histórica.

**Una breve historia de la historiografía.**

No solo la importancia de la historia tiene una historia: los métodos de hacer historia tienen una también. Conocida como ***historiografía*,** esta práctica autoconsciente de pensar en el desarrollo de la erudición histórica traza las maneras en las que la historia como disciplina se ha practicado a partir de los artefactos más antiguos de la actividad humana. Las prácticas históricas de los primeros seres humanos fueron muy distintas de las de hoy en día. Al narrar oralmente mitos, leyendas y fábulas, los humanos intentaron explicar los acontecimientos impredecibles del mundo como productos de causas sobrenaturales. Y sus registros escritos describían largas listas de hazañas de guerra, a veces de manera cronológica, pero lo hacían mayormente en registros de datos aislados que no ofrecían interpretación o análisis (Butterfield, 1981).

El trabajo histórico asumió en cierta medida un desinterés analítico con los judíos del antiguo Israel. Sus reportes en los libros del Antiguo Testamento demostraban una capacidad para reunir información de muchas fuentes con miras hacia valoraciones precisas, pero sus relatos todavía eran principalmente el producto de la experiencia religiosa más que de algún tipo de investigación analítica (Momigliano,1990).

El primer movimiento hacia un enfoque analítico que examinaba los hechos y determinaba su exactitud fue llevado a cabo por los griegos. Por ejemplo, Heródoto y Tucídides se alejaron de la práctica de explicar eventos humanos como el resultado de la voluntad divina y, en cambio, interpretaron los asuntos del gobierno y la guerra como el producto de la voluntad humana. Lo lograron verificando la información contra las declaraciones de los participantes y los testigos presenciales; consultando documentos archivados, pensando cuidadosamente las motivaciones y causalidades de acciones y eventos. Cuando escribieron, lo hicieron para instruir a otros, anticipando futuras circunstancias paralelas que podrían ser evadidas o buscadas. La suposición subyacente en todo su trabajo fue que la historia se repite a través de ciclos infinitos (Grant, 1970).

Los romanos, influidos por los griegos, desarrollaron prácticas para escribir biografías y autobiografías, pero la visión cristiana emergente de la historia que se estaba apoderando del imperio romano fusionó las prácticas históricas religiosas y analíticas del pasado. Al principio, los cristianos recopilaron los evangelios de tal manera que sus creencias, fundadas en lo que sostenían eran hechos reales, podían ser defendidas contra los desafíos y utilizadas para demostrar la continuidad del Nuevo Testamento con el Antiguo. Más tarde desarrollaron historias universalistas que colocaron toda la actividad humana bajo la mano de Dios, desde la creación en Génesis, hasta el Armagedón en Apocalipsis. Estas fueron seguidas por historias eclesiásticas que detallaban el ascenso del cristianismo por todo el mediterráneo después de que el emperador romano Constantino se convirtió al cristianismo en el siglo IV (Gay & Cavanaugh, 1972).

Pero el libro *La Ciudad de Dios* de San Agustín es la declaración más influyente de la interpretación cristiana de la historia. San Agustín rechazó rotundamente la idea griega de los movimientos cíclicos de la historia y reformuló la historia como una progresión a lo largo de una línea con un principio claro, intermedio y final, desde la creación desde este mundo al mundo eterno, mientras Dios desarrollaba su voluntad a través de la historia (Barker, 1982).

El método de Agustín de usar herramientas analíticas dentro de este marco religioso fue imitado por los historiadores medievales durante diez siglos, quienes informaron fielmente a los lectores de sus fuentes de información, pero confiaban, sin dudar, en la información de reportes anteriores, utilizando una que otra vez fuentes originales para comprobar y verificar la exactitud de las declaraciones históricas o la veracidad de afirmaciones anteriores. Cuestionar la exactitud y motivos de los informes históricos anteriores sería cuestionar la mismísima providencia de Dios (Dahmus, 1982).

Los métodos históricos de la era moderna se desarrollaron gradualmente desde el siglo XIV hasta el siglo XIX. El cambio fundamental implicaba el alejamiento de las explicaciones sobrenaturales de la historia y el tránsito hacia enfoques seculares (Breisach, 1983/1994). A principios del siglo XX, la historia académica ya había sido secularizada completamente y la historia de los Estados Unidos se veía como una marcha constante hacia la perfección (“el triunfalismo" estadounidense).

Pero irónicamente, en el momento en que la verificación de fuentes era más fácil de lo que nunca había sido, la validez del conocimiento histórico mismo fue objeto de ataques públicos. La confianza pública en la historia como fuente de “la verdad” cedió al escepticismo, ya que los historiadores más jóvenes presentaban versiones contradictorias de la realidad: ¿era Cristóbal Colón el marinero heroico de la historia más antigua o el instrumento genocida de la nueva historia? Los historiadores tomaron conciencia de cómo sus propias predilecciones, e incluso su propio idioma, influyeron en su erudición.

Desde finales de la década de 1950, los historiadores han transitado por una sucesión de conceptualizaciones de su arte. Primero llegó la nueva historia social de los años sesenta y setenta, que hizo de la investigación cuantitativa la norma y de la vida de los marginados su blanco. Después siguieron, en las décadas de 1970 y 1980, las investigaciones de las intersecciones entre la historia, el lenguaje y el pensamiento. Estas se asocian a la obra de Michel Foucault (1972), quien insistió en la importancia de discutir sobre el discurso, y con la de Jacques Derrida (1967/1976/1978), quien desafió la autoridad del texto al postular que cada lector lee (Deconstruye) el texto de manera distinta. Ambos escritores, al convertir el lenguaje mismo en un objeto de estudio, ponen en duda la capacidad del lenguaje para representar la realidad. Finalmente, el "posmodernismo" de los años noventa elevó la cultura al nivel de importancia que alguna vez tuvo lo sobrenatural.

En respuesta a estas transformaciones del campo, Joyce Appleby instó, al igual que nosotros, a que los historiadores de las nuevas historias sigan siendo "traductores culturales", interpretando nuestro pasado para los consumidores de historia mientras nuevas preguntas conducen a nuevas respuestas "a través del filtro mediador de la cultura" (Appleby, 1998, pp.11, 12; cf. Appleby, Hunt, & Jacob, 1994).

**Un análisis de las metodologías usadas en el pasado para la investigación de la historia de la alfabetización.**

Esas corrientes cambiantes han influido sobre la historiografía de la alfabetización. Otras disciplinas además de los estudios de literacidad han abordado la historia de la alfabetización de distintas maneras. La primera, y la más antigua de estas, es la historia de la escolarización, desde la cual se ha discutido la alfabetización dentro del marco más amplio de la educación formal y como una característica del triunfalismo estadounidense (p. ej., Cubberley, 1919/1939). Sin embargo, el trabajo de Bernard Bailyn (1960) y de Lawrence Cremin (1970, 1980, 1988) hizo que los historiadores de la educación dejaran de considerar la escolarización formal como el principal agente educativo para incluir a otros agentes educativos como: iglesias, la comunidad y la familia. (Una consecuencia irónica ha sido que los historiadores de la educación dejaron de interesarse tanto por el rol de la escolarización en la adquisición de la alfabetización.)

Algunas décadas después, otro grupo, conocido como "historiadores de la alfabetización", comenzaron a desarrollar un segundo enfoque aplicando las metodologías cuantitativas de los historiadores sociales al tema de la alfabetización. Para discutir la relación entre la literatura y la sociedad, estimaron el número de alfabetizados comparando la proporción de los que podían escribir sus nombres en un documento con la de aquellos que solo podían hacer una marca. El nombre manuscrito fue aclamado como un indicador de la alfabetización (una medida uniforme y cuantificable que era constante a través del tiempo). Esto fue más verosímil durante esos siglos en los que se enseñaba la lectura a una edad más temprana que la escritura, de modo que la adquisición de lectura podía ser inferida a partir la habilidad de escribir. (Para ver ejemplos de discusiones basadas en su mayoría en conteos de nombres manuscritos, véase Cressy, 1980, para los siglos XVI y XVII Inglaterra, y Lockridge, 1974, para la nueva Inglaterra colonial.)

No obstante, el enfoque en el nombre manuscrito tuvo sus problemas. Aparte del hecho de que, hasta el siglo XIX, subestimó seriamente el número de aquellos que podían leer aun cuando no podían escribir (E.J. Monaghan, 1989), solo identificaba a los mínimamente alfabetizados sin demostrar cómo o por qué usaban su alfabetización. A pesar de ello, el descubrimiento de un constante aumento en la habilidad de escribir el nombre impulsó debates sobre el papel que desempeñó la literacidad en diferentes culturas. (Para un resumen, véase Venezky, 1991.) Algunos historiadores han integrado los conteos de nombres manuscritos dentro de una serie de otras fuentes con el fin de comentar sobre la cultura popular (p. ej., Vincent, 1989).

Un tercer enfoque importante ha sido el cuantificar lo que se leía en lugar de los individuos alfabetizados. Los historiadores franceses de la "escuela de los Anales" proporcionaron el marco socioeconómico para el trabajo de los fundadores de la "histoire de livre" o "historia del libro". Estos buscaban, en palabras de Robert Darnton, "descubrir la experiencia literaria de los lectores ordinarios" (1989, p. 28). Entre ellos se cuentan eruditos como Lucien Febvre y Henri-Jean Martin (1958/1976) y Roger Chartier (1994) en Francia, y Robert Darnton (1989) y David Hall (1996) en los Estados Unidos. Los historiadores del libro han examinado lo que las personas leían (el número y el tipo de libros), prestando particular atención a la lectura popular**.** Este enfoque de la "historia del libro" ha ampliado su ámbito y promovido la investigación de todos los vínculos entre los libros y sus lectores, desde el acto creativo del autor, el proceso físico de la edición, publicación y venta y hasta que el libro llega a manos del lector. También ha traído una serie de publicaciones sobre la historia del libro en diferentes países (p. ej., Amory & Hall, 2000).

La cuarta y la más reciente tendencia, que representa una nueva evolución de la historia del estudio del libro, ha sido un énfasis sobre la historia de las audiencias (Rose, 1992). Solo los estudios del libro basan sus generalizaciones en efectos presuntos o inferidos sobre los lectores, pero ahora los historiadores buscan lectores/escritores que hayan ***escrito*** sobre el significado de su alfabetización. Por lo tanto, este enfoque depende de los datos cualitativos encontrados en fuentes primarias como diarios, autobiografías, y cartas. Por ejemplo, Barbara Sicherman (1989) usó cartas familiares y memorias publicadas para valorar el papel que desempeñó la lectura en las vidas de las hijas de una familia de clase media alta en Fort Wayne, Indiana, a finales del siglo XIX. Este último enfoque, que idealmente combina datos cualitativos y cuantitativos, podría convertirse en el predominante en un futuro previsible entre los historiadores del libro.

***La historia de la alfabetización y su relación con la comunidad de investigadores de la lectura***

Hoy en día existe una gran cantidad de trabajo sobre la historia de la lectura y la alfabetización, sin embargo, la gran mayoría ha sido emprendido por estudiosos que están fuera de la comunidad de investigación de la lectura (para más ejemplos, véase los trabajos citados en Moore, Monaghan y Hartman, 1997.) En contraste con los enfoques históricos usados por eruditos de las ciencias sociales y áreas de la literatura, aquellos en la comunidad de investigadores de la lectura han usado menos enfoques, y también enfoques más limitados. Los pocos investigadores de la lectura que se han acercado a la historia de la alfabetización lo han hecho tradicionalmente a través del análisis de los libros de texto utilizados para enseñar a leer (p. ej., Hoffman & Roser, 1987; Reeder, 1900; Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, & Unruh, 1990; Smith, 1965).

El estudio mejor conocido de este tipo sigue siendo el de Nila Banton Smith. Su estudio comenzó como una tesis doctoral publicada con actualizaciones sucesivas (1934, 19665, 1986). Aunque sigue siendo relevante, el trabajo de Smith es adecuado para su época. Sus discusiones de los contenidos de libros de texto de enseñanza de lectura americana son libres de cualquier consideración de temas de género, clase o raza que median la alfabetización y que preocupan a los historiadores contemporáneos.

Los cursos en la historia de la alfabetización creados por profesionales de la lectura dentro de facultades de educación han sido influidos por los estudios de la historia del libro (p. ej., Cranney y Miller, 1987). Sin embargo, a pesar del llamado de Richard Venezky a hacer una nueva historia de la enseñanza de la lectura (1987b), el impacto de tales estudios sobre la comunidad investigadora de la lectura aún es insuficiente. De hecho, la mayoría de la comunidad ha mostrado poco interés en hacer investigación histórica de cualquier enfoque.

No obstante, existen algunas excepciones importantes. El trabajo de Bernardo Gallego (1992) sobre los vínculos entre la alfabetización y la sociedad en los comienzos de Nuevo México utilizó datos cualitativos y cuantitativos, como la carta de un fraile que describía cómo les enseñaba a los indios y evidencia de firmas de documentos de alistamiento militar. Alan Luke integró análisis de contenido en su historia de la experiencia de lectores canadienses con la serie de libros “Dick and Jane” (1988). Otros estudios también han demostrado un alcance más amplio del enfoque, especialmente en términos de fuentes y temas. Incluyen estudios biográficos de reconocidos expertos en la lectura como William S. Gray (Mavrogenes, 1985; H.M Robinson. 1985) o Laura Zirbes (Moore, 1986); estudios de la historia de una metodología de lectura particular (Balmuth, 1982) o de área de contenido (Moore, Readence y Rickelman, 1983); historias contadas por maestros y alumnos (Clegg, 1997) y estudios de lo que la alfabetización ha significado para ciertas comunidades lectoras (Weber, 1993). Por otro lado, la crítica de Venezky (1987a) sobre la historia de los lectores estadounidenses los sitúa en un amplio contexto histórico.

## Cómo emprender una investigación histórica

A pesar de estas contribuciones, la historia de la alfabetización permanece ampliamente inexplorada. Antes de revisar estos diferentes enfoques del tema con más detalle, puede ser útil aclarar la terminología con respecto a las fuentes.

### *Fuentes primarias, secundarias y originales*

Es importante diferenciar entre fuentes primarias y secundarias. Las fuentes primarias son documentos o herramientas generadas por las personas involucradas directamente, o contemporáneos a los eventos que se investigan. En este sentido, una guía curricular para instrucciones de lectura o un diario que registra la lectura de los hijos de quien lo escribe son fuentes primarias. Las fuentes secundarias son los productos de aquellos que tratan de darle sentido a las fuentes primarias de los historiadores. Sin embargo, una fuente puede ser primaria o secundaria dependiendo de lo que la investigación busca. Por lo tanto, el manual *Reading Instruction* de Smith (1965) es obviamente una fuente secundaria; la autora escribió su historia basando sus generalizaciones principalmente en el estudio de un gran número de libros de texto que había examinado personalmente. No obstante, su libro podría ser utilizado como una fuente primaria; sería una fuente indispensable si Smith y sus puntos de vista sobre la enseñanza de la lectura fueran el objeto de investigación.

De igual forma, es necesario hacer una distinción entre fuentes primarias y originales. No siempre es necesario trabajar únicamente con fuentes originales, y con demasiada frecuencia tampoco es posible. Las copias impresas de fuentes originales, siempre que hayan sido realizadas con escrupuloso cuidado (como las cartas publicadas de los padres fundadores), son a menudo un sustituto aceptable de los manuscritos originales. De nuevo, esto depende del propósito del investigador. Si el investigador desea estudiar la ortografía de los padres fundadores, una copia bastará, pero si el objeto de estudio es la caligrafía de los padres fundadores, ningún sustituto impreso será suficiente. En ninguno de los casos las fuentes primarias son los cimientos de la investigación histórica.

Por lo general, los historiadores utilizan fuentes primarias y secundarias. Aunque es posible producir trabajo histórico útil e importante basado solo en fuentes secundarias (Balmuth, 1982, por ejemplo, utilizó principalmente fuentes secundarias), mucha de la emoción del trabajo histórico consiste en adentrarse al mundo del pasado a través de las fuentes primarias, incluyendo aquellas utilizadas con anterioridad por otros historiadores.
Los avances históricos no solo se logran utilizando fuentes que rara vez utilizan los demás, sino que también al buscar material familiar de nuevas formas se hacen posible debido a que la visión mundial de los investigadores ha cambiado de la que tenían los primeros historiadores. En los últimos 40 años hemos llegado a apreciar la importancia del género, raza y clase social como constructos que han influido en la enseñanza de la alfabetización.

### *Cuatro enfoques del pasado*

Los cuatro enfoques del pasado que se detallan a continuación utilizan fuentes primarias como su base de datos principal. Nosotros los hemos denominado como enfoques cualitativo y cuantitativo, análisis de contenido e historia oral.

El primer enfoque puede ser denominado *cualitativo*. Esto es lo que la mayoría de los legos consideran como “historia”: la búsqueda de una historia deducida de una serie de evidencias escritas o impresas. La historia escrita/publicada resultante se organiza de manera cronológica y se presenta como un relato fáctico: un relato de una persona que creó libros de texto para enseñar comprensión de lectura, como la biografía de William Holmes McGuffey (Sullivan, 1994) o la de Lindley Murray y su familia (C. Monaghan, 1998). Las fuentes de la historia cualitativa son variadas, van desde manuscritos tales como libros de cuentas, expedientes escolares, notas al margen, cartas, diarios y memorias hasta materiales impresos como libros de texto, libros para niños, periódicos y otros libros del periodo considerado. En la historia cualitativa, el investigador de manera inevitable hace inferencias a partir de un conjunto incompleto de datos y hace generalizaciones con base en relativamente pocas evidencias.

El segundo enfoque es el *cuantitativo*. En este caso, en lugar de confiar en la “historia mediante citas”, como se le ha llamado peyorativamente al primer enfoque, los investigadores buscan deliberadamente evidencias cuantificables las cuales se presume que tienen una validez y generalización superior. En los estudios de alfabetización, tal como notamos con anterioridad, un excelente ejemplo del enfoque cuantitativo ha sido la tabulación de nombres manuscritos y marcas para estimar el grado de alfabetización. Otros investigadores han tratado de calcular la popularidad de un libro en particular por medio de la tabulación del número de impresiones, basados en los registros de derechos de autor (p. ej., E.J. Monaghan, 1983). Estos estudios buscan responder preguntas sobre cantidades, la suposición es que las preguntas más amplias (p. ej., la relación entre la alfabetización y la industrialización, o entre los libros de texto y su influencia en niños) pueden así abordarse con mayor rigor.

Armados con números, los historiadores pueden realizar análisis estadísticos para establecer correlaciones, como lo hicieron Soltow y Stevens (1981), entre educación y alfabetización.

Un tercer enfoque es el análisis de contenido. Aquí el texto mismo es objeto de escrutinio. Este enfoque toma como datos los trabajos publicados (en el caso de la historia de la alfabetización, estos pueden ser libros para enseñanza de la lectura, manuales de caligrafía o ejemplos de literatura para niños) y los somete a un análisis cuidadoso que usualmente incluye aspectos cuantitativos y cualitativos. Por ejemplo, Smith (1965) puso atención a características cuantitativas como el tamaño de un libro de texto dado, la proporción de ilustración con relación al texto y el número de páginas dedicadas a diferentes categorías de contenido. Por otro lado, Lindbergh (1976) utilizó un enfoque cualitativo para derivar implicaciones de los contenidos cambiantes del libro *McGuffey Eclectic Readers* en ediciones sucesivas y comentarios sobre temas como su actitud ante la esclavitud o su cambio en el punto de vista teológico. El análisis de contenido ha sido especialmente útil en la investigación de constructos tales como raza (p. ej., Larrick, 1965; MacCann, 1998) o género (Women on Words and Images, 1972).

Los tres enfoques: cualitativo, cuantitativo y de contenido utilizan texto escrito o impreso como su base de datos. (Para ejemplos de los tres enfoques, véase Kaestle, Damon-Moore, Stedman, Tinsley y Trollinger, 1991.) Por el contrario, el cuarto enfoque, *historia oral*, gira en torno a la memoria viva. Los historiadores orales hacen preguntas a las personas interesadas en hablar del pasado. Por ejemplo, los historiadores orales interesados en la alfabetización buscan personas que puedan recordar su escolaridad o formación temprana (p. ej. Clegg, 1997). Estos cuatro enfoques no son, evidentemente, excluyentes entre sí (la mayoría de los análisis de contenido, por ejemplo, incluyen tabulaciones). De hecho, los historiadores hacen uso de varios de ellos en la medida en que permiten las preguntas, el tema y el periodo de tiempo. Arlene Barry (1992) y Thecla Spiker (1997) usaron los cuatro enfoques en sus tesis doctorales.

El uso integrador de enfoques es posible porque la naturaleza de la investigación histórica trasciende todos los géneros de los enfoques, los cuales comienzan con la identificación de un tema y la formulación de una pregunta.

**Identificando el tema/ formulando la pregunta**

Tal como en la investigación experimental, el investigador tiene una pregunta o un problema que desea responder o resolver (el clásico error de los principiantes es hacer una pregunta demasiado extensa). La complejidad de la pregunta y la amplitud de la investigación son indicados por el resultado historiográfico anticipado del informe escrito.

El alcance de las interrogantes debe ser proporcional a la longitud anticipada de la respuesta. Un estudio se preguntó qué variaciones notables del debate fonético/palabra completa en los últimos años de la década de los 60 aparecieron en los libros contemporáneos para enseñar lectura, pero restringieron su marco de tiempo a cinco años (Iversen, 1997). El resultado fue una tesis de maestría. Otra investigación más profunda se preguntó qué había llevado a la creación, desarrollo y descontinuación de toda la serie de libros de *Cathedral Basic Readers,* hace más de medio siglo (Spiker, 1997). Además, otra pregunta se refirió a la forma en que los residentes de una comunidad pequeña y rural en el medio oeste utilizaron información impresa durante un periodo de 30 años (Pawley,1996). Ambas preguntas se convirtieron en tesis doctorales. Otros estudios investigaron la vida profesional de una educadora de la lectura progresiva, Laura Zirbes (Moore, 1990); la alfabetización de un pequeño grupo de indios de la tribu Wampanoag (E. J. Monaghan, 1990); la alfabetización familiar de una singular familia Bostoniana del siglo XVIII (E. J. Monaghan, 1991); y el significado de la lectura sostenida por las esposas estadounidenses que vivían en granjas a principios del siglo XX (Weber, 1993). Estas investigaciones, centradas enfáticamente en un tema limitado fueron publicadas en revistas académicas.

**Cómo identificar las teorías de apoyo**

Al igual que los investigadores de las ciencias sociales, los historiadores parten de una posición teórica, ya sea que se articule o no. Por ejemplo, Smith (1965) fue fuertemente influida por el movimiento de medición de su tiempo, pues; proporcionó grandes detalles sobre el tamaño de los libros de texto que estudió, el número de páginas, que fueron dedicadas a cada tema, etc. Hoy en día, los historiadores de la alfabetización tienden más a ser explícitos sobre sus posiciones teóricas y recurren, digamos, a la teoría de la modernización, o sus posturas sobre género, raza y clase social como teorías que sustentan su enfoque.

Un problema relacionado es la postura del investigador. Todos nosotros estamos ubicados dentro de las perspectivas particulares de nuestro propio tempo y entorno, y puede parecer que si somos explícitos sobre de dónde venimos, esto impedirá la posibilidad de sesgo de observador. Sin embargo, lo que estamos buscando dicta lo que encontraremos. Algunos estudios tienen claramente una perspectiva particular que puede inclinar las conclusiones resultantes e incluso restringir los datos considerados dignos de ser estudiados. Algunos autores persiguen objetivos de justicia social, como el usar la historia "para dar un sentido de autenticidad a aquellos que buscan un tipo distinto de alfabetización" (Shannon, 1990, p. x.) o en el otro extremo del entorno político, para promover plataformas políticas conservadoras (p. ej. Blumenthal, 1973). Cualquier programa predeterminado corre el riesgo de inclinar la evidencia hacia sus propias necesidades. Lo que emerge puede ser la verdad, pero es menos probable que esté cerca de la "verdad absoluta", incluso si existiera tal cosa, porque puede no hacer justicia a puntos de vista opuestos.

**Cómo identificar y localizar potenciales fuentes de investigación**

Aunque por sencillez de exposición hemos discutido el asunto de la pregunta/problema del investigador primero, existen decisiones estrictamente prácticas que afectan la elección del tema desde el principio, tales como ¿dónde se encuentran las fuentes? Si la mayor parte de las fuentes relevantes se encuentran a medio continente de distancia, las dificultades prácticas de los gastos y el tiempo excluirán un tema en particular, por más atractivo que le resulte al investigador. Gran parte de la investigación histórica se lleva a cabo en las salas de manuscritos y libros poco conocidos de bibliotecas públicas, privadas o universitarios o de las sociedades históricas estatales o municipales, por lo que el investigador tiene que tener el tiempo y dinero para llegar ahí. Consideraciones como estas pueden guiar al investigador hacia un enfoque más que a otros. Un análisis de contenido de un libro que el autor posee, que se encuentra en la biblioteca local o disponible para fotocopias puede ser más viable que tratar de analizar una biografía de un autor cuyas cartas y registros están alojados al otro lado del país. (véase http://www.historyliteracy.org/research/arcchives/index.html para archivos relacionados con la historia de la alfabetización.)

De igual forma que los investigadores debaten los méritos de temas potenciales, también necesitan hacer una valoración mental inicial de todas las posibles fuentes primarias relevantes. En términos de manuscritos ¿existen cartas, diarios o periódicos escritos por la persona objetivo de la investigación o relacionados al tema? ¿hay registros escolares a nivel local, municipal o estatal? ¿cuáles existen de manera física? ¿alguno de los manuscritos ha sido publicado? ¿Hay libros escolares, libros para niños, revistas educativas contemporáneas, libros contemporáneos? ¿dónde se encuentran y cómo se puede acceder a ellos? ¿aún existen personas con vida que recuerdan el evento la persona, el libro, o el enfoque que se investiga?

Por suerte, los problemas de acceso a la información escrita/impresa han disminuido con el paso del tiempo. El acceso a los materiales guardados en bibliotecas lejanas es cada vez más posible por préstamo interbibliotecario, fotocopias y microfilms. Una colección de 844 manuales básicos y otros materiales de lectura introductoria están disponibles en forma de microfichas (*American Primers*, 1990); Venezky, 1990) y varios libros de texto se están pasando a microfilm en la Universidad de Harvard. Y ahora existe el internet, donde la red informática mundial ha proporcionado acceso a obras no restringidas por la protección de derechos de autor. La otra cara de la moneda es que el acceso inmediato a los manuscritos originales también está disminuyendo y con ello algo del placer de la investigación. Nada puede reemplazar la emoción que produce el leer la carta original, con su tinta descolorida en una hoja amarillenta, apartada de la mano que la escribió tan solo por el tiempo transcurrido entre aquel instante y el presente.

La facilidad con la que se encuentran las fuentes dependerá nuevamente del tema. Los nombres de autores son, por mucho, los más fáciles de investigar; las bibliotecas siempre los clasifican, en especial si el autor es famoso. Por ejemplo, una investigación sobre William Holmes McGuffey arrojará una gran cantidad de resultados. Temas como “lectura para adultos” son mucho más difíciles de investigar, ya que no pueden no aparecer listados bajo la rúbrica que uno espera o no pueden no estar catalogados en absoluto. Aquí es cuando un bibliotecario de referencias es indispensable para guiar al inexperto en el uso de la nomenclatura de la Biblioteca del Congreso o palabras clave que puedan servir para la investigación. Hoy en día, enviar una solicitud de ayuda en una “lista de distribución en la red” (como HORSIG de *International Reading Association* o SHARP-L) puede mantener informados a otros en tu búsqueda de fuentes relevantes. Además, se está preparando una amplia bibliografía de fuentes históricas sobre en lectura en los E.U.A. durante el periodo 1900-1970 (R.D. Robinson, en prensa).

Una vez que el tema ha sido determinado, debe comenzar lo que es equivalente a la revisión de literatura de la investigación experimental. Las tesis doctorales, los artículos y los libros son fuentes clave aquí. Las fuentes secundarias con frecuencia van a dar pistas que llevarán a más fuentes primarias.

Las guías sobre investigación histórica tienden a enfatizar la necesidad de establecer la autenticidad de las fuentes, de rehusarse a aceptar cualquier cosa excepto fuentes trianguladas, etc. Sin embargo, aunque el asunto de la autenticidad es importante, y aunque las falsificaciones aparecen de vez en cuando, en general la autentificación de las fuentes ya se ha llevado a cabo por los expertos de las bibliotecas donde los documentos están almacenados. Y en la mayoría de los casos, la triangulación es imposible e indeseable.

**Cómo reunir y registrar la información**

Ahora que estás equipado con una lista de lo que quieres explorar, la información exacta de dónde se encuentra y una identificación que acredite tu profesión para una fácil admisión en la biblioteca, ha llegado la hora de reunir la información. El viejo método era registrar el material relevante a lápiz (porque todas las salas de libros poco conocidos y manuscritos prohíben el uso de lapiceros), normalmente copiando las páginas seleccionadas para analizar más tarde. Sin embargo, los avances en la computarización de las bibliotecas y el conocimiento informático de los investigadores en los últimos años están haciendo esto obsoleto. Muchas bibliotecas están equipadas con tomas de corriente para computadoras portátiles. (Es prudente llamar antes para comprobar la existencia de tomas de corriente y llevar equipo anticuado en caso de que todas estén ocupadas). La información recopilada de manera electrónica tiene la gran ventaja de que solo se necesita ingresar una vez. La toma de notas, el archivo y la organización se facilitan por medio de los procesadores de texto. Escanear el texto a tu propia computadora con un escáner portátil puede ser el siguiente paso tecnológico.

El material escrito a mano, por supuesto, tendrá que ser pasado a computadora más adelante. Si prefieres la ruta manual o si la falta de tomas eléctricas lo exige, piensa con cuidado la superficie sobre la cual planeas registrar la información. Muchos historiadores solían utilizar fichas de 12.7 x 17.7 centímetros, lo que ayudaba a organizar la información por tema. Una gran desventaja de las fichas era que, al mismo tiempo se perdía la cronología y secuencia de la información. Un enfoque

que preserva ambas es registrar todo en una libreta o en hojas de papel enumeradas y después hacer un índice de los temas (hecho de manera más eficiente en un procesador de textos) en tu área de trabajo. También es útil registrar la fecha y lugar de una determinada investigación en la parte superior de cada página de los apuntes.

Aquí hay algunos consejos más prácticos. Primero, puede ser útil, en especial si tu tema es desconocido, alertar al bibliotecario con anticipación sobre tus intereses de investigación, para que el bibliotecario pueda pensar en algunas fuentes para ti, así como confirmar si puedes usar tu computadora portátil. Segundo, siempre trae contigo a la biblioteca todo el equipo que necesites al momento. En particular, las bibliotecas de sociedades históricas pueden estar ubicadas en vecindarios que tienen pocas computadoras o papelerías cerca. Las salas de manuscritos te proporcionarán un lápiz extra (y siempre hay un sacapuntas), pero no papel.

Tercero, trata cada artículo como si fuera la última vez que lo verás. Aunque es relativamente fácil retroceder a las omisiones bibliográficas en los libros, es mucho más difícil descifrar de qué colección procede un manuscrito. De hecho, incluso con el manuscrito frente a ti, es posible que no seas capaz de determinarlo. Guarda todo el material de identificación de lo que no será entregado al bibliotecario *antes* de dar tu solicitud. Cuarto, paga generosamente por las fotocopias y la última tecnología, lo cual permite la reproducción de páginas de libros demasiado frágiles como para someterse a los rigores del escaneo por computadora. Mejor aún, ve si puedes sacar el texto a través del préstamo interbibliotecario, o comprar una reproducción contemporánea. Nada es más útil que tener el texto en tu posesión en tu propio lugar de trabajo.

La recolección de historias orales merece un capítulo completo. Aquí solo podemos mencionar que existen desafíos particulares, así como satisfacciones, para los investigadores que confían en los recuerdos de personas vivas como sus fuentes. Los recuerdos son falibles y generalmente difíciles de verificar. Sin embargo, los datos resultantes pueden ser de tal interés o encanto intrínseco que los investigadores publican con frecuencia sus memorias con poca interpretación (p. ej., Terkel, 1970), proporcionando así, en esencia, fuentes primarias para estudios posteriores.

La historia oral toma mucho más tiempo de lo que uno podría pensar. El próximo descubrimiento tecnológico, ya en progreso, será el traslado del discurso oral directamente a la letra; sin embargo, hasta que esto sea perfeccionado, la transcripción meticulosa a mano desde el casete de audio es el único método disponible. Para información detallada que incluye advertencias legales, sugerimos unirse a la Asociación de Historia Oral (para asociaciones profesionales relevantes para historiadores de la alfabetización véase el recurso para investigación de la página web del Grupo de Interés Especial de la Historia de la Lectura de IRA –por sus siglas en inglés Internacional Reading Association-, 1999,). También existen consejos y bibliografías sobre historia oral que han sido preparados por investigadores de la lectura (p. ej. King & Stahl, 1991; Stahl, Hynd & Henk, 1986; Stahl, King, Dillon & Walker, 1994).

**Interpretando la información**

Una vez que el trabajo de la recolección de información se ha completado o, mejor dicho, le has puesto fin, el trabajo de análisis comienza. Las fuentes no deberían ser tomadas al pie de la letra.

Se necesitan dos tipos de análisis. El primero es un análisis de aspectos internos de la información. Este es el punto en el que uno detecta márgenes de error dentro de las mismísimas fuentes. Debido a la naturaleza egoísta de nuestra especie, las autobiografías y los diarios necesitan escrutinio especial. Las historias orales también tienen problemas inusuales de verificación debido a que la información proporcionada es distante en el tiempo, a veces data de hasta medio siglo antes del periodo de investigación, y son filtradas a través de la falible y limitada mente humana.

El segundo tipo de análisis es ajeno a las mismas fuentes: es el trabajo de interpretación y organización. La investigación histórica puede ser considerada un tipo de antropología del pasado. Los historiadores buscan por patrones y temas, y comparan, combinan y seleccionan material que apoyaran generalizaciones y resuelven las preguntas o problemas que motivaron al estudio. Sin importar con que preguntas comience el estudio, otras emergerán inevitablemente de la misma información. Si el enfoque inicial del estudio cambia con cualquier información nueva, vale la pena el esfuerzo de seguir las nuevas direcciones.

**Comunicando las interpretaciones/ redactando los resultados**

Lo que los historiadores descubren mientras leen cuidadosamente su información los compromete a un tipo de organización tras otro. La organización puede ser una función de la cronología de la fuente, como es el caso en una biografía; o puede ser tanto cronológico como conceptual, con los temas que emergieron después y que también aparecieron más tarde en el libro; o podría ser enormemente relevante. Debido a que la historia tiende a ser un estudio de causas y efectos, y a que la causa siempre motiva el efecto, el elemento cronológico apoyará la narración de la historia.

Una vez que la organización está preparada y la redacción comenzó, el investigador en ciencias sociales debe confrontar asuntos de documentación. El propósito de la documentación es permitirles a los lectores de la historia analizar, si es su elección, las fuentes actuales, para que comprueben ellos mismos que una fuente específica ha sido citada de una forma que refleja su contenido con precisión. Los investigadores de lectura están cómodos y familiarizados con el estilo A.P.A. (utilizado a través de este volumen), lo que facilita citar el autor y fecha dentro del cuerpo del texto y proporciona la referencia completa al final. Aunque, como un sistema de referencia adecuado en la historia de la escritura, tiene varias desventajas graves. A.P.A. tiene un mecanismo para la cita textual, pero si el historiador ha parafraseado en lugar de citar, el proceso estándar A.P.A es solo para referirse a todo el libro. En estos casos el lector tiene que buscar por todo el libro para buscar las pocas páginas relevantes. Tampoco hay una forma corta para citar manuscritos. Más allá de estas objeciones técnicas, existen objeciones estéticas y cognitivas; dentro del cuerpo, las citas dificultan enormemente el texto. Algunos párrafos en un texto histórico o incluso en oraciones individuales se basan en más de una fuente; citarlas en el estilo A.P.A. produce un desorden visual que distrae mucho del significado y la integridad estilística del escrito.

Esto explica por qué los historiadores documentan aseveraciones utilizando notas enumeradas, las cuales aparecen como superíndices en el cuerpo del texto y están completamente referenciadas con notas al pie o notas finales. El manual de Estilo de Chicago (1993), ahora en su décimo cuarta edición o alguna variación de este es, por mucho, el estilo más popular para el trabajo histórico. Las notas al pie ya no se usan en estos días; en su lugar, las notas aparecen al final del trabajo.

No obstante, el hábito del uso de A.P.A. es tan fuerte que la gran mayoría de tesis y tesis doctorales patrocinadas por escuelas de educación lo han utilizado Recomendamos que los directores de tesis doctorales defiendan el referenciado histórico para la redacción histórica y apoyen a sus estudiantes en la batalla contra la imposición del estilo A.P.A.

## La publicación

El objetivo final de la investigación histórica, como en la investigación conductual, es la publicación. Aunque la investigación es aún una empresa joven entre los investigadores de lectura, muchos de los estudios que iniciaron como tesis o tesis doctorales dentro de la comunidad lectora han llegado a las páginas de las revistas de educación o aparecieron en forma de libros. Por ejemplo, el artículo de Barry (1994) de programas de regularización de lectura en secundarias y el libro de Gallego (1992) *Literacy and Society in Early New Mexico*, ambos derivados de tesis doctorales. Los libros de la historia de la lectura tienden a publicados por editoriales universitarias (Association of American University Presses, 1999). Sin duda existe un público lector para el trabajo histórico.

## Nota final

En nuestra opinión, el tiempo de que la investigación histórica de la lectura tome el lugar que le corresponde junto a otras metodologías se ha retrasado mucho. Hay una necesidad de situar la historia de la lectura dentro de los contextos más grandes de sus épocas. Sin embargo, es difícil convertirse en un buen historiador de la noche a la mañana. Aquellos que deseen seguir este género de investigación deberían considerar asistir a un curso sobre métodos históricos impartido en su propia institución y unirse a sociedades históricas apropiadas. Nosotros recomendamos especialmente el Grupo de Interés Especial sobre Historia de *International Reading Association*, el cual tiene una página web, www.historyliteracy.org, que ofrece muchas fuentes de investigación.

# CHAPTER IV. ANALYSIS OF THE TRANSLATION FROM ENGLISH INTO SPANISH OF THE TEXT “UNDERTAKING HISTORICAL RESEARCH IN LITERACY”

The translation of the chapter “Undertaking historical research in literacy” represented a great challenge since difficulties were found during the process of translation into the Target Language (TL). These adversities were overcome with the help of Vinay and Darbelnet´s techniques. Likewise, some examples from the techniques of Vázquez-Ayora were taken to reinforce the explanation of each technique with more appropriate examples – from English into Spanish- in this analysis.

This chapter is an academic text and some phrases and terminology were quite difficult to translate into Spanish (TL). That is why it was necessary to consult different sources to achieve the final version of this translation. The sources used where mostly online language dictionaries and encyclopedias in English and Spanish, books, articles, Bloggs, some official websites of organizations that where mentioned in the source language (SL) text, oral resources such as experts, and plenty of help from my main supervisor who helped me to understand academic terminology that was difficult at first. The most difficult issue while translating the text was the research of one term which seemed to have no translation into Spanish. Some gerund verbs and passive forms were also difficult because it is not frequent to use them in Spanish the same way as in English; sometimes with the interference of the second language (in this case English) we think they sound natural in Spanish, when in fact they do not. The most significant cases are included in this section.

The analysis in this chapter explains the techniques that were employed in the process of translation, through the most significant examples in both the source language and the target language in order to analyze the differences between the English and Spanish versions of this translation. It is also important to highlight that, even though, there were mentioned above the authors Vinay and Darbelnet and Vázquez-Ayora, this chapter will not include an analysis of the differences between these authors´ techniques. This analysis focuses on the techniques from the Canadian school by Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet. However; due to they have examples only from French into English, that were a little bit more complex to analyze without knowing French, it was also decided to use the vision of Vázquez-Ayora because of the nature of his techniques examples from English into Spanish.

## 4.1 Direct Methods:

### *4.1.1 Borrowing*

According to Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet (1995) borrowing is the simplest of all translation methods and it happens when a word or phrase in the source language is used in the target language without modifications. This method is sometimes used to introduce the flavor of the SL culture into a translation or when there is no equivalence for a term into the TL (as in the case of typical food from other countries).

The next table shows some examples of borrowing used in this translation:

| Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|
| Why did the **McGuffey Readers** become the most popular school readers of the 19th century? | ¿por qué la serie de libros de texto ***McGuffey Readers*** se convirtió en el método de enseñanza de lectura más popular del siglo 19? |
| The French historians of the "Annales school" provided the socioeconomic framework for the founders of the "**histoire de livre**" or history of the book, seeking, in Robert Darnton's words, to "discover the literary experience of ordinary readers" (1989, p. 28). | Los historiadores franceses de la "escuela de los Anales" proporcionaron el marco socioeconómico para el trabajo de los fundadores de la **"histoire de livre"** o "historia del libro". Estos buscaban, en palabras de Robert Darnton, "descubrir la experiencia literaria de los lectores ordinarios" (1989, p. 28). |
| Smith's American **Reading Instruction** (1965), for instance, is obviously a secondary source: She wrote her history basing her generalizations mainly on the study of a large number of textbooks that she had personally examined. | Por lo tanto, el manual **Reading Instruction** de Smith (1965) es obviamente una fuente secundaria; ella escribió su historia basando sus generalizaciones principalmente en el estudio de un gran número de libros de texto que había examinado personalmente. |

Table 1. Examples of borrowing.

Most of the titles of the books mentioned in the original text of this translation were kept in the original language. This decision was made because they have not been translated into Spanish, so there is not an accepted translation of the name of the book; therefore, if someone reading this translation tries to look for the book with the name translated in Spanish, they will not find a result – until now, at the moment of this translation -. A research of these translated titles would just be a waste of time for the reader in the target language. Besides, the titles in the original text do not affect the comprehension of the idea in the paragraph.

There are other cases of borrowing in this translation where the vocabulary has an equivalent in Spanish, but the words in the SL are so common in the TL that it is not necessary to translate them because they can be perfectly understood without changes, in this case Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) argue that "some well-established, mainly older borrowings are so widely used that they are no longer considered as such and have become a part of the respective TL lexicon" (p.32).

The table 2 shows some examples of this case:

| Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|
| A collection of 844 primers and other introductory reading materials is available in microfiche form (American Primers, 1990; Venezky, 1990), and textbooks are being put on **microfilm** at Harvard University. | Una colección de 844 manuales básicos y otros materiales de lectura introductoria está disponible en forma de microfichas (*American Primers*, 1990); Venezky, 1990) y varios libros de texto se están pasando a **microfilm** en la Universidad de Harvard. |
| For detailed information, including legal caveats, we suggest joining the Oral History Association (see the Research Resources of the **web** page of the History of Reading Special Interest Group of the International Reading Association, 1999, for professional associations relevant to historians of literacy). | Para información detallada que incluye advertencias legales, sugerimos unirse a la Asociación de Historia Oral (para asociaciones profesionales relevantes para historiadores de la alfabetización véase el recurso para investigación de la página **web** del Grupo de Interés Especial de la Historia de la Lectura de IRA –por sus siglas en inglés Intenational Reading Association-, 1999,). |

Table 2. Examples of borrowings with equivalents in Spanish.

We can see as examples the words **microfilm** and **web**. The LONGMAN online dictionary in English defines **microfilm** as “a type of film on which pictures and writing can be made very small, so that large amounts can be stored easily” and the English-Spanish dictionary WordReference suggests the word “microfilm” as a correct translation into Spanish, furthermore, the RAE online dictionary refers microfilm as synonym for *microfilme* ; therefore, it was decided to keep microfilm without changes because it is perfectly understood. On the other hand, for the word **web,** the English-Spanish dictionary WordReference suggests three possible translation in this field: internet, red and web, in addition, The RAE online dictionary defines it in the computer field as *red informática* which keeps the same idea as in English; whereby, a decision of style was made and, in the end, it was kept the same form as in the SL.

### *4.1.2 Calque*

According to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995), calque is a special technique that is a compound of two other methods: borrowing and literal translation. This technique borrows a word or expression from the source language, then translates it word for word into the target language. Even though it is a relatively easy technique, it was not used in this translation. In fact, for me it was one of the most difficult techniques to understand.

### *4.1.3 Literal translation*

“We use literal translation when in two sentences, one in SL and another in TL, exist a precise correspondence of structure and meaning” (Vázquez-Ayora, 1977, p.257), i.e. there is an equivalence word by word in this technique.

Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) claim that literal translation or word for word “is the direct transfer of a SL text into a grammatically and idiomatically appropriate TL text” (p.33). One key to understand how literal translation works, is the phrase *“word for word”* that all these authors mention.

The next examples are a clear example of literal translation:

| Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|
| *The value of history has its own history.* | El valor de la historia tiene su propia historia. |
| *The researcher has to have the time and money to get there.* | El investigador tiene que tener el tiempo y dinero para llegar ahí. |

Table 3. Examples of literal translation technique I.

Word for word means that all the elements in the source text have to be present in the translation into the target language; thus, it is also “a unique solution which is reversible” (Vinay and Darbelnet,1995, p.34). It means that if the text translated into the TL is translated back into the SL it will keep the same elements.

Another key to have into account is that, in literal translations, the target text can undergo some little changes that help to transfer a “SL text into a grammatically and idiomatically appropriate target language text” (Vinay and Darbelnet,1995, p.33).

The following examples show more about this:

| Example | Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|---|
| A | *It is important to distinguish between primary and secondary* ***sources.*** | Es importante diferenciar entre **fuentes** primarias y secundarias. |
| B | *Moreover, historical research helps us to identify who* ***we*** *are as a community.* | Además, la investigación histórica nos ayuda a identificar quiénes **somos** como comunidad. |

Table 4. Examples of literal translation technique II.

An example of these little changes can be variations in word order, which makes the text more understandable and also respects the grammatical rules of the target language. The position of adjectives in Spanish is commonly after a noun, while in English the adjective comes before a noun; for example, in the table above we can notice that the word *source* in English is after the adjectives *primary and secondary*. However, when it is translated into Spanish, the word order changes; the noun *fuentes* comes first and the adjectives *primarias* and *secundarias* comes after, so that the adjectives can modify the noun.

The second example has to do with the position of the subject. In English, it is always located at the beginning and in Spanish it can be used at the beginning, at the end or even omitted. In example B, the personal pronoun *we* in English is absolutely necessary to understand who we are talking about; nonetheless, in Spanish its equivalent *nosotros* is omitted and it is conveyed with help of the verb conjugation that corresponds exclusively to the Spanish subject *nosotros*.

The word for word in literal translation does not exactly means that the grammar in the target language will not be respected. It is always important to use the grammar of the TL and not to mix or try to use the grammar from the source language into the TL. Plus, the nature of literal translation made it perfect, in this translation, to translate the titles and subtitles, word for word as in the next example:

| Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|
| A SHORT HISTORY OF HISTORIOGRAPHY | Una breve historia de la historiografía. |

Table 5. Example of literal translation technique III.

Literal translation is always present in translations, but its frequency will vary depending on the sense of the text. Sometimes literal translation will be impossible to use because the meaning of some things will not be understandable or the result will be meaningless. In these cases, the translator would have to use the methods of oblique translation instead.

## 4.2 Oblique translation:

### *4.2.1 Transposition*

All languages have their own grammatical complexity, and there are no two languages with exactly the same grammar. Therefore, one of the greatest challenges in translation is to find an equivalent term for those words and ideas that cannot be translated literally. These are the moments where transposition can be used to keep the idea from the SL with some changes in the SL syntax while translating into the TL.

Transposition works at the grammatical level and involves changing the word class of one term for another within the target language translation, but always keeping the same idea as in the source language text.

In this translation, transposition was very helpful and was used specially in the translation of verbs with -ing ending. In the following examples we can identify the transpositions from verbs to nouns:

| Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|
| VALUES OF **STUDYING** THE HISTORY OF LITERACY | La importancia del **estudio** de la historia de la alfabetización |
| This "history of the book" approach has now broadened its scope and fostered the investigation of all the links among books and their readers, from the creative act of the author, through the physical process of **editing, publishing,** and **selling**, to the book's reception by its reader. | Este enfoque de la "historia del libro" ha ampliado su ámbito y promovió la investigación de todos los vínculos entre los libros y sus lectores, desde el acto creativo del autor, durante el proceso físico de la **edición, publicación** y **venta** y hasta que el libro llega a manos del lector. |

Table 6. Examples of transposition of verbs with -ing.

The use of verbs with -ing is very common in English, but those verbs are no often used into Spanish the same way as in English, in the case of these examples the modification of verbs into nouns was necessary in order to make the sentences clear and keep the original idea. In these cases, a literal translation was impossible because the translation of the verb -ing into its literal equivalent in Spanish as a *verbo en gerundio* or gerund verb would interfere with the original idea.

This translation also has other examples of transposition between different categories as: noun-adjective, noun-verb, adjective- noun, verb-noun, and adverb-verb.
It is shown in the table below:

| Transposition type | Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|---|
| **noun-adjective** | It is this marginalization of historical work, especially as it relates to the literacy community, that moves us to sketch briefly several reasons why studying the history of literacy is **of value** (Moore, Monaghan, & Hartman, 1997). | Esta marginación del trabajo histórico, que se hace presente también entre los estudiosos de la alfabetización, nos lleva a esbozar varias razones por las cuales el estudio de la historia de la alfabetización es **valioso**. (Moore, Monaghan & Hartman, 1997). |
| **noun-verb** | Although the old method was to record the relevant material in pencil (because all manuscript/rare book rooms prohibit the use of pens), usually by copying selected passages for later **analysis**, the advances in computerization of libraries—and the computer skills of scholars—over the past few years are making this obsolete. | A pesar de que, el viejo método era registrar el material relevante a lápiz (porque todas las salas de libros raros y manuscritos prohíben el uso de lapiceros), normalmente al copiar las páginas seleccionadas para **analizar** más tarde, los avances en la computarización de las bibliotecas y el conocimiento informático de los investigadores en los últimos años están haciendo esto obsoleto. |
| **adjective-noun** | Other studies probed the professional life of a progressive reading educator, Laura Zirbes (Moore, 1986); the literacy of a small group of Wampanoag Indians (E. J. Monaghan, 1990); the family literacy of a particular 18th-century Boston family (E. J. | Otros estudios investigaron la vida profesional de una educadora de la lectura progresiva, Laura Zirbes (Moore, 1990); la alfabetización de un pequeño grupo de indios |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | Monaghan, 1991); and the meaning reading held for **American <u>farm</u> wives** at the turn of the 20th century (Weber, 1993). | de la tribu Wampanoag (E. J. Monaghan, 1990); la alfabetización familiar de una singular familia Bostoniana del siglo XVIII (E. J. Monaghan, 1991); y el significado de la lectura sostenida por **las esposas estadounidenses <u>que vivían en granjas</u>** a principios del siglo XX (Weber, 1993). |
| **verb-noun** | Understanding a particular **<u>reading</u> method**, for instance, requires more than simply knowing about it: It must be located in the milieu of its times. | Por ejemplo, comprender un **método de <u>lectura</u>** en particular requiere más que simplemente saber del tema; debe situarse en el entorno de su época. |
| **adverb-verb** | Reading researchers are comfortable and familiar with the American Psychological Association (APA) style (used, in fact, throughout this volume), which **<u>simply</u>** cites author and date within the body of the text and provides the complete reference at the end. | Los investigadores de lectura están cómodos y familiarizados con el estilo A.P.A. (utilizado a través de este volumen), lo que **<u>facilita</u> citar** el autor y fecha dentro del cuerpo del texto y proporciona la referencia completa al final. |

Table 7. Examples of transposition of noun-adjective, noun-verb, adjective- noun, verb-noun, and adverb-verb.

Other situations where transposition is essential are in the translation of passive voice sentences. English has preference for passive voice, while in Spanish the preference for active voice prevails (Vázquez-Ayora, 1977).

In the next examples we can see the transposition from passive voice to active:

| | Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|---|
| **Example A** | **The historiography of literacy has been influenced by these shifting currents**. Disciplines other than the reading professional community have approached the history of literacy in a variety of ways. | **Esas corrientes cambiantes han influido sobre la historiografía de la alfabetización.** Otras disciplinas además de los estudios de literacidad han abordado la historia de la alfabetización de distintas maneras. |
| **Example B** | The names of persons are by far the easiest to research: **<u>They</u> are always indexed by libraries**, particularly if a person is well known. | Los nombres de autores son, por mucho, los más fáciles de investigar; **las bibliotecas siempre los clasifican**, en especial si el autor es famoso. |

Table 8. Examples of transposition from passive to active voice.

In example A, the original text has a passive voice sentence in present perfect, in the Spanish translation, this passive was changed into active voice as necessary to make the translation more natural. We can also see that the word order has been changed, but the fragment keeps the original idea from the source language version.

The Example B shows not only a transposition, but also a combination of techniques. The transposition technique is observed when the passive voice sentence is translated into active, but there is also an omission of the personal pronoun "**<u>They</u>**". Spanish has the very particular use of the "<u>sujeto tácito</u>", which allows the omission of the subject in the sentence if the subject has been previously mentioned. This combo of techniques helped the clause to sound more natural.

Likewise, the passive voice can be changed with the use of the impersonal "se" in Spanish as it is shown in the following example:

| Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|
| Once **the work of data <u>collection is completed</u>**—or, more accurately, you have called a halt to it—the work of analysis | Una vez que **el trabajo de la recaudación de información <u>se ha completado</u>** o, mejor |

| | |
|---|---|
| begins. Sources should not be taken at face value. | dicho, le has puesto fin, el trabajo de análisis comienza. |

Table 9. Example of transposition from passive to impersonal "se".

The phrase "**the work of date collection <u>is completed</u>**" in passive voice in simple present was not translated in a passive voice form. In Spanish the impersonal "se" is more common than the passive voice, so that it was decided to use it for this phrase, and it was finally translated as "**el trabajo de la recaudación de información <u>se ha completado</u>**".

### *4.2.2 Modulation*

Modulation is another technique that is used when literal translation is not an option. Different from transposition, which is a modification at the grammatical level, modulation is focused on the meaning at a thought category. This technique uses a different form in both source language and target language, but it maintains the same meaning in both cases.

In this translation, the modulation technique was used in a natural way, even when it was not intentionally sought at first, when it was time of revision and some things were changed, this technique prevailed over other options in some sections.

The following table contains some clear examples:

| Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|
| There is a need to site reading history within the larger contexts of its times. But **<u>it is not easy</u>** to become a good historian overnight. | Hay una necesidad de situar la historia de la lectura dentro de los contextos más grandes de sus tiempos. Sin embargo, **<u>es difícil</u>** convertirse en un buen historiador de la noche a la mañana. |

Table 10. Example of modulation from negative to positive expression.

The phrase "**it is not easy**" was not translated literally as "no es fácil", it was translated as "**es difícil**" that contains the same idea, but in a different form. This is a modulation "which turns a negative SL expression into a positive TL expression” (Vinay and Darbelnet,1995, p.37) or as Vázquez-Ayora called it “una inversion de términos o de puntos de vista”.

In some other cases, modulation can change a positive SL expression into a negative TL expression. As it is shown in the next example:

| Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|
| In fact, although the question of authenticity is certainly important, and forgeries do turn up from time to time, in general the authentication of sources has already been undertaken by experts at the libraries where the documents are housed. And in most cases, **triangulation is <u>neither possible nor desirable.</u>** | De hecho, aunque el asunto de la autenticidad es importante, y las falsificaciones aparecen de vez en cuando, en general la autentificación de las fuentes ya se ha llevado a cabo por los expertos de las bibliotecas dónde los documentos están almacenados. Y en la mayoría de los casos, **la triangulación es <u>imposible e indeseable.</u>** |

Table 11. Example of modulation from positive to negative expression.

This time the terms are inverted from positive to negative. The words **possible** and **desirable** on their own have a positive connotation and the words “**neither… nor**” add the negative connotation; however, when it was translated into the target language, the form “neither possible nor desirable” was changed into **“imposible e indeseable”**. These terms already have negative connotations on their own. As in the previous example, the different point of view does not affect the meaning of the original idea.

### *4.2.3 Equivalence*

The previous techniques such as transposition and modulation have proven that forms in SL an TL can vary, but the texts can keep the same meaning in both languages. Nonetheless, those techniques can be used as stylistic decisions by the translator, and many times the changes are necessary to respect the idea from the original text, the grammar in second language or to make it sound natural. However, there are sometimes where the change is mandatory, as in the case of the equivalence technique.

The equivalence changes the syntagma in the text, from the SL text into fixed expressions with fixed meanings in the TL. Equivalence is usually used in order to translate: idioms, clichés, proverbs, nominal or adjectival phrases, and onomatopoeia of animal sounds. (Vinay and Darbelnet,1995).

The following table shows two examples of equivalence technique:

| | Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|---|
| Example A | **The obverse of this coin** is that immediate access to the original manuscripts is also diminishing—and with it some of the pleasure of the research. | **La otra cara de la moneda** es que el acceso inmediato a los manuscritos originales también está disminuyendo y con ello algo del placer de la investigación. |
| Example B | In fact, although the question of authenticity is certainly important, and forgeries do turn up **from time to time**, in general the authentication of sources has already been undertaken by experts at the libraries where the documents are housed. | De hecho, aunque el asunto de la autenticidad es importante, y las falsificaciones aparecen **de vez en cuando**, en general la autentificación de las fuentes ya se ha llevado a cabo por los expertos de las bibliotecas dónde los documentos están almacenados. |
| Example C | The best known study of this kind remains that of Nila Banton Smith. Her study began as a published dissertation and received successive updates (1934, 1965, 1986). Although of | El estudio mejor conocido de este tipo sigue siendo el de Nila Banton Smith. Su estudio comenzó como una tesis doctoral publicada con actualizaciones sucesivas (1934, 19665, 1986). Aunque |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | value even today, **Smith's work is inevitably** **<u>a creature of its time.</u>** | sigue siendo relevante, **el trabajo de Smith** **<u>es adecuado para su época</u>**. |
| Example D | In contrast, the fourth approach, oral history, turns instead to living memory. **Oral historians** **<u>ask questions</u>** of those who are willing to talk about the past. For instance, oral historians interested in literacy look for those who can remember their early schooling or teaching (e.g., Clegg, 1997). | Por el contrario, el cuarto enfoque, *historia oral*, gira en torno a la memoria viva. **Los historiadores orales** **<u>hacen preguntas</u>** a las personas interesadas en hablar del pasado. Por ejemplo, los historiadores orales interesados en la alfabetización buscan personas que puedan recordar su escolaridad o formación temprana (p. ej. Clegg, 1997). |
| Example E | First, it can be helpful, and **especially so if your topic is** **<u>obscure</u>**, to alert the librarian ahead of time to your research interests, so that the librarian can be thinking about sources for you, as well as confirm whether you can use your laptop. | Primero, puede ser útil, **en especial si tu tema es** **<u>desconocido</u>**, alertar al bibliotecario con anticipación a tus intereses de investigación, para que el bibliotecario pueda pensar en algunas fuentes para ti, así como confirmar si puedes usar tu computadora portátil. |

Table 12. Examples of equivalence of idioms.

In example A, the idiom “**the obverse of this coin**” literally means “el anverso de esta moneda”, but the real meaning of this phrase is quite different, what the author is trying to convey is the opposite view of something that he has already settled and certainly the literal translation would not keep the same meaning. Therefore, to convey the real intention of the author, it was very important to look for a phrase in Spanish with the same idea, and the most suitable option was "La otra cara de la moneda" whose meaning is the same and even keeps the word "coin" in the phrase. It is the same case in the example B, the phrase "**from time to time**" which already has a fixed form in Spanish: "de vez en cuando".

In example C, adaptation was required when the phrase "**a creature of its time"** was found. A literal translation into "una criatura de su tiempo" was impossible because it did not convey the idea of the phrase into the TL at all, so it was necessary to look for the meaning of this phrase. Extra help of the cultural knowledge of my monography director was needed and at the end, the suitable translation was to adapt the phrase into "es adecuado para su época". This translation makes reference to the level of Smith´s work that was very acceptable for its time even when it has some conceptual limitations that nowadays are no longer accepted.

In example D, was an easier equivalence. The phrase "**ask questions**" in a literal translation into Spanish is "preguntar preguntas" which is quite redundant, the idea is correct because it is understandable; however, it is not acceptable. So, the correct translation for this phrase to sound more natural an also convey the idea is "**hacer preguntas**" that in English would be "to make questions".

Example E shows the word "obscure" in the phrase "**if your topic is <u>obscure</u>**", this adjective is not referring to the color of the topic. If it is translated literally the result would be "si tu tema es oscuro", but this form does not convey the real meaning of the idea in the source language. The word obscure is making reference to something you do not know, so the adaptation technique was necessary to transport the correct idea in a form that is understandable in Spanish. The online Cambridge Dictionary defines obscure as something "not known to many people" and with this reference, the TL word which best fitted in this situation was "desconocido" , giving as final translation "si tu tema es **<u>desconocido</u>**".

Other examples of equivalence that were found in this translation are: names with a form already stablished in the TL, titles of books with accepted translations and technical vocabulary already fixed in both languages.

The next tables show those the examples:

| Names equivalences | |
|---|---|
| Source Language | Target Language |
| These were followed by ecclesiastical histories that detailed the rise of Christianity throughout the Mediterranean world after the Roman Emperor **Constantine** converted in the fourth century (Gay & Cavanaugh, 1972). | Estas fueron seguidas por historias eclesiásticas que detallaban el ascenso del cristianismo por todo el mediterráneo después de que el emperador romano **Constantino** se convirtió al cristianismo en el cuarto siglo (Gay & Cavanaugh, 1972). |
| **Herodotus** and **Thucydides**, for example, departed from the practice of explaining human events as the outcome of divine will and interpreted the human affairs of governance and warfare as the product of human wills. | Por ejemplo, **Heródoto** y **Tucídides** se alejaron de la práctica de explicar eventos humanos como el resultado de la voluntad divina y, en cambio, interpretaron los asuntos del gobierno y la guerra como el producto de la voluntad humana. |

Table 13. Examples of equivalence of names.

| Book title | |
|---|---|
| Source Language | Target Language |
| But St. Augustine's ***The City of God*** provided the most influential statement of the Christian interpretation of history | Pero el libro ***La Ciudad de Dios*** de San Agustín es la declaración más influyente de la interpretación cristiana de la historia. |

Table 14. Example of equivalence of a book title.

It is important to mention that the most challenging term in the whole translation involved the use of this technique. Located in the section "*Values of Studying the History of Literacy*", the fragment with the term is shown in the following table:

| Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|
| The value of history has its own history. Called ***historiodicy***, this justification of the study of the past has been an essential practice of | El valor de la historia tiene su propia historia. Llamado ***historicidad,*** esta justificación del estudio del pasado ha sido una práctica esencial |

| | |
|---|---|
| historians for almost 3,000 years (Marrou, 1966). | de los historiadores por casi 3,000 años (Marrou,1966). |

Table 15. Historiodicy translation.

At first, the term ***historiodicy*** was translated using the instinct of a Mexican amateur translator, whose second language is English. I used the calque to borrow among structure the term *historiodicy* and just was changed the -icy for -dicidad to be more natural in Spanish. The same correspondence exists, in some words which end in -ity like: elasticity in English and elasticidad in Spanish. This process gave as a result the term *historiodicidad* as a form to fill the space in the Spanish translation. However; when the term *historiodicidad* was researched to be sure that it was correct, it was not found. Either in bilingual dictionaries as WordReference or in the official online dictionary of La Real Academia De La Lengua Española. Thus; a big obstacle had been found. The term chose to fill the place of *historiodicy* in Spanish did not exist. Even worse, the word *historiodicy* was not found in online dictionaries such as: Cambridge Dictionary, Longman dictionary, WordReference, or Merriam Webster and this was the most difficult part because without a clear definition of *historiodicy,* a term with the same idea would be difficult to find.

An intensive research through the web was started without success, until I found the Article "Happy Vergil Goes North: Aeneid in Russian Letters" by Zara M. Torlone, where the next fragment was found:

> "In the 19th and 20th century Russian writers followed this established path of uplifting readings of the *Aeneid* as they tried to acculturate the poem within their own cultural landscape and poetic agenda. Alexander Pushkin in his *Bronze Horseman* alludes to the *Aeneid* as a supporter of strong statehood. Like Vergil on Augustus, Pushkin bestows on Peter the Great the role of a "universal tamer." Both Vergil and Pushkin are preoccupied with **"historiodicy"** *("justification of history"),* in the course of which the wasteful destruction of young and even heroic lives is unavoidable. Such interpretation reinforces yet again the "optimistic" reading of the Roman epic on the Russian soil continued then in the 20th century "messianic" reception of Vergil best exemplified by the writings of religious philosophers Vladimir Soloviev and Georgii Fedotov and a poet Vyacheslav Ivanov who had to re-evaluate Vergil's legacy in an uncertain political environment of Russian revolution." (Para, 4).

In this fragment, Torlone uses the term *historiodicy* and also between parentheses gives a clearer idea of what historiodicy means. It is the **"justification of history",** which was actually previously mentioned in the SL fragment: "the value of history has its own history. Called *historiodicy*, this **justification of the study of the past** has been an essential practice of historians for almost 3,000 years (Marrou, 1966)." (Monaghan and Hartman,2000, p.109).

Having this meaning in mind, the research resulted in two terms as possible translations in Spanish: *historiografía* and *historicidad*. With these two possible terms, more specific knowledge was required, the kind of knowledge that only a historian would be able to provide. Therefore, a consult with Dr. Gustavo Rafael Alfaro Ramírez from the area of Education, Humanities and Art in the University of Quintana Roo was done.

Dr. Alfaro´s first advice was to look for the book of Marrou where the quotation was taken from and look for a Spanish version to find out the accepted translation for this term, but it was impossible to find a Spanish version of the book "The meaning of history" available. Therefore, the second recommendation was to look up this term in other chapters of the Handbook *of Reading Research volume III.* If the word *historiodicy* was used in other fragments, they will help to understand the term and it would help to find a suitable translation in Spanish; however, the term was not repeated and professor Alfaro suggested that for the idea "justification of the study of the past" in chapter 8, either *historiografía* or *historicidad* could be used as equivalents for the term *historiodicy* because according to him (personal communication) "la frase (in the fragment in chapter 8) sólo se refiere al peso que la propia historia (relato) tiene en el discurso científico de la historia (historiografía)."

*Historiodicy* was not used in other sections in the Handbook *of Reading Research volume III*, thus; both *historiografía* or *historicidad* could be used. However, the equivalence in English for "historiografía" was actually used in the section A SHORT HISTORY OF HISTORIOGRAPHY in chapter 8. Therefore, in order to avoid confusion between the use of the term "historiografía" in the sections VALUES OF STUDYING THE HISTORY OF LITERACY and A SHORT HISTORY OF HISTORIOGRAPHY, the final resolution after plenty of analysis was to use ***historicidad*** as technical term for *historiodicy* in that specific fragment. Thus, this odyssey ended up with the technique of equivalence being used to find a term to convey the idea from the source language to the target language.

### *4.2.4 Adaptation*

Adaptation occurs when a situation in the source language is unknown in the target language culture. This technique is used when a specific situation in the SL culture is translated into a completely different form that is common in the TL. The translator must have a high cultural level in both SL and TL because she/he has to create an appropriate situation considered as equivalent. So, the adaptation technique can also be "described as a special kind of equivalence, a situational equivalence" (Vinay and Darbelnet,1995, p.39). This technique was not used in this translation.

### *4.2.5 Addition*

Addition is a technique where words are added to the translation in TL in order to clarify some details that may be a little bit confusing without this extra information. In this technique, the translator must be careful of not adding unnecessary information by using more words than required. In the case of this translation, the addition technique was used to make clearer some details for the readers in the target language.

The following examples will illustrate the use of this technique:

| Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|
| Why did **the McGuffey Readers** become the most popular school readers of the 19th century? | ¿por qué <u>**la serie de libros de texto**</u> ***McGuffey Readers*** se convirtió en el método de enseñanza de lectura más popular del siglo 19? |
| But **St. Augustine's *The City of God*** provided the most influential statement of the Christian interpretation of history. | Pero <u>**el libro**</u> ***La Ciudad de Dios*** de San Agustín es la declaración más influyente de la interpretación cristiana de la historia. |
| **Smith's American Reading Instruction** (1965), for instance, is obviously a secondary source: She wrote her history basing her generalizations mainly on the study of a large | **el** <u>**manual**</u> **Reading Instruction** de Smith (1965) es obviamente una fuente secundaria; ella escribió su historia basando sus generalizaciones principalmente en el estudio |

| | |
|---|---|
| number of textbooks that she had personally examined. | de un gran número de libros de texto que había examinado personalmente. |

Table 16. Examples of addition technique.

This technique was required in order to introduce some words that help to better understand the ideas. In this translation, addition was most commonly used in the sections containing the name of a book, or manual because they are well known for researchers and scholars that are specialized in this area. However, for common people without enough knowledge it would be difficult to identify these papers as books or thesis. We can see the additions of the words "**serie de libros de texto, libro or manual**" in the translation into TL in the examples of the previous table. Also, this distinction has a second purpose: to help people to make the possible research of these papers easier in case they want to read more about them.

### *4.2.6 Omission*

Omission is used when the translator considers as necessary the omission of repetition or redundancy in order to make the translation in the TL clearer and understandable.

The table 17 shows some examples:

| Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|
| Thomas Jefferson, for example, wrote that the lessons of history were better for preventing **a repeat of <u>past</u> follies** than for divining wise future directions. | Tomas Jefferson escribió que las lecciones de historia eran mejores para prevenir **la repetición de imprudencias** que para adivinar sabias direcciones del futuro. |
| Nowadays, posting a request for help on an Internet listserv (such as the **<u>History of Reading Special Interest Group</u> of the International Reading Association's HoRSIG** or **<u>the Society for the History of Authorship, Reading and Publishing's</u>** | Hoy en día, enviar una solicitud de ayuda en una "lista de distribución en la red" (como HORSIG de *International Reading Association* o SHARP-L) puede mantener informados a otros en tu búsqueda de fuentes relevantes. |

| | |
|---|---|
| **SHARP-L**) can recruit informed others in your search for relevant sources. | |

Table 17. Examples of omission technique.

Translation is an art where an equivalence for the elements in source language must be found in the target language to convey the idea of the author. Thus, to omit words in the translation might lead some people to think that this technique could affect the translation, and because of that, the idea. However; omission can be used as long as the author considers that its use does not omit important details from the original idea.

In the first example below, the phrase "**a repeat of <u>past</u> follies**" was found. Here it was omitted the redundant idea of "past" because the phrase is talking about past follies; and it also includes the word "repeat", so if follies are repeated you can infer that the follies were done before and it is understandable that it happened in a past time. Then, the translation in Spanish was "**la repetición de imprudencias"**.

In the second example, the decision of using the omission technique was for saving space. Internet listservs such as HORSIG and SHARP-L are well-known and also have their official web sites that are easy to find just by typing in an internet search engine the acronyms of these listservs. Thus, from a large phrase as: "such as the **<u>History of Reading Special Interest Group</u> of the International Reading Association's, HoRSIG,** or **<u>the Society for the History of Authorship, Reading and Publishing's,</u> SHARP-L"** the final result into the TL was "como HORSIG de *International Reading Association* o SHARP-L". The advantage of this omission is that it is perfectly understood that they are listservs as it was previously mentioned between the parentheses in the same section.

# CHAPTER V. CONCLUSIONS

Through history, English has become a popular language around the world. Its importance has grown so much that nowadays people opt for learning it as second language in order to be in touch with persons worldwide or get access to information that is not available in their mother tongues.

In the case of Mexico that has a border with the U.S.A., the importance of the English language has of course reached us, and it has influenced our life in contexts such as education, job opportunities, entertainment and communication. However, being so close to the U.S.A. does not mean that all Mexicans speak English.

According to the English Proficiency Index 2017 (EPI) from Education First (EF) website, Mexico is ranked number 44 of 80 countries evaluated in the language proficiency of English, and it is in place number 6 of 15 countries in Latin America. Thus, Mexico´s proficiency is classified as low with an EF EPI score of 51.57 worldwide, it means that at least a 50% of the entire population in Mexico is unable to understand it and for them to get access to information in English is impossible. Here is where translation plays an important role to help people to overcome the obstacle of the language.

This project aims to help people, most specifically students, who do not speak English. This translation will help students to understand chapter 8, Undertaking historical research in literacy from the Handbook of Reading Research volume III, which is intended to be used for the subject "cultura escrita" of the master´s degree in Lengua Española whose design is in charge of Dr. Moisés Damian Perales Escudero. This subject will be available for students who do not speak English; however, the use of significant texts in English could be limited for those students whose level of English is not enough to understand the readings. Therefore, there is a necessity for translating the required chapters in order not to exclude those interested students, that are not able to understand the information of the selected texts. This translation of chapter 8 will also help to not reduce the material in the program to just authors and books in Spanish.

Carrying out a translation project involves heavy labor, from understanding the idea of the text to writing that same text into another language. This activity carries a great responsibility; it is a bridge that connects two worlds and people who speak different languages. Thus, the translator carries the same responsibility and more. I think I did understand a part of the beauty of "translation" since my university days, but I definitely didn't understand how difficult the work of a translator is until I worked in this translation.

By working in this translation, I realized that, even though Spanish is my mother tongue, it was quite difficult for me to translate a text from English to Spanish. I realized that just knowing two languages does not guarantee that your work will be successful, and I learned that translating a text into your mother tongue is much more than just using the daily Spanish that most of us use.

To convey the correct idea from the SL to the TL, the translator must have: a good reading comprehension since it is impossible to translate something you do not understand, a good level of the language you are translating from, a good cultural level in both languages because some situations will require it, research abilities, translation techniques knowledge, plenty of patience due to the text will definitely not be perfect at the first try, and much other kinds of knowledge and abilities.

From this experience, I learned that the main purpose of translation is not simply to find an equivalence of words from one language to another. The real purpose is that the readers in the target language can understand the idea in the message that the author is trying to convey in his/her own language. In order to achieve this purpose, the original style of the text and the author´s idea must be conveyed in the most faithful way possible.

This translation was a difficult task from the beginning to the end. The first challenge I faced was reading the text in order to comprehend it. The next challenge appeared when I found some terms used by scholars in the area of education and words I just did not know- or cultural situations in the chapter that I did not understand. It was thanks to these moments that I understood that researching is one of the most important activities in a translation because it helps to understand what you cannot in the first reading. Also, the use of many resources as bilingual dictionaries, Spanish encyclopedias, forums or consultations to experts in the required areas, were necessary in order to ensure the correct use of words in the translation into Spanish and avoid misunderstandings. The help of my main supervisor especially in these moments, was very helpful, it was the guide that helped me to never miss the main idea of the texts.

There were some crucial situations that helped me to understand the difficulty of translation. For example, the most difficult challenge in this translation, as mentioned in the analysis, was the term *"historiodicy",* which had no translation in Spanish. At least that was what I thought at first. It was mentally exhausting to look for an equivalent for this word in Spanish, in this moment I realized how important the resources and the research abilities are in a translation. I spent weeks trying to figure out the correct term in Spanish until I decided I couldn´t do it by myself and my main supervisor couldn't help me. In that moment, my main supervisor directed me to look for an expert´s help. I learned that whenever is necessary, it is important to look for an expert´s opinion, just in this way you will be able to move along.

For those interested in joining these series of translations to help enrich the readings of the subject "cultura escrita", I have some recommendations: you must be prepared to spend hours doing research because there are some extracts where the translation requires it, a glossary of technical terms will be very useful to be sure that in all moments you are using the same correct word when you translate the terms in TL and remember that to accept a translation is a huge responsibility. Thus, think about it and when you decide you really want to do the translation, talk to the person in charge to know if there is still material for you and commit yourself to end it.

Finally, I invite readers curious about the term *historiodicy* to research more about it and enlist the help of someone who speaks French, English and Spanish to read the book - "Histoire de l'éducation dans l´Antiquité"- where the quotation was taken from and find a more specific translation in Spanish. Afterwards, consult the term you found with a historian in order to confirm whether you have found a more suitable equivalent.

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# APPENDIX





Chapter 8
Undertaking Historical Research in Literacy

E. Jennifer Monaghan
Brooklyn College of the City University of New York

Douglas K. Hartman
University of Pittsburgh

Values of Studying the History of Literacy

The value of history has its own history. Called *historiodicy*, this justification of the study of the past has been an essential practice of historians for almost 3,000 years (Marrou, 1966). Their work has been shouted down, burned up, declared evil, proclaimed prophetic, forgotten, and ignored. It is this marginalization of historical work, especially as it relates to the literacy community, that moves us to sketch briefly several reasons why studying the history of literacy is of value (Moore, Monaghan, & Hartman, 1997).

The most time-honored rationale for knowing and doing history is that we can learn from the past. The challenge, however, is in knowing which lessons to draw on and how best to make use of them. Making straightforward, one-on-one applications of the past to the present can distort the unique dimensions of each event and lead to erroneous conclusions. Even judiciously constructed lessons are no guarantee of what to do or decide in the present. Thomas Jefferson, for example, wrote that the lessons of history were better for preventing a repeat of past follies than for divining wise future directions (cited in Gagnon, 1989, p. 113). So the pedagogical value of historical research on literacy is that it provides us with possible rather than probable understandings, and the ability to take precautions rather than control possible futures.

There are other reasons for undertaking historical work. One is that history provides yet another layer of context for understanding events by locating them in specific times and places. Understanding a particular reading method, for instance, requires more than simply knowing about it: It must be located in the milieu of its times. Moreover, historical research helps us to identify who we are as a community. History is a vital sign of any community's maturity, vitality, and growing self-awareness, and it provides the basis for a collective sense of direction and purpose. By creating a set of connections between past and present, we see ourselves as part of a drama larger than our own particular interests, areas of study, or organizational affiliations. As members of the reading community, in particulara community that has neglected its own pastwe need to gain a clearer picture of who we are by examining where we have been.

Historical research also promotes interdisciplinarity. To answer the questions that matter in our past brings us in contact with a wider circle of colleagues and their work, from librarians to antiquarians. In addition, studying history is intellectually enriching and challenging. The most thought-provoking history asks the "why" questions. Why did progressive education fail? Why did the *McGuffey Readers* become the most popular school readers of the 19th century? Why were women in colonial America taught to read, but less often to write? And why is the book shaped as it is? Answering questions like these forces us to theorize, search for and weigh evidence, make inferences, and draw conclusions. All social scientists do this, of course, but the work of history is especially adept at asking and answering questions that are not amenable to experimental, observational, or case study approaches. Finally, historical research is fun. What other discipline allows one to snoop into the concerns of others and label the product serious scholarly work?

Perhaps the biggest disadvantage associated with literacy history is that its messages for the present are equivocal. Indeed, this may have been why it has taken a profession wedded to presentism so long to embrace it.

A Short History of Historiography

Not only do the values of history have a history, but the methods of doing history have one as well. Called *historiography*, this self-conscious practice of thinking about the development of historical scholarship traces the ways in which history has been undertaken back to the oldest known artifacts of human activity. The historical practices of early human beings were very different from those of today. By their oral telling of myths, legends, and fables, humans attempted to explain the unpredictable happenings of the world as products of supernatural causes. And their written records recounted long lists of deeds done in warfare, sometimes chronologically, but mostly in registers of isolated pieces of information that offered no interpretation or analysis (Butterfield, 1981).

Historical work took on some measure of analytic detachment with the Jews of ancient Israel. Their reports in the books of the Old Testament displayed a capacity for assembling information from many sources with an eye toward accurate appraisals, but their accounts were still primarily the product of religious experience rather than any kind of analytic inquiry (Momigliano, 1990).

The first move toward an analytic approach that looked into the facts and determined their accuracy was undertaken by the Greeks. Herodotus and Thucydides, for example, departed from the practice of explaining human events as the outcome of divine will and interpreted the human affairs of governance and warfare as the product of human wills. They did so by checking information against participant and eyewitness reports, consulting archived documents, and thinking carefully about the motivations and causations for actions and events. And when they wrote, they wrote to instruct others, anticipating parallel future circumstances that could be avoided or taken. The underlying assumption in all their work was that history repeated itself through endless cycles (Grant, 1970).

The Romans, influenced by the Greeks, further developed practices for writing biography and memoir. But the emerging Christian view of history that was taking hold within the Roman empire melded the religious and analytic historical practices of the past. Early on, Christians compiled the Gospels in such a way that their beliefs, grounded in what they held were actual occurrences, could be defended against challenges and used to display the continuities of the New Testament with the Old. Later they developed universalist histories that located all human activity under the hand of God from Creation, in Genesis, to Armageddon, in Revelation. These were followed by ecclesiastical histories that detailed the rise of Christianity throughout the Mediterranean world after the Roman Emperor Constantine converted in the fourth century (Gay & Cavanaugh, 1972).

But St. Augustine's *The City of God* provided the most influential statement of the Christian interpretation of history. He rejected outright the Greek idea of cyclical history movements and reframed history as a progression along a line with a clear beginning, middle, and endfrom Creation, through this world, to the eternal world, as God worked out his will through history (Barker, 1982).

Augustine's method of using analytic tools within this religious framework was followed closely by medieval historians for 10 centuries. They faithfully informed readers of their information sources, but relied unquestioningly on information from earlier accounts, rarely using original sources to check and cross-check the accuracy of historical statements or the truthfulness of earlier assertions. To question the accuracy and motives of earlier historical accounts would be to question God's providence itself (Dahmus, 1982).

Historical methods in the modern age developed gradually from the 14th through the 19th centuries. The fundamental change entailed a shift away from supernatural explanations of history toward secular approaches (Breisach, 1983/1994). By the early 20th century, academic history had become completely secularized, and the history of the United States was viewed as a steady march toward perfection (American "triumphalism").

But, ironically, at a time when verification of sources was easier than it had ever been, the validity of historical knowledge itself came under public attack. Public confidence in history as the purveyor of "truth" yielded to skepticism, as younger historians presented conflicting versions of reality: Was Christopher Columbus the heroic seafarer of the older history or the purveyor of genocide of the new? Historians became aware of how their own predilections, and even language itself, influenced their scholarship.

Since the late 1950s, historians have moved through a succession of reconceptualizations of their craft. First came the new social history of the 1960s and 1970s, which made quantitative research the norm and the lives of the marginalized its target. Then followed, in the 1970s and 1980s, investigations of the intersections among history, language, and thought. These are associated with the work of Michel Foucault (1972), who insisted on the importance of discoursing about discourse, and with that of Jacques Derrida (1967/1976, 1978), who challenged the authority of text by positing that each reader reads (deconstructs) text differently. Both writers, in making language itself an object of study, cast doubt on language's ability to represent reality. Finally, the "postmodernism" of the 1990s elevated culture to a level of importance once held by the supernatural.

In response to these transformations of the field, Joyce Appleby urged, as do we, that historians of the new histories should continue to be "cultural translators," interpreting our past for consumers of history while new questions lead to new answers "through the mediating filter of culture" (Appleby, 1998, pp. 11, 12; cf. Appleby, Hunt, & Jacob, 1994).

An Analysis of Past Methodologies in Researching the History of Literacy

The historiography of literacy has been influenced by these shifting currents. Disciplines other than the reading professional community have approached the history of literacy in a variety of ways. The first, and oldest, of these have been histories of schooling, which discussed literacy within the larger framework of formal education and as a feature of American triumphalism (e.g., Cubberley, 1919/1934). The work, however, of Bernard Bailyn (1960) and Lawrence Cremin (1970, 1980, 1988) moved educational historians away from considering formal schooling as the chief agency of education toward including other educating agencies, such as churches, the community, and the family. (An ironic consequence has been a reduced interest on the part of educational historians in the role of schooling in literacy acquisition.)

A few decades later another group, generally known as "literacy historians," began to pursue a second, and different, approach, by applying the quantitative methodologies of the social historians to the topic of literacy. In order to discuss the relationship between literacy and society, they estimated the number of literates by comparing the proportion of those who could sign their names to a document with those who could only make a mark. The signature was hailed as a proxy for literacy: a uniform and quantifiable measure that was constant over time. This was more plausible during those centuries in which reading was taught at an earlier age than writing, so that reading acquisition could be inferred from signing ability. (For examples of discussions based mainly on signature counts, see Cressy, 1980, for 16th- and 17th-century England, and Lockridge, 1974, for colonial New England.)

The signature/mark approach, however, had its problems. Quite apart from the fact that, up to the 19th century, it seriously underestimated the number of those who could read even though they could not write (E. J. Monaghan, 1989), it only identified the minimally literate without showing how or why literates used their literacy. Nonetheless, the discovery of steadily increasing signature literacy up to the present time stimulated debates about the role played by literacy in different cultures. (For an overview, see Venezky, 1991.) Some historians have integrated signature counts into a variety of other sources in order to comment on popular culture (e.g., Vincent, 1989).

A third major approach has been to quantify not who was literate but what was read. The French historians of the "Annales school" provided the socioeconomic framework for the founders of the "histoire de livre" or history of the book, seeking, in Robert Darnton's words, to "discover the literary experience of ordinary readers" (1989, p. 28) Their number includes scholars such as Lucien Febvre and Henri-Jean Martin (1958/1976) and Roger Chartier (1994) in France, and Robert Darnton (1989) and David Hall (1996) in the United States. Book historians have examined what people read (numbers and kinds of books), paying particular interest to "low-culture" reading interests. This "history of the book" approach has now broadened its scope and fostered the investigation of all the links among books and their readers, from the creative act of the author, through the physical process of editing, publishing, and selling, to the book's reception by its reader. It has also sparked a series of publications on the history of the book in different countries (e.g., Amory & Hall, 2000).

The fourth and most recent trend, however, which represents a further evolution of the history of the book scholarship, has been an emphasis on a history of audiences (Rose, 1992). Studies of books alone rely for their generalizations on presumed or inferred effects upon readers, but historians now search for readers/writers who have reported on the meanings of their literacy. This approach is therefore dependent on qualitative data found in primary sources such as diaries, autobiographies, and letters. For instance, Barbara Sicherman (1989) used family letters and published memoirs to evaluate the role played by reading in the lives of the daughters of an upper-middle-class family at Fort Wayne, Indiana, in the late 19th century. This last approach, which ideally combines qualitative with quantitative data, may prove to be the prevalent one for some time to come for historians of the book.

## Literacy History and the Reading Research Community

There is now a large body of work on the history of reading and literacy, but most of it has been undertaken by scholars who are outside the reading research community. (For examples, see works cited in Moore, Monaghan, & Hartman, 1997.) In contrast to the historical approaches used by scholars from the social sciences and literature arenas, those in the reading professional community have used fewer and more limited approaches. The few reading researchers who have approached the history of literacy have traditionally done so through an examination of the textbooks used to teach reading (e.g., Hoffman & Roser, 1987; Reeder, 1900; Robinson, Faraone, Hittleman, & Unruh, 1990; Smith, 1965).

The best known study of this kind remains that of Nila Banton Smith. Her study began as a published dissertation and received successive updates (1934, 1965, 1986). Although of value even today, Smith's work is inevitably a creature of its time. Her discussions of the contents of American reading instructional textbooks are innocent of any consideration of how literacy instruction has been mediated by gender, class, or racethemes that preoccupy contemporary historians.

Courses in the history of literacy created by reading professionals within schools of education have been influenced by the history of the book scholarship (e.g., Cranney & Miller, 1987), but this scholarship has yet to make a major impact on researchers in the reading professional community, in spite of Richard Venezky's call for a new history of reading instruction (1987b). In fact, little interest has been shown by most of the reading community in doing historical research, whatever the approach.

There are, however, a few important exceptions. Bernardo Gallegos's work (1992) on the links between literacy and society in early New Mexico used both qualitative and quantitative datasuch as a letter by a friar describing how he taught the Indians and signature evidence from military enlistment papers. Allan Luke integrated content analysis into his history of the Canadian "Dick and Jane" experience (1988). Other studies have also demonstrated a broader scope of approach, especially in terms of sources and topics. They include biographical studies of well-known reading experts such as William S. Gray (Mavrogenes, 1985; H. M. Robinson, 1985) or Laura Zirbes (Moore, 1986); studies of the history of a particular reading methodology (Balmuth, 1982) or content area (Moore, Readence, & Rickelman, 1983); oral histories of teachers and students (Clegg, 1997), and studies of what literacy has meant to certain communities of readers (Weber, 1993). Moreover, Venezky's (1987a) review of the history of American readers sets them in a broad historical context.

## Undertaking Historical Research in Literacy

Notwithstanding these contributions, the history of literacy remains wide open to research by the reading community. Before we review these different approaches to the topic in more detail, it may be useful to clarify some terminology regarding sources.

### *Primary, Secondary, and Original Sources*

It is important to distinguish between *primary* and *secondary* sources. Primary sources are documents or artifacts generated by the persons actually involved in, or contemporary to, the events under investigation. In this sense, a curriculum guide to reading instruction and a diary discussion of what the diarist's children are reading are both primary sources. Secondary sources are the products of those who try to make sense of primary sourceshistorians. But a source may be primary or secondary, depending on what the researcher is looking for. Smith's *American Reading Instruction* (1965), for instance, is obviously a secondary source: She wrote her history basing her generalizations mainly on the study of a large number of textbooks that she had personally examined. Her book could also, however, be used as a primary source: It would be an indispensable source if Smith herself and her views on reading instruction were the object of investigation.

The distinction also needs to be made between *primary* and *original* sources. It is by no means always necessary, and all too often it is not possible, to deal only with original sources. Printed copies of original sources, provided they have been undertaken with scrupulous care (such as the published letters of the Founding Fathers), are usually an acceptable substitute for their handwritten originals. Again, it depends on the researcher's purpose. If the researcher wishes to study the spelling of the founding fathers, a reproduction will do, but if the penmanship of the Founding Fathers is the object of study, no printed substitute will suffice. In either case, primary sources are the bedrock of historical research.

Historiographers generally use both primary and secondary sources. Although it is certainly possible to produce useful and important historical work based only on secondary sources (Balmuth, 1982, for instance, used mainly secondary sources), much of the excitement of historical work lies in entering the world of the past through primary sources, including those used by other historians before. Historical advances are made not only by using sources seldom used by others but by looking at familiar material in new waysways made possible because the world view of the researcher has changed from that of earlier historians. In the last four decades, for instance, we have come to appreciate the importance of gender, race, and class as constructs that have influenced literacy instruction.

*Four Approaches to the Past*

The four approaches to the past detailed next all use primary sources as their chief database. We have identified them as qualitative and quantitative approaches, content analysis, and oral history.

The first approach may be termed *qualitative*. This is what most laypersons think of as "history": the search for a story inferred from a range of written or printed evidence. The resultant written/published history is organized chronologically and presented as a factual tale: a tale of a person who created reading textbooks, such as a biography of William Holmes McGuffey (Sullivan, 1994) or of Lindley Murray and his family (C. Monaghan, 1998). The sources of qualitative history are various, ranging from manuscripts such as account books, school records, marginalia, letters, diaries, and memoirs to imprints such as textbooks, children's books, journals, and other books of the time period under consideration. In qualitative history, the researcher inevitably draws inferences from what is all too often an incomplete body of data and makes generalizations on the basis of relatively few pieces of evidence.

The second approach is *quantitative*. Here, rather than relying on "history by quotation," as the former approach has been pejoratively called, researchers deliberately look for evidence that lends itself to being counted and that is therefore presumed to have superior validity and generalizability. In literacy studies, as we noted earlier, a prime example of the quantitative approach has been the tabulation of signatures and marks to estimate the extent of literacy. Other researchers have sought to estimate the popularity of a particular textbook by tabulating the numbers printed, based on the author's copyright records (e.g., E. J. Monaghan, 1983). These studies seek to answer the question, among others, of "How many?" The assumption is that broader questions (e.g., the relationship between literacy and industrialization, or between textbooks and their influence on children) can then be addressed more authoritatively.

Armed with numbers, historians can perform statistical analyses to establish correlations, as did Soltow and Stevens (1981), between schooling and literacy.

A third approach is *content analysis*. Here the text itself is the object of scrutiny. This approach takes as its data published works (in the case of literacy history, these might be readers, penmanship manuals, or examples of children's literature) and subjects them to a careful analysis that usually includes both quantitative and qualitative aspects. Smith (1965), for example, paid attention to such quantitative features as the size of a given textbook, the proportion of illustration to text, and the number of pages devoted to different content categories. In contrast, Lindberg (1976) used a qualitative approach to draw implications from the changing contents of the *McGuffey Eclectic Readers* in successive editions and comment on topics such as their attitude to slavery or their shift in theological viewpoint. Content analysis has been particularly useful in investigating constructs such as race (e.g., Larrick, 1965; MacCann, 1998) or gender (Women on Words and Images, 1972).

All three of these approachesqualitative, quantitative, and contentuse written or printed text as their database. (For examples of all three approaches, see Kaestle, Damon-Moore, Stedman, Tinsley, & Trollinger, 1991.) In contrast, the fourth approach, *oral history*, turns instead to living memory. Oral historians ask questions of those who are willing to talk about the past. For instance, oral historians interested in literacy look for those who can remember their early schooling or teaching (e.g., Clegg, 1997). These four approaches are not, of course, mutually exclusive. (Most content analyses, for instance, involve tabulation.) Indeed, historians avail themselves of as many of these as their question, topic, and time period permit. Arlene Barry (1992) and Thecla Spiker (1997) both used all four approaches in their dissertations.

The integrative use of approaches is made possible because the nature of historical research cuts across all genres of approaches, all of which begin with the identification of a topic and the framing of a question.

Identifying the Topic/Framing the Question

As in experimental research, the investigator has a question or problem that he or she wishes to answer or solve. (The classic beginner's mistake is to ask too large a question.) The complexity of the question and the breadth of the investigation are guided by the anticipated historiographical outcomethe written report.

Questions will be proportionate in scope to the anticipated length of the answer. One study asked what prominent variations of the phonics/whole-word debate in the late 1960s appeared in contemporary readers, but restricted its time frame to 5 years (Iversen, 1997). The result was a master's thesis. Another, probing deeper, asked what had led to the creation, development, and discontinuance of an entire textbook series, the *Cathedral Basic Readers*, over a half century (Spiker, 1997). Yet another asked how the inhabitants of a small, rural, midwestern community used printed information over a 30-year period (Pawley, 1996). Both these became doctoral dissertations. Other studies probed the professional life of a progressive reading educator, Laura Zirbes (Moore, 1986); the literacy of a small group of Wampanoag Indians (E. J. Monaghan, 1990); the family literacy of a particular 18th-century Boston family (E. J. Monaghan, 1991); and the meaning reading held for American farm wives at the turn of the 20th century (Weber, 1993). These, focusing intently on a limited topic, were all published in scholarly journals.

Identifying Undergirding Theories

Just as social science researchers do, historians proceed from a theoretical position, whether this is articulated or not. Smith (1965), for instance, was heavily influenced by the measurement movement of her time: She provided considerable detail on the size of the textbooks she studied, the number of their pages, how many pages were devoted to which topic, and so forth. Today, literacy historians are much more likely to be explicit about their theoretical positions, and invoke, say, modernization theory, or their stances on gender, race, and class, as the theories undergirding their approach.

A related issue is researcher stance. All of us are located within the particular perspectives of our own time and setting, and it might appear that if we are explicit about where we come from, this will militate against the possibility of observer bias. However, what we are looking for dictates what we will find. Some studies clearly have a particular perspective that may slant the conclusions drawn and even restrict the data considered worthy of study. Some authors pursue particular goalsheroic ones such as using history "to provide a sense of legitimacy for those who seek a different kind of literacy" (Shannon, 1990, p. x), or, at the other end of the political spectrum, political ones such as promoting a conservative agenda (e.g., Blumenthal, 1973). Any predetermined agenda runs the risk of slanting the evidence to its own needs. What emerges may be "the truth," but it is less likely to be close to "the whole truth," even if there were such a thing, because it may not do justice to opposing points of view.

Identifying and Locating Potential Sources

Although, for simplicity of exposition, we have discussed the issue of the researcher's question/problem first, there are in fact strictly practical decisions that affect the choice of topic from the outsetnamely, where are the sources to be found? If most of the relevant sources are half a continent away, the practical difficulties of expense and time will preclude a particular topic, however appealing it is to the researcher. Most historical research takes place in the manuscript and rare book rooms of public, private, and university libraries or at state and town historical societies, so the researcher has to have the time and money to get there. Considerations like these may guide the researcher to one approach rather than another: A content analysis of a textbook owned by the author, housed in a local library, or amenable to photocopying, for instance, may be more feasible than attempting a biography of an author whose letters and records are housed on the other side of the country. (See http://www.historyliteracy.org/research/archives/index.html for archives relating to the history of literacy.)

As researchers debate the merits of potential topics, they need to make an initial mental survey of all the possible relevant primary sources. In terms of manuscripts, are there any letters, diaries, or journals written by the target person or related to the target topic? What about school records at the local, town, or state level? What exists in printed form? Have any of the manuscripts been published? Are there schoolbooks, children's books, contemporary educational journals, contemporary books? Where are they, and how can access be obtained? Are there still people alive who would remember the event or the person or the book or the approach being investigated?

Fortunately, problems of access to the written/printed word are diminishing as time passes. Access to materials housed in distant libraries is being increasingly provided by interlibrary loans, photocopies, and microfilms. A collection of 844 primers and other introductory reading materials is available in microfiche form (*American Primers*, 1990; Venezky, 1990), and textbooks are being put on microfilm at Harvard University. And now there is the Internet, where the World Wide Web has already given access to works not restricted by copyright protection. The obverse of this coin is that immediate access to the original manuscripts is also diminishingand with it some of the pleasure of the research. There is no emotional substitute for reading the original letter, with its faded ink on a yellowed page, removed from the hand that penned it only by the passage of time.

The ease of finding sources once again depends on the topic. The names of persons are by far the easiest to research: They are always indexed by libraries, particularly if a person is well known. A search for material on, say, William Holmes McGuffey will produce a wealth of entries. Subjects such as "adult reading" are far harder to research, for they may not be listed under the rubric one expectsor they may not be catalogued at all. This is where a reference librarian is indispensable in guiding the novice to the relevant Library of Congress subject headings or to key words to be used in the search. Nowadays, posting a request for help on an Internet listserv (such as the History of Reading Special Interest Group of the International Reading Association's HoRSIG or the Society for the History of Authorship, Reading and Publishing's SHARP-L) can recruit informed others in your search for relevant sources. In addition, a comprehensive bibliography of historical sources in American reading education for the 19001970 period is under preparation (R. D. Robinson, in press).

Once the topic has been pinned down, what is equivalent to the literature review of experimental research should begin. Dissertations are a key resource here, along with articles and books. Secondary sources will normally provide clues that will lead back to more primary sources.

Much is made, in some of the few "how-to" pages on historical research that are occasionally included in textbooks on undertaking educational research, of establishing the authenticity of the sources, refusing to accept any but triangulated sources, and so on. In fact, although the question of authenticity is certainly important, and forgeries do turn up from time to time, in general the authentication of sources has already been undertaken by experts at the libraries where the documents are housed. And in most cases, triangulation is neither possible nor desirable.

Collecting and Recording the Data

Now, armed with a wish list of what you want to explore, precise information on where it is, and your professional identification for easy library admission, comes the time for data collection. Although the old method was to record the relevant material in pencil (because all manuscript/rare book rooms prohibit the use of pens), usually by copying selected passages for later analysis, the advances in computerization of librariesand the computer skills of scholarsover the past few years are making this obsolete. Many libraries are equipped with electric outlets for laptop computers. (It is prudent to call ahead and bring old-fashioned equipment in case all the outlets are in use.) Data collected electronically has the great advantage of only needing to be entered once. Note-taking, filing, and organizing are all made easier by the aid of the word processor. Scanning an original text into your own computer with a hand scanner may be the next technological leap.

Material taken down by hand, of course, will have to be entered into a computer at a later date. If you prefer the hand route, or if the absence of electrical outlets mandates it, think carefully about the surface on which you plan to record data. Many historians used to use large 5 by 7 inch note cards, which helped organize data by topic. One major drawback of these was that, at the same time, the chronology and sequence of the data were lost. An approach that preserves both of these is to record everything in a notebook or on numbered sheets of paper, and then index it all topically (most efficiently done on a word processor) at your workplace. It is also helpful to record the date and place of a given piece of research at the top of each page of notes.

Here are some more practical hints. First, it can be helpful, and especially so if your topic is obscure, to alert the librarian ahead of time to your research interests, so that the librarian can be thinking about sources for you, as well as confirm whether you can use your laptop. Second, always bring with you to the library all the equipment that you need on the spot. Libraries of historical societies, in particular, may be sited in neighborhoods that have few computer supply or stationery stores nearby. Manuscript rooms will provide you with the occasional pencil (and a pencil sharpener is always on site), but not paper.

Third, treat every entry as if this is the last time you will ever set eyes on it. Although it is relatively easy to backtrack one's bibliographical omissions for books, it is much harder to figure out what collection a manuscript came from. In fact, even with the manuscript in front of you, you may not be able to tell. Record all the identifying material on something that will not be surrendered to the librarian *before* you hand in your request slip. Fourth, pay lavishly for photocopying andthe latest technology, which allows for the reproduction of pages from books too fragile to be subjected to the rigors of xeroxingcomputer scanning. Better yet, see if you can borrow the text itself through interlibrary loan, or purchase a contemporary reproduction. Nothing is more helpful than having the text in your possession at your own workspace.

The collection of oral histories deserves a chapter to itself. Here we can only note that there are particular challenges, as well as joys, for the researcher who relies on the memories of the living as his or her sources. Memories are fallible, and cross-verification often difficult to obtain. The resultant data, however, may be of such intrinsic interest or charm that researchers often publish their reminiscences with little interpretation (e.g., Terkel, 1970), so providing, in essence, primary sources for further study.

Oral history takes much more time than one would think. The next technological breakthrough, already underway, will be the translation of speech directly into print; until this is perfected, however, painstaking transcription by hand from the audiotape is the only method available. For detailed information, including legal caveats, we suggest joining the Oral History Association (see the Research Resources of the web page of the History of Reading Special Interest Group of the International Reading Association, 1999, for professional associations relevant to historians of literacy). There are also tips and bibliographies on oral history that have been prepared by reading researchers (e.g., King & Stahl, 1991; Stahl, Hynd, & Henk, 1986; Stahl, King, Dillon, & Walker, 1994).

Interpreting the Data

Once the work of data collection is completedor, more accurately, you have called a halt to itthe work of analysis begins. Sources should not be taken at face value.

Two kinds of analysis are necessary. The first is an analysis of internal aspects of the data. This is the point at which one detects bias within the sources themselves. Given the self-serving nature of our species, autobiographies and diaries need particular scrutiny. Oral histories, too, pose unusual problems of verification, because the data provided are removed at a distance of time of perhaps as much as a half century from the period under investigation, and are filtered through the fallible and limited human memory.

The second kind of analysis is external to the sources themselves: It is the work of interpretation and organization. Historical research can be considered a kind of anthropology of the past. The historian looks for patterns and themes, and compares, combines, and selects material that will support generalizations and answer the questions or problems that motivated the study. No matter what questions the study began with, others will inevitably arise from the data itself. If the initial focus of the study changes with any newfound information, it is well worth the effort to pursue the new direction.

Communicating Interpretations/Writing the Results

What historians discover as they pore over their data commits them to one kind of organization over another. Organization can be a function of the source's chronology, as is the case in a biography; or it may be both chronological and conceptual, with the topics that emerged later in time also appearing later in the book; or it could be largely topical. Given that so much history is a study of causes and effects, and that cause always animates effect, the chronological element will undergird the telling of the history.

Once the organization is in place and writing begun, the social science researcher must confront issues of documentation. The purpose of documentation is to allow readers of the history to scrutinize, if they choose, the actual sources, in order to satisfy themselves that a particular source has been invoked in a way that accurately reflects its content. Reading researchers are comfortable and familiar with the American Psychological Association (APA) style (used, in fact, throughout this volume), which simply cites author and date within the body of the text and provides the complete reference at the end. As an adequate reference system in the writing of history, however, APA has several severe disadvantages. APA does have a mechanism for direct quotation, but if the historian has paraphrased instead of quoting, the standard APA procedure is simply to refer to the entire book. In these cases the reader has to search through the whole book to find the few relevant pages. There is also no short way, in APA, to cite manuscripts. And over and above these technical objections, there are aesthetic and cognitive ones: Within-text citations encumber the text greatly. Some paragraphs in a historical text or even individual sentences are based not on one source but on many; citing them in APA style produces a visual clutter that distracts greatly from the meaning and stylistic integrity of the writing.

This explains why historians document their assertions by using numbered notes, which appear as superscripts in the body of the text and are fully referenced in footnotes or endnotes. *The Chicago Manual of Style* (1993), now in its 14th edition, or some variation of it is by far the most popular style sheet for historical work. Footnotes are out of favor these days; instead, endnotes appear at the end of the work.

Nonetheless, the APA habit is so strong that the great majority of theses and dissertations sponsored by schools of education have used the APA style. We recommend that dissertation chairs advocate historical referencing for historical writing and support their students in doing battle with the establishment on its behalf.

### Publication

The final objective of historical research is, as in behavioral research, publication. Although historical research is still a fledgling enterprise among reading researchers, several studies that began as theses or dissertations within the reading community have reached the pages of literacy journals or appeared in book form. For example, Barry's article (1994) on high school remedial reading programs and Gallegos' book (1992) on literacy and society in early New Mexico both stem from doctoral dissertations. Books on the history of reading are often published by university presses (Association of American University Presses, 1999). There is unquestionably a market out there for historical work.

### Final Word

The time for historical research in reading to take its rightful place with other methodologies is, in our opinion, long overdue. There is a need to site reading history within the larger contexts of its times. But it is not easy to become a good historian overnight. Those who wish to pursue this genre of research should consider sitting in on a course on historical methods given at their own institution and joining appropriate historical societies. We particularly recommend the History of Reading Special Interest Group of the International Reading Association, which supports a web page, www.historyliteracy.org, that offers many research resources.

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