

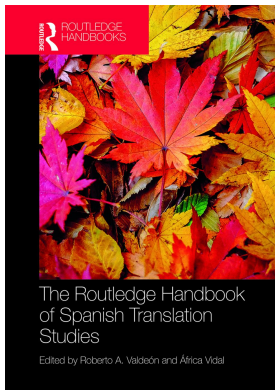
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18

LOCALIZATION AND LOCALIZATION RESEARCH IN SPANISH-SPEAKING CONTEXTS

Miguel A. Jiménez-Crespo

Introduction

The digital revolution in the twentieth century has had a profound impact on the professional world of translation, and by extension, on Translation and Interpreting studies. Landmarks such as the emergence of the Internet in the 1970s, personal computing in the 1980s, and the World Wide Web in the 1990s, have resulted in a dramatic change from a world of printed texts to a digital paradigm. Each day, vast amounts of digital texts are produced, distributed, localized or accessed by end users via computers, smartphones, tablets or digital devices. For those living in non-English speaking contexts, these digital devices often contain localized software products, web browsers, apps or user interfaces. The Internet continues to permeate everyday lives. In Spain, Internet access is available to 76.9% of the population, while the penetration rate of the Internet in Latin America is 68%; in Central America it is 53% (InternetWorldStats 2017). Nevertheless, in some countries such as Costa Rica, the Internet reaches as much as 86.8% of its citizens. In addition, Spanish is currently the third language with the most users in the Internet behind English and Chinese (InternetWorldStats 2017). In this context, consumption of web content translated into Spanish and their associated translation processes will continue to increase.

This chapter deals with localization, a by-product of this digital revolution, helping expand the reach of digital content and enabling all sorts of communication exchanges across socio-cultural and sociolinguistic communities. It represents a process that involves a complex technological, textual, communicative and cognitive process by which source interactive digital texts undergo modifications with the goal of being used in different linguistic and sociocultural contexts than those of production. Jiménez-Crespo (2008, 40) defined it as:

una modalidad de traducción que comprende un complejo proceso textual, comunicativo, cognitivo y tecnológico por el que un texto en formato digital y en un entorno interactivo se modifica para su uso en una lengua y contexto sociocultural de recepción distintos a los originales, siempre según las expectativas de la audiencia a la que se dirija y las especificaciones o grado de localización que encargue el iniciador.

(Jiménez-Crespo 2008, 40)



[A translation modality that involves a complex textual, communicative, cognitive and technological process by which a digital text in an interactive environment is modified to be used in a language and sociocultural context different from those of production. The process is always guided by the expectation of the intended audience and the specification or localization degree requested by the initiator.]

Localization is often defined in published research in the discipline using seminal industry publications, such as those released by the now disappeared Localization Industry Standard Association (LISA) as a process that involves “taking a product and making it linguistically and culturally appropriate to the target locale (country/region and language) where it will be used and sold” (LISA 2004, 13). The organization that filled the void left by LISA, the Globalization and Localization Association (GALA), defines localization as a process with “[t]he goal is to provide a product with the look and feel of having been created for the target market to eliminate or minimize local sensitivities” (GALA 2011). Scholars provided critical analyses of industry definitions of localization (Pym 2004), including overviews of both industry and TS definitional efforts (Jiménez-Crespo 2013a, 12–19). Primarily, these scholars argue that localization simply represents a translation modality with specific procedural and technological processes, in line with other modalities related to audiovisual translation, such as process of subtitling or dubbing of movies and television products.

Localization processes have historically emerged in the realms of software for personal computing in the United States (Esselink 2000; Parra 1999). Over the years it has progressively expanded to include websites (Jiménez-Crespo 2013a), videogames (Bernal Merino 2015), smartphone/tablet apps (Roturier 2015; Serón-Ordoñez and Martin-Mor 2017) and other small devices. The study of all these interrelated areas within Translation Studies makes up a subdiscipline that has been referred to as “Localization Studies” (Remael 2011; Jiménez-Crespo 2013a).

This sub branch has been a productive area within Translation Studies within what is known as the “translation turn” in the discipline, a process by which:

[T]ranslation theories begin to incorporate the increasingly evident impact of technology, in turn providing a relevant theoretical framework to language and translation technology researchers.

(O’Hagan 2013, 513)

This digital revolution has been a frequent locus of research for Spanish scholars given the consolidation of digital technologies in modern societies and in the practice of translation. In the twenty-first century, the “interrelationship between translation and technology is only deepening” (O’Hagan 2013, 503), and consequently, the “widespread technological impact on translation is only likely to increase” (ibid, 514). Technology keeps developing at a quantum speed, and the demands made on the professional translator do not show any signs of abating, quite the opposite: “in today’s market, the use of technology by translators is no longer a luxury but a necessity” (Bowker and Corpas Pastor 2015, np). It goes without saying that translation technologies are a requirement for localization.

Two areas have emerged as the most productive research trends in Spanish contexts, web localization and videogame localization. This chapter will focus mainly on web localization, although references to research into software and videogame localization will also be included.

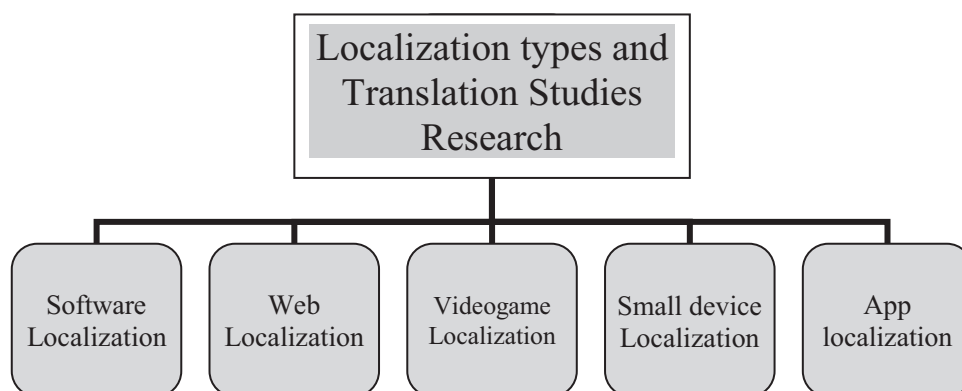


Figure 18.1 Different areas of research in Localization Studies, adapted from Jiménez-Crespo (2011c, 4)

The reasons are twofold. Web localization is considerably the modality that has attracted the most attention among Spanish researchers, and it represents the modality with the highest volume of business of all localization processes. Web localization surpassed the market share of software localization in the early 2000s (LISA 2004; Jiménez-Crespo 2008), resulting in a “lucrative, dynamic and interprofessional field, often involving marketing, design, software engineering, as well as linguistic processes” (Pym 2011, 410). Localization in general appears as one of the main engines of growth for the language service industry (GALA 2016),¹ with the language-technology industry amounting to almost thirty billion dollars. In Spain, a 2015 industry survey identified web localization as the process with the highest volume of business (Rico et al. 2016).

In his earlier publications, Jiménez-Crespo defined web localization by means of extending Hurtado’s (2001) synthetic approach to the definition of general translation. It was defined as “the linguistic, textual, communicative, cognitive and technological process by which multimodal web texts are transformed to be used by a different sociocultural and sociolinguistic community over the Internet” (Jiménez-Crespo 2013a, 20). This provided a solid foundation and incorporated web localization as a practice under the umbrella or superordinate term ‘translation’, as audiovisual scholars had done for decades with other practices such as dubbing or subtitling (Mayoral 1997; Remael 2011). Nevertheless, new textual and communicative practices and their related translation-related phenomena have emerged, such as user-generated content, crowdsourcing and volunteer translation (Jiménez-Crespo 2017a), as well as the intersection of human- and machine-translated content that more and more frequently are combined in websites. Novel digital genres and textual practices continually defy the limits of what can, and cannot, be considered web localization, such as the localization of 140 character tweets in the social platform Twitter or user updates on Facebook that offer instant machine translation (MT), all the way to a MT localization of a website in which fans can post-edit the resulting text (Aikawa, Yamamoto, and Ishahara 2013). These new translational practices are blurring the lines between ‘translation proper’ and the prototype of what the industry and society understand as web localization. The question then has emerged about how to delimit the fuzzy line between web localization as a mainstream service offered by language providers and the translation of any type of digital textual types and genres that circulates through the WWW. In this context, Jiménez-Crespo (2016) has suggested the extension of Halverson’s (1999) prototype approach to (not) defining ‘translation’, to web localization. This prototype

approach allows, he argues, to characterize any translational phenomenon observed on the web, (i.e., the translation of a tweet and its subsequent dissemination into different languages by volunteer fans), more or less at the core of what members of any society or professional or research community conceive as the web localization prototype. In doing so, the words of Halverson (1999, 20) resonate: “prototype will relieve our discipline from a lot of unnecessary discourse and dissensions [on the definition of translation] that can never be resolved”. While software and videogame localization appear as more clearly defined and delimited processes, the massive amounts of information circulating through the Internet and the WWW made difficult the delimitation and definition of web localization.

This approach entailed the identification of core characteristics that can be currently located around the centre of the web localization ‘prototype’. This exercise identified what web localization represents within the wider network of translation-related phenomena. The following list includes the core prototypical features from the more central in the prototype to the least.

- 1 Web localization operates exclusively on digital web genres, such as a corporate website, a promotional website, a social networking website or a dating website. The notion of web genre refers to those genres that are used “exclusively” on the web (Santini et al. 2011; Jiménez-Crespo 2013a, 79). Websites are “complex genres” (Jiménez-Crespo 2013a, 74) as they can include exemplars of other genres in their hyperlinked structures, such as a recipe, a piece of news or a status update. Nevertheless, translating just one of these simple genres that can be included in the structure of a website does not represent an instance of a prototypical web localization process.
- 2 Web localization entails primarily the translation of texts in html or xml format.
- 3 Web localization is a digital WWW mediated activity. However, not necessarily all Internet mediated communications that are the object of translational activities are part of it, such as chat or email translation (O’Hagan and Ashworth 2003).
- 4 Web localization revolves around the translation of interactive hypertexts.
- 5 Web localization entails a specific set of technological and management processes not shared with other translation practices (web content management systems and other web-specific technologies).
- 6 Web localization is a challenging new process in which a myriad of translation types (i.e. technical, legal, promotional, etc.) and modalities converge (multimedia translation and subtitling can be part of a web localization process).
- 7 Web localization entails human intervention. An instant translation of a website using any MT widget places in websites without any post-editing or human intervention might not be considered in the industry as an exemplar of the prototype.
- 8 Web localization in the industry encompasses both professional and non-professional or crowdsourced models.

The core features described here can be displayed by central exemplars of what a web localization process might be. They can also help identify other practices and processes that are not considered as web localization in industry and research communities and that fall outside the fuzzy boundaries of the web localization prototype.

Historical perspective

The origins of localization can be traced back to the emergence of personal computing and software in the late 1970s and early 1980s. Such technologies started to become popular among users that did not possess programming skills and, as a result, many US computing companies set off to address their needs in a comprehensive manner. Once companies such as Sun Microsystems, Oracle or Microsoft were successful in popularizing their products in the US, they turned their eyes towards international markets. The initial targets were Japan and the so-called FIGS countries (France, Italy, Germany and Spain). Therefore, economic reasons can be identified as the main drive behind the emergence and evolution of localization. These initial attempts resulted in the emergence of the now consolidated ‘localization industry’, the fastest growing sector in translation to date, a market that in 2013 amounted to over \$3 billion worldwide. By the 1980s and 1990s, this industry had expanded to cover all sorts of digital texts that billions around the world use on a daily basis, including videogames, apps and web texts created for distribution in the WWW with all sorts of scripts and dynamic interactive features (Torres del Rey and Rodríguez 2014). This expansion increased exponentially thanks to the mobile revolution, an age of ubiquitous connectivity and a digital society that cannot be understood without the rise of social media. Web localization and videogame localization appeared after years of successful efforts in software products. Consequently, processes developed for software localization were modelled to the specifics of digital hypertexts (Mata Pastor 2007; Jiménez-Crespo 2013a) or interactive videogames (O’Hagan and Mangiron 2014).

It is now recognized that the different areas within localization described in Figure 18.1 are distinct translation modalities that require specific skills from those of translators (Mata 2007). For example, web localization requires a lower degree of technological competence than software localization (Esselink 2006; Jiménez and Tercedor 2012), while videogame localization involves also components closely linked to audiovisual translation. Thus, this latter modality involves processes from literary, software and audiovisual translation (Pérez Fernández 2010). In the historical continuum, web localization brought the largest expansion to the localization industry, a fact that is hardly surprising considering the over 3.3 billion Internet users (Internetstats 2017) and the almost 1.03 billions active websites in June 2016 (Internet Live Stats 2017). As previously said, Spanish is the third language on the Internet, and localization from English into Spanish and vice versa continues to increase. While in most technology-oriented domains translations tend to flow from English into Spanish, all sorts of web business, institutional and tourism content is now translated from Spanish into English due to the status as *lingua franca* of the latter.

Part of the growth of the localization industry and its associated research rests in the rise of a wide range of new conventionalized forms of texts, the so-called “digital genres” (Santini et al. 2011). These software, webs or apps genres are commonplace in modern societies, such as word processors or web browsers that need localization. The WWW has been without any doubt the most fertile breeding ground for some of the most recognizable genres in modern societies, such as social networking sites, corporate websites, news websites, search engines, e-commerce websites, etc. (Jiménez-Crespo 2013a, 95–100).

As part of this evolution, there is what is known as a “funnel effect”: as more and more content is produced and circulated around the world, the translation needs communities around the world nowadays greatly surpasses the capacities of the professional market (Gambier 2014). This has also led to the development of novel approaches such as post-editing MT (Guerberof 2008), translation crowdsourcing and online volunteer community translation (Fernández Costales 2012; Jiménez-Crespo 2015, 2017a). This latter phenomenon sparked a new research

trend starting in 2007 when Facebook and many other social networking websites started to crowdsource the localization of their websites to users. The first Spanish version of Facebook was translated in a day when the crowdsourcing process was initially opened to Stanford University students that year. From the perspective of Translation Studies (TS), Jiménez-Crespo defines translation crowdsourcing as “collaborative translation processes performed through dedicated web platforms that are initiated by companies or organizations and in which participants collaborate with motivations other than strictly monetary” (Jiménez-Crespo 2017a). This process is slightly different from what it is referred to as ‘online collaborative translations’, which are self-initiated by web-based communities and whose motivations are non-monetary in nature. This process involves the localization by fans of websites, romhacking or collaborative localization of videogames (Muñoz Sánchez 2008; Díaz Montón 2011), as well as open software (Díaz Fouçes 2009).

Research issues and methods in Spanish-speaking contexts

In terms of research in Spanish-speaking contexts, scholars started to engage in localization research during the late 1990s. Initially, researchers such as Mayoral Asensio located software localization within the wider paradigm of what was referred to as “constrained” or “subordinate” translation (Mayoral Asensio 1997). It was proposed that this type of translation included localization, multimedia and audiovisual translation. Soon after, Parra (1999) published the first article on the main research issues into software localization, followed by others that attempted to delimit and define this object of study (i.e. Arevalillo 2000). The first Spain-based journal to publish a monograph on localization was *Tradumática*, edited by the research group by the same name based at the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona. This issue included articles on software, web, and videogame localization, as well as general articles on internationalization and localization management. The first edited volume on localization published by Spanish scholars appeared in 2005 (Reineke 2005) and included chapters dedicated to the same topics as those in the first *Tradumática* issue described previously, primarily from an industry and practical perspective.

In terms of web localization, few TS scholars have attempted to fill the relative lack of research in first decade of the twentieth century as a distinct process from software or videogame localization. The early 2000s saw the first journal articles specialized in web localization, with several scholars in Spain directing their attention to this new translation modality (Bolaños Medina 2003; Mata Pastor 2005; Jiménez-Crespo 2008). The first PhD dissertations studying web localization were defended, such as those by Bolaños Medina (2003), Renau Renau (2004), Jiménez-Crespo (2008) and Fernández Costales (2010). Similarly, a number of PhD dissertations delved into the localization of videogames (Pérez Fernández 2010; Méndez González 2012; Bernal Merino 2013). On the other hand, the first granted research project for the study of web localization was DIGALTT (Bolaños et al. 2006). Several issues of *Tradumática* focused on the different sub-branches of localization, such the 2007 issue on videogame localization and the 2010 special issue on web localization. The latter included new emerging aspects that have become attractive areas of research nowadays, such as web accessibility, crowdsourcing and post-editing MT for web context. Spanish scholars pioneered the first book – length projects on web localization (Jiménez-Crespo 2013a) and videogame localization (O’Hagan and Mangiron 2014; Bernal Merino 2015). Other journals based in Spanish universities also devoted special issues to localization, such as the 2011 special issue on videogame localization of the journal *TRANS* edited by Bernal-Merino. Large-scale research projects also started to emerge since 2015, such as the COMINTRAD project on

international trade, translation and localization in Spain (Medina Reguera 2016). This project focused on web localization as a primary platform for the internationalization of Spanish companies through an analysis of the translation localization efforts of over 13,000 companies.

It can be argued that probably the most productive research directions into web localization in Spanish-speaking contexts has been the descriptive study of digital genres. Despite having different end goals, they all use the notion of ‘web genre’ as a point of departure. This trend was historically inspired in part by research on the intersection of Discourse Analysis approaches and Translation Studies at the University Jaume I in Spain (Izquierdo and Montalt 2002; García Izquierdo 2005), where one of the first PhD dissertations on web localizations was completed (Renau Renau 2004). This approach, combined with corpus-based methodologies (Baker 1995; Laviosa 2002), has been used to research differences between translated texts and spontaneously produced ones. The differences identified at multiple levels (i.e. lexical, syntactic, discursive, pragmatic, etc.) are explained by the fact that translation is a communicative act which is shaped by its own goals, pressures and context of production, upon which several specific constraints operate, such as social, cultural, ideological, or cognitive (Baker 1999, 285), as well as technological ones (Jiménez-Crespo 2011a). It is therefore understood that localized websites are the result of a distinct process that results in translated products with different characteristics. Following the several scholars that have coined terms for this process such as “third code,” or “the language of translation” (Baker 1995), localized websites can be said to show a specific “language of localization” (Jiménez Crespo 2008, 2009a) different from that of spontaneously produced websites. For example, issues such as intratextual coherence (Jiménez-Crespo 2009b) and technological constraints are more significant in localized texts than in those translated in a linear fashion.

This combination of descriptive genre and corpus – based approaches initially focused on different subgenres of the Spanish ‘corporate website genre’, such as those related to computing business websites (Bolaños 2003; Bolaños et al. 2005) and websites of tile manufacturers (Renau Renau 2004). Some of the initial studies employed parallel corpus methodology, comparing and contrasting the source websites with their localized counterparts or comparing Spanish websites with non-localized US corporate websites. The localization direction was Spanish into English since Spanish websites normally localized their sites into the international lingua franca. Jiménez-Crespo followed this trend and, from a genre perspective, also produced a series of studies on the general “corporate website” genre (Jiménez-Crespo 2008, 2009a, 2009b, 2010b, 2012). He used a comparable corpus methodology, comparing the Spanish localized version of all the Fortune 500 companies in the US with a representative corpus of non-translated corpus websites in Spain from all business sectors. The unit of analysis moved from the web page to the entire website, and his corpora included complete websites rather than certain specific pages such as the homepage or product pages. His studies provided a theoretical foundation for the study of web localization, as well as descriptive quantitative studies focused on genre-based macrostructural contrastive analyses, lexical analyses, issues of web localization quality and the impact of web localization process in target texts. Other studies delved into “translation universals” (Baker 1995) and “tendencies in translation” (Chesterman 2004) such as conventionalization (Jiménez-Crespo 2009a) or explicitation (Jiménez-Crespo 2011b). These studies attempted to shed light on the descriptive study of translation universals in a new translation modality and novel genres. The significance of these studies relies on the fact that if these features of translation are probably generally present in translations, then any texts that result from new translation processes, such as localization or even crowdsourcing web localization (Jiménez-Crespo 2016), will also have to show them. These studies did not confirm the conventionalization hypothesis, although they supported the

explicitation hypothesis, both in a study that focused on navigation menus of corporate websites (2011a) and in a product-based study where eighty subjects participated in a translation experimental task that involved the translation of navigation menus (Jiménez-Crespo 2016). Another corpus-based study by Jiménez-Crespo (2009a) showed that corporate localized websites displayed lower levels of intratextual coherence at the lexical and syntactic level than similar spontaneously produced ones.

A wide range of other studies on different subgenres of the corporate website have ensued, with an increasing number of studies delving into corporate websites related to the wine industry in Spain (Sánchez Nieto 2009; Sánchez Barbero 2010), hotels and tourism websites (Suau Jiménez 2015), automobiles (Rodríguez Tapia 2015) and the agriculture-food industry websites in Andalusia (Medina Reguera and Ramírez 2015). This last study identified that one of the most recurrent issues in the product sections of these companies is the omission or lack of content localization. This is a recurring issue and it is consistent with findings in non-profit websites (Jiménez-Crespo 2012) related to loss in localization. These effects can be explained by economic constraints related to the dynamic and ever-growing nature of websites as opposed to other finite and linear printed texts. For example, the study by Jiménez-Crespo identified that the ‘news’ or ‘press’ section is the most likely to disappear in localized websites since dynamic sections of websites involve ongoing localization processes to handle any updates or added content rather than a one-time localization process.

In addition to the extensive research that has been conducted on corporate website subgenres, other web genres that have been the object of research in Spanish contexts are institutional websites (Fernández Costales 2010; Mapelli 2008), social networking sites (Pérez and Carreira 2011; Jiménez-Crespo 2013b, 2016) and non-profit websites translated into Spanish in the US (Jiménez-Crespo 2012).

The focus of research in web localization is not restricted to corpus studies of the most localized web genres. Different components of the web localization process have also been the object of research, such as image localization (Mata Pastor 2009), cultural aspects (Tercedor 2005), the localization of dynamic websites (Torres del Rey and Rodríguez 2014) and web localization strategies related to different geographical varieties of Spanish (Jiménez-Crespo 2010b). A special mention should be made to research into the intersection of localization and web accessibility. In this area, some studies have taken a purely descriptive approach (Gutiérrez and Martínez 2010; Tercedor 2010), while other empirical studies have employed a corpus-based methodology (Tercedor and Jiménez 2008; Tercedor 2010). Rodríguez Vázquez (2015, 2016) has also pioneered an experimental process-based approach to the study of accessibility (i.e. Rodríguez Vázquez 2016). Corpus-based studies into web accessibility have shown that the frequency of localization of alt image tags for visually impaired users is consistently lower in localized texts than in non-translated ones (Tercedor and Jiménez-Crespo 2008), pointing at the necessity of training future localizers and industry key players in this area. It is worth mentioning that Spanish scholars have produced most of the research into this important aspect of the overall localization process.

Quality in web localization has also been an issue of interest in published literature. This focus on quality by TS scholars is mainly due to the dynamic nature of web localization and the differences between translation for print and for web dissemination. Issues such as the role of the globalization, internationalization and localization processes and their impact on end products have been brought to the surface. Studies have focused on the different aspects that could improve quality assurance in web localization, such as functionalist perspectives (Jiménez-Crespo 2009c), a proposal of error typologies (Jiménez-Crespo 2011a), error analysis in case studies (Pérez and Carreira 2011; Diéguez Morales and Rodríguez 2011), the quality of

terminology in web localization (Diéguez Morales 2008), and the proposal of dynamic quality evaluation models for this translation modality (Jiménez-Crespo 2013a, 127–31).

Crowdsourcing and online collaborative translations have also been the objective of an increasing amount of research in Spanish contexts. Several Spanish scholars have delved into the theoretical underpinnings of crowdsourcing (i.e. Fernández Costales 2012; Jiménez-Crespo 2015, 2017a), while an up-and-coming research area involves corpus-based and experimental research combining corpus- and cognitive-based approaches (Jiménez-Crespo 2013b, 2016). One of the questions that experimental studies have tackled is whether crowdsourcing processing has an impact on the end products. It has been shown, for example, that the translation method impacts the final translation. In the study by Jiménez-Crespo (2016) it was shown that when social networking sites are translated by subjects by means of selecting or voting on existing translation proposals as happens in Facebook and other sites, rather than translating segments by themselves from scratch, the resulting productions are consistently more explicit and display different lexical and syntactic features (Jiménez-Crespo 2016). This bears clear implications for cognitive-based approaches, more so in an era where machine translation and translation memory have become integrated and more and more processes involve selecting matches, post-editing or evaluating translation memory matches.

Finally, another fruitful area of research in Spanish contexts is the pedagogy and training of localization. The main areas of research have been directed towards proposals that facilitate the teaching of web (Bolaños 2004; Diaz Fouçes 2004), software (Mata 2007) and videogame localization (Vela Valido 2011). Few empirical studies have been conducted in this area, with the sole exception of the study by Jiménez-Crespo and Tercedor (2012) in which they have attempted to map the acquisition of web localization competence.

Future directions

The continuing evolution of digital technologies means that new and unexplored research areas will continue to emerge. As previously mentioned, in the twenty-first century, the “inter-relationship between translation and technology is only deepening” (O’Hagan 2013, 503). Several emerging areas will continue to attract the attention of scholars in Spanish contexts, such as the crowdsourcing of website localization (Jiménez-Crespo 2015, 2017a). Other trends of interest will continue to be the web localization of different web genres or subgenres (i.e. the web genre corporate website or its subgenres: banking websites, websites of tourist operators, etc.) depending on the different areas of interest around the Spanish-speaking world. Areas such the merging of mobile apps and web localization (Jiménez-Crespo 2017b; Plaza Lara 2017) are and will continue to be of research interest given the increasing shift from computers to smartphones and tables to access web content.

Recommended reading

Bernal-Merino, Miguel A. 2015. *Videogame Localization*. New York-London: Routledge.

Monograph on videogame localization that provides a practical and theoretical background with multiple examples and illustrations in the Spanish-English combination.

Jiménez-Crespo, Miguel A. 2011b. “The future of universal tendencies in translation: explicitation in web localization.” *Target* 23: 3–25.

This empirical paper explores the “language of translation” or, as referred to in the paper, the “language of localization”, from a corpus-based approach. The significance of the study relies on the fact that since localization is a relatively novel approach, localized texts represent a specific textual

population that deserves to be studied in its own right. Since localized texts are the product of a specific process with distinct constraints, they could help test and confirm-reject proposed general tendencies of translated language.

Jiménez-Crespo, Miguel A. 2013. *Translation and Web localization*. London: Routledge.

The first monograph exclusively dedicated to web localization. It offers a comprehensive approach to this phenomenon and a foundation for students and researchers interested in researching web localization. The background studies that led to this monograph are based on the English-Spanish combination; multiple examples and illustrations are offered. It includes a dynamic framework to assess quality in web localization and a didactic proposal for web localization training.

Jiménez-Crespo, Miguel A. 2017a. *Crowdsourcing and online collaborative translations: expanding the limits of Translation Studies*. Amsterdam-Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

The first monograph dedicated to crowdsourcing and online collaborative translation. Since the first object of crowdsourcing practices were websites, software and videogame localization, this publication offers a comprehensive theoretical framework to study collaborative localization processes.

Reineke, Detlef. 2005. *Traducción y Localización*. La Palmas de Gran Canaria: Anroart Ediciones.

The first Spanish edited collection on localization. It includes chapters on software, web, and videogame localization, as well as general articles on internationalization and localization management.

Note

- 1 GALA 2016. Translation and Localization industry facts and Data. www.gala-global.org/industry/industry-facts-and-data

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