



University of Witwatersrand
Faculty of Humanities
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Translation and Interpreting Studies

**Designing and Developing
a Model for Quality Management and Best Practice
for the Translation Unit of the Pan African Parliament**

By
Mohamed Rahmtalla
Nº 1533230

Supervisor
Prof Judith Inggs

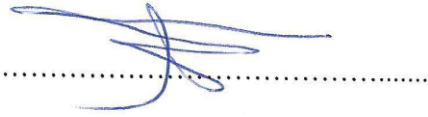
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Declaration

I, Mohamed Rahmtalla, declare that this work is my own except when acknowledged, and that the work is submitted for the award of the degree of Master of Arts in Translation and Interpreting Studies at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa. I further declare that this work has never been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university.

Signed this day the 13th of March 2017



Mohamed Rahmtalla

Dedication

To the University of London.

The school that I am indebted to only behind my parents.

In grateful recognition of its unwavering commitment to provide international students with excellent education.

Acknowledgement

I want to acknowledge my indebtedness and show my gratitude to the following individuals and institutions without whose valuable assistance and continued support I would never have reached this stage in my study. I share any credit with them; the errors and shortcomings are mine alone.

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Abstract

Using the Translation Unit of the Pan African Parliament (PAP-TU) as a case study, this research set out to find a comprehensive method for assuring the quality of the translation services of non-commercial organisations. This aim is fulfilled through achieving two objectives: firstly, assessing the current situation of the PAP-TU; secondly, building a model for quality management and best practice to assure the quality of the services of the PAP-TU. In addition to solving the problem at hand, this research is motivated by exploring new areas of translation studies, engaging in the ongoing debate around the topic and contributing to the body of knowledge in this less-explored area. To achieve the objectives of the research, a qualitative empirical study was designed to examine the correlation between ‘adopting a quality management model’ and ‘assuring translation quality’. An action research method was used to inform the outcome of the study and to provide a framework for its design. For achieving the first objective, a case study research method was used to assess the current situation of the PAP-TU. The data was collected through interviews, fieldwork observation and archival research techniques; a grounded theory technique was used for analysing the data. A modelling research method was used for achieving the second objective: creating a quality model for the PAP-TU. The study finds that the current approaches to translation quality are unable to assure the quality of the translation services of non-commercial organisations and that there is a need for a more holistic model. The main outcome of the study is the creation of a quality model for the PAP-TU. The study has reached many conclusions; the most important of which are: firstly, there is a shift in the translation field from considering translation as a craft or art to professionalization and industrialisation; secondly, the study confirms the gap between translation theory and practice. The study recommends conducting more research in the field of translation quality management as a growing branch of translation studies and in freelancing as an important type of employment for translators. The study also recommends designing translators’ training programmes after studying the market to address the latest needs and trends in the market.

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List of abbreviations

BP	Best Practice
CAT	Computer-Assisted Translation or Computer-Aided Translation
CEN	Comité Européenne de Normalisation
CIOL	The Chartered Institute of Linguists
CPD	Continual Professional Development
EP	European Parliament
EUATC	European Union Association of Translation Companies
FIT	Fédération Internationale des Traducteurs
ISO	The International Organisation for Standardisation
ITI	The Institute of Translation and Interpreting
PAP	Pan African Parliament
PAP-TU	Pan African Parliament Translation Unit
QM	Quality Management
QMS	Quality Management System
SATI	The South African Translators' Institute
ST	Source Text
TD	Terminology Database
TM	Translation Memory
TQA	Translation Quality Assessment
TSP	Translation Service Provider
TT	Target Text

Chapter 1: Introduction to the research

1.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the research, highlights its problem and provides justification for undertaking it. First, I give a background to the research problem in Section Two and against this background I formulate a research question and state the broad aim and specific objectives in sections three, four and five. I argue for the importance of this research and that it will have implications in many areas in Section Six. Some of the key terms and concepts such as quality, translation, best practice and model will be defined in Section Seven. I show the main sources of the research's data and how I addressed the ethical consideration related to them in Section Eight. Section Nine presents a brief overview of the chapters of the research and Section Ten concludes the chapter by summing up its the main points.

1.2 Background to the research problem

This research project originated from two impulses. Firstly, my interest in the field of translation quality; secondly, the suitable case study that I found as a vehicle to carry this interest; namely, the Translation Unit of the Pan African Parliament (PAP-TU). My interest in this field began during my work as a professional translator when I noticed the difficulties and frequent disputes we have regarding translation quality. These difficulties arose from the fact that translation quality is a multi-dimensional subject that cannot be addressed from one perspective only or by one stakeholder alone. On the one hand, there are two perspectives from which translation quality can be considered: the stages of production and the elements of production. On the other hand, there are many stakeholders who are concerned with, and affected by, translation quality.

The main stakeholders of translation are buyers, translation service providers (TSP), translators and society at large. Most buyers of translation services are not able to assess the quality of the translation services they buy; consequently, they need assurance beforehand that the TSP can render a quality translation service (European Commission, 2015: 9). For such buyers, quality assurance is more useful than quality assessment since they are incapable of doing the latter. TSPs, too, need to assure their clients that

they have the necessary professionalism and resources to render quality translation. Furthermore, TSPs need a benchmark against which to assess the quality of their services. For translators and their associations, the subject of quality is more pressing because there is no entry barrier to the translation profession – any individual with knowledge of two languages can assume the role of a translator (European Commission, 2009: v); thus, professional translators need a method to signal their status and to distinguish between the competent and the incompetent in their trade. In addition, there is a public interest in the availability of quality translation services considering the important role of translation in communication between people from different linguistic communities.

To address these various and sometimes competing needs, theories, models and standards for translation quality have been developed by different interested parties. This multitude of approaches to translation quality is not a unique phenomenon because the market development in any sector usually leads to an abundance of tools to address the quality of the product or service (European Union Association of Translation Companies [EUATC], 2016).

Translation quality can be viewed from two perspectives: the stages of production and the elements of production. From the stages of production point of view, translation quality can be addressed prospectively, before production, by assuring the quality; consecutively, during production, by controlling the quality; or retrospectively, after production, by assessing the quality. From the elements of production angle, the focus can be on the product, the translated text; the producer, the translator; or the production, the entire service provision.

Many of the product-based approaches to translation quality were developed within academia and some of them are based on translation theory. As a matter of fact, concerns about translation quality have always been present in translation literature. Western translation theory, writes Robinson (2005:161), is “normative”; it aims to tell translators how to translate, or in other words how to produce a quality translation. This tradition goes back to Cicero’s instruction to orators and Horace’s instructions to poets. Within these approaches there are many perspectives on translation quality because, as

House (1997: 1) writes, different approaches to translation view translation quality differently. Equivalence theory, for example, locates translation quality in finding correspondence between Source Text (ST) and Target Text (TT). In this regard, Jakobson (1959) examined the equivalence in meaning between words in different languages, and Nida (1964) and Newmark (1981) suggested translation strategies for achieving equivalence in different situations. Reiss (1971) and House (1997) developed models for translation quality assessment based on equivalence theory. On the other hand, the functionalist theory of translation considers translation quality from the target culture's perspective. Vermeer (1989) developed the *skopos* theory that postulates the purpose of translation as the point of reference for translation quality rather than equivalence between the ST and TT.

The producer-based models for translation quality focus on translators' competence. Their aim is to differentiate between competent and incompetent translators and to signal the status of the competent through some means of certification. Some of these models are developed within academic institutions, while others are developed by translators' associations such as the South African Translators' Institute (SATI), the Institute of Translation and Interpreting (ITI), and the Chartered Institute of Linguists (CIOL). When assessing a translator's competence, assessors consider academic qualifications, professional certification, years of experience and membership of associations.

As a result of increasing industrialisation and professionalization in the translation field and because of the fact that a large number of translation buyers and sellers have become organisations, standardisation bodies such as The International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) and The European Committee for Standardisation (CEN) have developed translation standards to address the entire service provision. In this regard, the CEN issued *EN 15038* in 2006 and ISO issued *ISO 17100* in 2015, in addition to many national standards such as the American, Canadian and Chinese standards.

The second impulse that motivated this project is the convenient case study – the PAP-TU. During a personal visit to the PAP in February 2016, I noticed that there are some concerns about the quality of the translation services of the PAP-TU. I communicated

my desire to investigate these concerns and propose a solution, and I found encouragement and support from the different stakeholders. I conducted a preliminary investigation and read some literature. I found that, despite the numerous constraints, there is room for improvement by investing a little more in the Unit and implementing one of the current quality management systems or developing a quality management system specifically for the Unit's use. Therefore, against this theoretical and practical background, I propose the following research question.

1.3 Research question

This research seeks to address the following research question: Can adopting a model for quality management and best practice assure the quality of the services of the Translation Unit of the Pan African Parliament?

1.4 Aim of the research

The aim of this research is to find a more holistic method for assuring the quality of the translation services of non-commercial translation organisations.

1.5 Objectives of the research

The aim of this research will be fulfilled through achieving the following two objectives:

- i. To assess the current situation of the PAP-TU, this primary objective is divided into the following secondary objectives:
 - a) to understand the context within which the PAP-TU works,
 - b) to analyse and evaluate the organisational structure and workflow,
 - c) to assess the human and technical resources,
 - d) to identify the stakeholders' concerns about the services of the Unit,
 - e) to identify the challenges that face the Unit, and
 - f) to know the staff's opinions about the development of the Unit.

- ii. To design, develop, implement and evaluate a model for quality management and best practice for the PAP-TU; this primary objective is divided into the following secondary objectives:
 - a) to identify the bases upon which the model will be built,
 - b) to specify basic and secondary requirements,
 - c) to determine the workflow of the Unit,
 - d) to put forward a detailed procedure for implementing the model,
 - e) to envisage and address implementation challenges,
 - f) to specify a procedure for evaluating the model,
 - g) to show how the model will develop as the PAP develops, and
 - h) to compare the implementation scenario with the business as usual scenario.

1.6 Rationale

Translation is among the industries in which buyers and users cannot usually assess the quality of the product they buy or use. Consequently, these buyers and users need assurance beforehand that the service providers are capable of rendering quality services. This is particularly relevant in multilingual institutions such as the United Nations, the African Union and the Pan African Parliament where low quality translation can lead to dissatisfaction or even political disputes amongst the members. The European Commission (2015: 6) writes, “translation errors and discrepancies” have dire consequences upon the institution; they may cause “image-related damage” and create “risks of litigation”. At the same time, a high-quality translation fulfils the institution’s mandatory “requirement of multilingualism” and helps the institution to achieve its political goals (European Commission, 2015: 1). Such international institutions should take all the necessary measures to minimise the possibility of translation errors and discrepancies. Thus, there is a need for a translation quality system that assures the production of a quality translation in these organisations.

However, the current models of translation quality do not satisfy this need. Each of the models has its shortcomings. The wide gap between product-oriented approaches and professional translators’ needs has been both acknowledged and lamented for a long

time (see Drugan (2013) and Lauscher (2000), for example). In this regard, O'Brien (2012) studied some of the equivalence-based models of translation quality assessment and concluded that the error typology method that his sample uses is static and unable to respond to new text types (2012: 55). Functional approaches have been criticized for disregarding the relationship between source texts and target texts and focusing only on the target audience (Schäffner, 2005: 237). The recently developed translation standards such as *ISO 17100:2015* and *EN 15083:2006* have been criticized for not providing methods for assessing translation quality. The European Commission (2009: 25) suggests modifying *EN 15083:2006* because the Standard does not address the quality of output; the Standard adds revisers to the translation process, but those revisers can revise a low-quality translation. Furthermore, translation standards have structural problems when applied to non-commercial organisations because they are designed for commercial organisations and are built around a contractual relationship between TSPs and their clients.

Therefore, there is a need for a new model that acts as a benchmark for non-commercial translation organisations: a holistic model that can, on the one hand, adapt one or more of the production-oriented models for non-commercial translation organisations and, on the other hand, adds elements from the product-based and producer-based approaches to remedy the drawbacks of the production-oriented models, in addition to insights from other disciplines such as management and quality studies to perfect the model. The current study undertakes this mission as it is one of the first attempts to adapt *ISO 17100:2015* to non-commercial settings. This means re-designing the standard by deleting the elements that focus on the contractual relationship between TSPs and clients and adding other elements such as translation policy, risk analysis, organisational structure, translation manual, and translation brief. Such a new model will not only provide for the needs of non-commercial organisations but it also helps commercial organisations to adapt *ISO 17100* to their own specific needs.

This line of inquiry is worth following because, in addition to solving the problem at hand, this research will have numerous implications and will add to the body of knowledge in the field. On the one hand, the study will provide a holistic model for translation quality management that is informed by scholarly theory, industrial

regularities and professional experience. On the other hand, juxtaposing different approaches to translation quality will lead to new conceptual insights and methodological improvements. It is thus hoped that this research will contribute to the debate around translation quality and present a different and new perspective in addition to making a theoretical, methodological, empirical, practical and pedagogical contribution.

Theoretically, I argue that translation has become an industry and therefore it is more useful to address translation quality through industrial quality systems such as *ISO 17100* rather than using merely theoretical approaches such as House's (1979). However, these quality systems should be informed by translation theory and professional translators' best practice. Such a tripartite approach to translation quality may contribute to bridging the gap between theory and practice. Furthermore, many concepts and modes of investigation from management, quality and best practice studies will be adopted and this will enrich translation field by new concepts and modes of investigation. Another expected contribution of this research is the fact that the area of process-oriented models of translation quality is under-researched. I surveyed many textbooks and studies that focus on research in translation studies such as Williams and Chesterman (2002), Lan, Dong, and Chiu (2009), Hatim (2013), Saldanha and O'Brien (2014), Hansen (2013) and I found that they do not provide a clear definition of this area of speciality. They speak about 'translation process' as what goes on in the translator's mind during translating. There is not even a suggestion for 'translation quality management', 'translation standards' or 'the process of rendering translation services' as topics for potential research. Nord (1988:5) is the only author that speaks about translation process as comprising all the elements that go into providing a translation service. This lack of attention to this important area is justified by the fact that industrialisation and standardisation are new phenomena in the field: the European Translation Standard was published in 2006 and the ISO Translation Standards was published in 2015 and this is a short time for the standards to firstly be part of the national standards around the world and secondly be part of the body of knowledge.

Methodologically, the action research method, which I use as a framework for this research, is recommended by many scholars such as Hatim (2013), Williams and

Chesterman (2002) and Saldanha and O'Brien (2013). Hatim (2013) argues that this method is useful in bridging the gap between theory and practice and that it is the ideal method for practitioners who undertake research. Furthermore, I will be using the methods of benchmarking and modelling. Benchmarking as a research method for conducting best practice studies in translation is not commonly used, but modelling is frequently used. The problem is that researchers such as House (1997) and Reiss (1971), for example, do not make the modelling process explicit. I will be using these methods explicitly and show the process of applying them. In addition, the interdisciplinary context within which the research will be conducted and the processes of building the model may be suggestive of new research designs and methodological insights.

Empirically, I argue that there is a need for a new categorisation system for approaches to translation quality and to show the shortcomings of the current categorisation systems. The new system will take into consideration new developments in the field after the introduction of translation quality standards such as the ISO Translation Standard. Furthermore, I apply the new system to review the literature of this research and this highlights the usefulness of the new system and the insights it brings to this area.

Practically, the main outcome of this study is building a quality model to cater for the needs of the PAP-TU. Other organisations may use the findings of the research to solve similar problems or adopt its methodology to investigate similar situations. I am also hopeful that both translation industry and professional translators welcome approaching translation quality from the perspectives of both management and translation studies where the former addresses translation quality from a process point of view and the latter addresses it from a production viewpoint.

Pedagogically, the findings of this study are expected to shed some light upon the kind of translators' competence employers look for and therefore recommend certain inclusions in the curriculum. I further argue that industrialisation and standardisation of translation should be reflected in translators training programme by considering subject such as quality management, project management and translators' associations.

1.7 Definition of key terms and concepts

This section provides definitions of some of the key terms and concepts. The reason is that the definition of these terms is in flux. They can mislead if they are not defined properly.

1.7.1 Quality

ISO (2015: Clause 3.62) defines quality as the “degree to which a set of inherent characteristics of an object fulfils requirements”. In this definition, quality is understood as a relative, not absolute, concept. Hoyle (2007:10) states that the use of the term ‘degree’ suggests that there is a measuring system – a standard – and that quality is “the difference between the standard stated, implied or required and the standard reached”. The definition implicitly recognises the existence of some quality in the product or service, but it is concerned with the degree of this quality whether it is high, medium, or low. ISO (2015: Clause 3.62) points to this fact saying, “the term ‘quality’ can be used with adjectives such as poor, good or excellent”. However, the use of the term ‘quality’, in everyday life, without qualification implies ‘good quality’; ISO frequently uses the term in this sense such as in the introduction to *ISO 17100:2015* which states that the standard provides TSPs with all that they need for “the delivery of quality translation services”. Here, “quality” refers to good translation services.

Quality can be assured before production, controlled during production or assessed after production. Quality management is the encompassing term of these quality elements. The following paragraphs give definitions of these elements of quality while Figure 1.1 shows the quality management function among other management functions in an organisation.

- i. Quality assurance is the “part of quality management focused on providing confidence that quality requirements will be fulfilled” (ISO, 2015: clause 3.3.6).
- ii. Quality control is “part of quality management focused on fulfilling quality requirements” (ISO, 2015: clause 3.3.7).

- iii. Quality assessment is to review or evaluate the “suitability, adequacy or effectiveness” of a product or service to meet the established objectives” (ISO, 2015: Clause 3.11.2). Hoyle (2001: 647) defines assessment as “the act of determining the extent of compliance with requirements”.
- iv. Quality management is the encompassing term of these quality elements. ISO (2015: Clause 3.3.2) defines quality management as “management with regard to quality”.

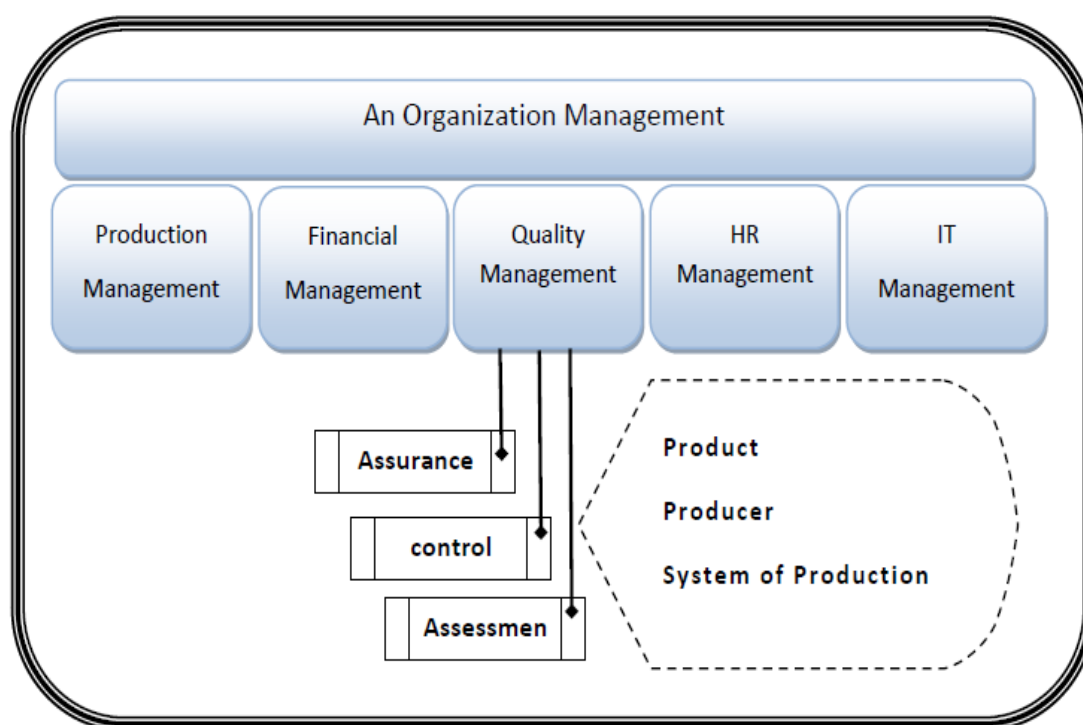


Figure 1.1: The quality management function among other management functions

1.7.2 Translation and translation quality

This study adopts a functionalist definition of translation (see 2.2 for more discussion on the definitions of translation). In this regard, I use Nord’s (1988) definition of translation. She (1988: 32) defines translation as the act of producing a target language text that both functions in the target culture and maintains a relationship with the source text; the function of the target text specifies that relationship between the source (ST) and target text (TT). Adopting a functionalist definition means that translation is judged by fulfilling the intended communicative purpose in the target culture. Many stakeholders in the industry adopt such a functionalist perspective. The European

Commission (2015: 1) writes that target texts should “be fit for their intended communication purpose”. Certification bodies assess translators’ competence against their abilities to produce translations that serve the intended communicative purpose and hence their examinations include a translation brief in addition to a source text. Koby (2013a: 165) states that professional exams test the candidate’s ability to produce a translation that complies with the target language standards and adheres to the translation brief which states the purpose, audience, and medium of the translation.

I also adopt a functionalist definition of translation quality. To reach a working definition of translation quality, I combined the CEN’s (2006) definition of translation which states that translation is “render[ing] information in the source language into the target language in a written format” (CEN, 2006: Clause 2.16) and ISO’s (2015) definition of quality which states that quality is the “degree to which a set of inherent characteristics of an object fulfils requirements” (2015: Clause 3.62). Therefore, translation quality is “the degree to which a translated text fulfils a need or expectation that is stated, implied or obligatory”. This working definition caters for many perspectives of translation. Firstly, “fulfils a need” caters for functionalists who judge translation quality upon fulfilling recipients’ needs. Secondly, “fulfils expectation” caters for equivalence theory exponents who define translation as the creation of equivalence. Moving to the sources of “a need or expectation”, the definition covers the most possible sources: “stated” covers clients’ requirements, such as translation briefs; “implied” covers the norms of the profession; “obligatory” covers statutory requirements such as complying with a certain quality standard.

1.7.3 Best practice and benchmarking

Quantum Consulting (2004: 6) defines best practice as “the business practice that, when compared to other business practices [...] produces superior results. Best practices are documented strategies and tactics employed by successful organizations and programs.” This method of inquiry originated in business studies and then adopted by other fields. It is a form of policy research that “characterized by the pursuit of knowledge in order to facilitate actions” (Vince, 2003: 130). The underlying belief behind using best practice is that this method transfers knowledge and improves policy and product

(Stead, 2012: 104); that is, best practice entails, in Stead's (2012: 110) words, learning from the experience of the others. The aim of best practice studies is "to identify examples of successful activities and operations in organizations that can be adopted by others to improve their performance" (Vince, 2003: 130).

Benchmarking is the research method that is used for conducting best practice research. Kelessidis (2000: 2) writes that benchmarking is a process that focuses on the "improvement of any given business process by exploiting best practices". Williams and Chesterman (2002: 24) write that, in translation quality, best practice procedures can be used to determine the best ways of doing a certain task or activity by asking questions such as, "which kinds of working methods seem to lead to the best quality results? The data here are operation procedures of various kinds, action carried out by clients, translators and revisers" (See 3.4.5 for a more discussion on benchmarking).

1.7.4 Model and modelling

Pöchhacker (2004: 84) defines a model as a "representation of an object or phenomenon" that usually describes the kinds and the numbers of the components that "form part of the phenomenon or object" and shows in what ways these components "fit together or relate to each other". Models are used for various purposes of inquiry such as describing, explaining or predicting (Pöchhacker, 2004: 84-85). In translation studies, researchers have developed different types of models. Hermans (2005: 155-156) writes that it is possible to consider the relevance of models in translation studies from four different angles: theoretical models, analogue models, translation itself as modelling and the relationship between models and norms. The theoretical or conceptual models such as the linguistic, text linguistic or functional models of translation are used as learning tools. The diagrammatic or analogue models are used to represent certain aspects of translation or translating for pedagogical purposes. The third use of modelling in translation studies is to view the translated text as a representation (or model) of the source text. The fourth use is constructing models from the norms of the industry and then examining the translated texts against them.

This study engages in both model application and model making (modelling). I want to build a new model, but in building this model I will apply other models. For ease of

reference I will call this model the PAP-TU Model. The PAP-TU Model refers to the representation of a system of quality management and a procedure of best practice that I intend to develop for the PAP-TU (see 3.4.3 for more discussion about modelling).

1.8 The sources of data and the related ethical consideration

This research involves non-medical human subjects. Thus, I followed the Witwatersrand University Guidelines for using human subjects as a source of data and I applied to the University's Ethics Committee for ethical clearance and I was granted the clearance. The source of the primary data was the PAP. I was granted permission from the PAP's management to conduct my research on their premises. The main technique for data collection is interviews. I followed the University's Guidelines for conducting interviews. The participants were given sufficient information about the research, and they signed consent forms.

1.9 Brief chapter overview

This study is divided into chapters, and each chapter is divided into sections and subsections. References within the study are as follows: (see 4.2.3.2); this means that the reader may go to Chapter 4, Section 2, Subsection 3, Subsection 2 to find more discussion about the topic at hand. I found this system more convenient than using a page-number-based system; besides it is widely used in linguistics and translation studies' publications. Routledge Publishing House uses this system for example.

Each chapter of the research, except the last one, begins with an introduction that tells the reader about the content of the chapter and ends with a conclusion that summarises the main points of the chapter and draws a conclusion. The research consists of six chapters: Chapters one, two and three introduce the research, place the topic into context, specify the research methodology and show the research design. Chapters four and five carry out the objectives of the research: Chapter four assesses the PAP-TU current situation, and Chapter five builds a model to assure the quality the PAP-TU's services. Chapter six is a concluding chapter that includes a summary of the main results, conclusion and recommendation. The following subsections provide an overview of the chapters.

1.9.1 Chapter One: Introduction to the research

This is the introductory chapter of the study. It first gave a background to the study, and then the research question, aim and objectives are stated. The rationale section gave an argument for conducting the study. The definitions of key terms and concepts such as quality, translation, translation quality, best practice and benchmarking, model and modelling are given. The main sources of data and the ethical consideration related to them are presented.

1.9.2 Chapter Two: Literature review and conceptual framework

In this chapter, I give context to the research problem. In Section Two, I review current research trends in translation studies. In Section Four, I present the current categorisation systems of approaches to translation quality, highlight their shortcomings and suggest a new categorisation system. The new categorisation system will be used to review some literature and related studies about these approaches in sections five, six and seven. In Section Eight, I discuss the literature and the related studies I reviewed in the previous sections. Section Nine presents the conceptual framework that I use as a theoretical orientation of the study.

1.9.3 Chapter Three: Research design and methodology

This chapter addresses five topics. In Section Two, I define some of the key terms and concepts such as research methodology, research method, research design, technique and instrument. The third section presents and justifies the methodological choices of the research such as the philosophical assumption, logical moves and research type. In Section Four, I show the methods that I use to achieve the objectives of the research, namely action research, case study, modelling and benchmarking. The research design is the subject of Section Five where I give both a summarised and detailed research design. In Section Six, I discuss research quality and show how I assure the quality in this research.

1.9.4 Chapter Four: Assessing the current situation of the PAP-TU

The first objective of the research is the focus of Chapter Four where I conduct a study to assess the current situation of the PAP-TU. The chapter consists of eight sections. In Section Two, I give an overview of the PAP. Section Three discusses the issues related to data collections such as the population of the study, the sampling method and the techniques of data collections. The data is processed using grounded theory in Section Four. In Section Five, I present the findings of the analyses under fifteen headings. Sections Six and Seven interpret and discuss the findings of the study.

1.9.5 Chapter Five: Creating the PAP-TU Model

The second objective of the study is the focus of this chapter where the PAP-TU Model will be designed, developed, implemented and evaluated. The chapter consists of seven sections. In Section Two, I present the theoretical and empirical bases upon which I build the model. The model is designed and developed in Section Three where I specify the basic and secondary requirements as well as the work processes. In Section Four, I provide a detailed procedure for implementation and anticipate some implementation challenges and provide some measures to deal with them. In Section Five, I specify the evaluation procedure. Section Six shows how the model addresses the expected future challenges of the PAP, while Section Seven provides an argument for implementing the model and compares the implementation scenario with a business as usual scenario.

1.9.7 Chapter Six: Conclusion of the research

This is the concluding chapter of the research; it consists of three sections. In Section one, I summarise the main findings of the study. These include the findings of literature review, the results of the PAP assessment study and insights from building the models. From these findings, I draw some conclusions in Section Two. In the last section of the chapter and the research, I offer some recommendations regarding applying some of the findings and adopting some of the methodologies.

1.10 Conclusion

This chapter has given a background to and rationale for the research. In addition, the preliminaries of the research such as the research question, aim and objectives have been stated. The argument for undertaking this research is built upon the fact that the topic is important, never explored before and it will make an empirical as well as a theoretical contribution. The main conclusion of this chapter is that there is a gap in the body of knowledge related to the quality of the translation of non-commercial organisations. The next chapter thus builds upon this conclusion and gives a more focused empirical and theoretical context of the research as well as considering what has been written so far about this topic and how this research will build on previous work.

Chapter 2: Literature review and conceptual framework

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided a background to this research and a rationale for conducting it. This chapter places the topic of the research into the related theoretical and empirical literature and sheds more light on the gap in the body of knowledge that was mentioned in the previous chapter. These interrelated subjects are discussed in the following six sections. Section Two shows the current trends in translation studies research, and Section Three presents some discussion about translation and translation quality and introduces approaches to translation quality, while Section Four discusses some of the current categorization systems of translation quality approaches, highlights their shortcomings and suggests a new categorisation system that overcomes these shortcomings. Using the categories suggested in Section Four, the next three sections give an account of the literature around translation quality; each of these sections have a subsection that shows how other researchers have engaged with the topic. In Section Seven, I discuss the literature and the related studies I reviewed in this chapter. Section Eight outlines the conceptual framework that I use as a theoretical and conceptual orientation for this study.

2.2 Research trends in translation studies

In this section, I focus on research trends in translation studies. That is, I want to see how authors have classified translation research. I think Holmes's (1972) famous Map is a good place for starting a discussion about translation research. According to Munday (2001: 10-13), Holmes divided translation studies into two divisions: pure and applied. The pure branch is divided into theoretical and descriptive branches; the former focuses on medium, area, rank, text type, time and problem; the latter focuses on product, process and the function of translation. The applied branch of translation studies focuses on translator training, and translation aids and criticism. In recent years, many volumes about research models in translation studies have been published. Among these volumes are Jenny Williams and Andrew Chesterman's (2002) *The map: a beginner's guide to doing research in translation studies*, Gabriela Saldanha and

Sharon O'Brien's (2013) *Research methodologies in translation studies* and Basil Hatim's (2013) *Teaching and researching translation*. These volumes discuss research trends in translation studies from two perspectives: the topic of research and the methodology for conducting research. It appears that the three volumes were written for pedagogical purposes – to help undergraduate and graduate students to conduct research in translation studies. They are more prescriptive than descriptive as they identify areas and topics for research and suggest certain research methodologies. In Section 3.3 I will touch upon the methodologies they suggest; in this section, I limit my discussion to their classification of translation research.

Williams and Chesterman's (2002) volume was the first of these volumes. The authors (2002) identified twelve areas of research in translation studies, namely text analysis, quality assessment, genre, multimedia, technology, translation history, terminology and glossary, interpretation, translation process, translator training and translation profession. Saldanha and O'Brien (2013: 5) divided research in translation studies into four areas of focus: the texts that are the product of translation, the translation process, the participants involved in the translation process, and the context within which translations are produced and received. Hatim (2013) identified eight areas of research in translation studies: register-oriented research focuses on the point of view from which the translation is approached; pragmatic research focuses on the purpose of translation; text-oriented research focuses on different textual aspects of translation; translation and ideology focuses on the cultural and political aspects of translation; translation of genre focuses on translating certain genres; translation as genre addresses the place of translation among other text types; processes research engages with the act of translating; theory and practice in translation teaching suggests some areas of research in translation pedagogy.

The topics and the methodologies of research in translation studies have been the subject of a study titled "Research Trends and Methods in Translation Studies: A Comparison between Taiwanese and International Publications" authored by Lan, Dong and Chiu (2009). The aim of the study was to compare Taiwanese translation research with research in other countries in terms of research topic and research method. To achieve this aim, the authors chose a sample of 1,099 articles from the Web of Science

and 259 dissertation and journal articles from Taiwanese sources in the period from 2002 to 2008 (2009: 188). The analysis of the sample revealed that there are sixteen distinct areas of study in the Taiwanese sample and twelve distinct areas of study in the foreign sample. They also found that there is overlap in research topics such as language, process, strategy, source and training between the two samples (2009: 189). They further found that the Taiwanese scholars see translation as a vocational field and focus on how to solve practical problems, whereas the foreign sample focuses on translation theory and the cultural aspects of translation (2009: 189). The authors recommend doing more research in areas such as translation ethics, translating multimedia, translation history, and translation technology (2009: 188).

2.3 Approaches to translation quality

There are many definitions of translation and each of these definitions “reflects a particular underlying theoretical model” (Shuttleworth and Cowie 2014:181). Equivalence-based theories tend to centre on maintaining some kind of equivalence between the source text and target text. House (1997: 32) defines translation as “the replacement of a text in the source language by a semantically and pragmatically equivalent text in the target language”. Equivalence-based theories are target text oriented; that is, they consider the source text the point of orientation (Shuttleworth and Cowie, 2014: 181).

In contrast, functionalist approaches to translation consider the target culture’s needs as the main criterion for defining translation. Thus, Nord (1988: 32) defines translation as the act of producing a target language that both functions in the target culture and maintains a relationship with the source text; the function of the target text specifies that relationship between the source and target text. The focus on the function or the purpose of translation is what distinguishes this approach from equivalence-based approaches; Koby (2013: 177) writes that in functionalist theory a translation task includes a brief along with the source text. Many of these definitions, as Shuttleworth and Cowie (2014: 182) note, are prescriptive not descriptive; they do not say what translation is but what translation is supposed to be.

As scholars differ about defining translation, they also differ about defining translation quality. House (1997) adopted an equivalence-based notion of translation quality. She (1997: 32-33) writes that equivalence is the “fundamental criterion” of quality and that “an adequate translation text is grammatically and semantically equivalent” to the source text. Bendana and Melby (2012: 114) present a functionalist definition of translation quality; they write that translation quality is the “degree to which the characteristics of a translation fulfil the requirements of the service specifications contained in the client-TSP agreement, which include following the specified Quality Assurance process”. These definitions consider translation quality from a product perspective only; that is, they consider the assessment of translated texts, but there are many perspectives from which translation quality can be viewed such as considering translation quality from the production and the producer point of view. In the following section, I expand this discussion by considering more approaches to translation quality and the systems that are used to categorise these approaches.

2.4 Categorisation of the approaches to translation quality

Approaches to translation quality are categorised in different ways using varied criteria. Some authors categorise them according to the theories from which they draw; others categorise them according to the extent of their application. House (1997: 1-24) bases her categorisation on translation theory and identifies the following three categories:

- i. Subjective approaches: these approaches have no objective criteria for judging translation quality; they rely on the reader’s subjective judgement. They include the anecdotal, biographical and neo-hermeneutics perspectives on translation.
- ii. Response-oriented approaches: these approaches form part of the subjective approaches but they focus on the recipients’ responses to translation.
- iii. Text-based approaches: these approaches draw from linguistics, comparative literature, philosophy, sociology and theories of action and reception. They aim to provide a universal translation theory rather than considering individual translation cases.

House's categorisation focuses on the assessment of translation as she calls it "Review of Approaches to Evaluating the Quality of Translation". However, most of the approaches she includes do not focus on evaluating the quality of translation per se. It appears that House herself acknowledges this misrepresentation when she (2013: 534) writes, thirteen years later, that different theoretical orientations about translation lead to "different ways of going about assessing (retrospectively) the quality of a translation and different ways of ensuring (prospectively) quality in the production of a translation". Chesterman (1997) categorises approaches to translation quality into five categories: retrospective assessment, prospective assessment, lateral assessment, introspective assessment and pedagogical assessment. Once again, this categorisation focusses only on the translated text. Drugan (2013) identifies two categories, namely theoretical and applied approaches to translation quality. The author identifies the theoretical models as those models that are developed in academic circles, and the applied models as those that are based on the experience of professional translators, such as the standards of translation quality management.

2.4.1 Critique of the current categorisation system

There is an inherent difficulty in categorising approaches to translation quality. Firstly, these approaches come from different areas of experience, namely the industrial, academic and professional sectors. Secondly, the approaches address different things, such as translation production, translators' competence and the translation rendition system. Thirdly, they address translation quality at different stages such as before, during and after production. The different categorisation systems I have reviewed, so far, do not distinguish between industrial and professional approaches, despite the significant difference between them. Some of the approaches ignore or downplay professional models, even though these are important in the real world: translation buyers, for example, think highly of the certification of professional associations because they assess translators' characters and competences against market needs. Therefore, these categories are unsatisfactory and there is a need for a new categorisation system. In the following subsection, I present a new categorisation system that overcomes the drawbacks of the above systems.

2.4.2 A new categorisation system

The previous subsection indicates the problems of the current categories and the need for a new categorisation system that takes into consideration new developments in the field such as the introduction of translation standards. This new categorisation system divides approaches to translation quality into three categories, namely product-based, producer-based and production-based approaches to translation quality. In other words, I categorise approaches to translation quality from the elements of production perspective.

Product-based approaches refer to the theories and models of translation that focus on the translated text prospectively to ensure the production of quality translation through teaching translators how to translate, or retrospectively to evaluate the quality of translation. Such approaches can also be referred to as academic approaches since they originate in academic circles, or theoretical approaches since most of them were built upon translation theory, or text-based approaches as they focus on the translated text. This category includes House's (1997) three categories, Chesterman's (2007) five categories, apart from his introspective and pedagogical categories, and Drugan's (2013) theoretical category.

Producer-based approaches focus on translator's competence only. Their aim is to signal the status of translators to assure translation buyers that the certified translators are capable of producing quality translations. These approaches can be called professional approaches because they focus on the professional competence of translators. A translator's competence is certified through academic qualifications, professional certification, recognised years of experience, peer recommendation, membership of association or a combination of these signals of competence. Certification can be awarded by government bodies, academic institutions or professional associations. Different translation degrees in universities and the 'qualified membership' category of translators' associations such as the South African Translators' Institute are examples of producer-based approaches.

Production-based approaches refer to approaches to translation quality that consider the entire service provision: they identify the necessary requirements for providing quality

translation services such as the human and technical resources and the work processes. These approaches can be called industrial approaches as they consider ‘rendering translation services’ as an industry, or management approaches because they focus on translation quality management. However, calling them process-based approaches, as some authors do, is not an accurate appellation since they address the entire translation service provision and not merely the translation workflow. The members of this category include translation standards such as *ISO 17100:2015* and *EN 15038:2006* and other national translation standards such as the American, Canadian and Chinese translation standards.

This new categorisation system acknowledges the development in the field. Translation used to be an occupation or an intellectual endeavour, and due to increases in demand, legislation, educational opportunities and institutional requirements, it became a profession (Pöchhacker, 2004: 163). The profession has subsequently become an industry in which the major buyers and seller are organisations, instead of individuals. When categorising approaches to translation quality this way, patterns emerge and the usefulness of this system becomes evident. Table 2.1 compares the three new categories. The distinction between the categories is clear as each of them assesses a different element for a certain purpose in order to reach a specific outcome.

However, it is worth noting that these approaches are interrelated in many ways: producer-based approaches, for example, assess translators’ competence against established translation theory and practices, while production-based approaches use elements from the other approaches to build translation standards.

This new categorisation system is put into practice in the following sections where I present literature about translation quality using these categories. Section 2.5 covers product-based approaches, while producer-based and production-based approaches are the focus of Sections 2.6 and 2.7 respectively.

Table 2.1: The new categorization of approaches to translation quality

Element of comparison	Approaches to translation quality		
	Product-based	Producer-based	Production-based
Candidate for assessment	A text	A translator	A translation service provider
Unit of assessment	A text or part of it	A translator's competence	The entire system of service provision
Purpose of assessment	To assess the quality of a translation	To assess the competence of a translator	To assess the quality of a system
Outcome of the assessment	Judgement about translation quality	Competent or incompetent translator	Complied or non-complied system
The source of the assessment criteria	Translation and/ or linguistics theory	Market needs, the norm of the profession	A quality management standard
Example of the approach	Reiss (1971) model for translation judgement	IOCL Diploma in Translation	<i>ISO 17100:2015</i> Translation Standard

2.5 Product-based approaches

This is the largest and the oldest of the three categories. It includes works from antiquity to the present time. The main aim of these approaches is to improve translation quality by developing translation strategies and techniques to overcome translation problems. Translation theorists, writes Lauscher (2000: 150), “try to improve practical translation quality [...] by building their models on scientific theories of translation [...] and by introducing a systematic procedure for evaluation”. Within this category, there are many subcategories such as subjective, equivalence-based, functionalist, text-based, and linguistically-oriented approaches to translation quality. In the following subsections, I discuss equivalence-based and functionalist approaches as they are the most relevant to this study.

2.5.1 Equivalence-based approaches

Equivalence, writes Lauscher (2000: 151), is a “central concept in translation studies, especially in early theory”. Scholars working within an equivalence-based theory of

translation “usually define equivalence as a relationship between a source text (ST) and a target text (TT) that allows the TT to be considered as a translation of the ST” (Kenny, 2005: 78). The proponents of equivalence theory agree on equivalence as “the conceptual basis of translation” (House, 1997: 25) but they disagree about the focus of equivalence. Some of them locate equivalence at word level; others locate it at textual, functional, formal, or pragmatic level.

Reiss (1971) created a model for translation criticism based on equivalence theory but, instead of equivalence at a word or sentence level, she “views the text [...] as the level at which communication is achieved and at which equivalence must be sought” (Munday, 2008:73). To achieve textual equivalence, she “suggested that the most important invariant in translation is the text type to which the source text belongs” (House, 1997: 17). Reiss’s model (1971) consists of two steps for assessing translation quality. The first step involves assessing the translation as a text in the target language (TL). If the translation passes the test and makes sense in the TL, the next step is to establish the degree of equivalence between the ST and TT. The outcome of the assessment will state whether the translation is adequate or inadequate. Reiss’s model has been criticised by many scholars. House (1997: 17) refers to the model’s lack of detailed procedures for textual analysis. Lauscher (2000: 152) argues that the model “suffers from the vagueness of ‘optimum equivalence’ as the yardstick for good translation”.

House (1997) also developed a model for translation quality assessment. Her model was built on equivalence theory and draws from many linguistic schools. The first version of her model was published in 1977. In that version, she distinguishes between overt and covert translation: “an overt translation is one which must ‘overtly’ be a translation not, as it were, a ‘second original’” (1997: 66). In this case, the translator follows the original closely. In contrast, a covert translation “is a translation which enjoys the status of an original source text in the target culture” (1997: 86); that is, the ideas of the source text are conveyed without abiding by its form. The model has three stages for assessing a translation. Firstly, the source text is analysed to establish its textual profile and then to formulate a statement of function; secondly, the source and target texts are compared; thirdly, a statement of quality is issued. In 1997, House revised her original model. The

revised model uses many of the original model's features; however, she "address[ed] those criticisms that she felt to be justified, notably by adapting her terminology and reviewing the number of 'dimensions'" (Drugan, 2013: 52). The revised model kept the three-step assessment method, but the analysis of the ST now has two dimensions only: register and genre. House's model has been criticised by numerous scholars. Drugan (2013), for example, writes that the model was tested on chosen texts from one language pair only, and that the model is not practical because it takes a long time to assess a translation. He also refers to the fact that House does not account for practical matters relating to translation, such as commissions and deadlines. Lauscher (2000: 158) argues that the "scholarly approaches to translation evaluation have not yet been able to provide help for practical quality assessment because they do not account for the reality of translating and translation".

2.5.2 Functionalist approaches

Functionalist approaches to translation analysis emerged in the 1970s and 1980s in Germany and shift the focus from "the static linguistic typologies" to a "functionalist and communicative approach to analysis of translation" (Munday, 2008: 72). The functionalist approaches are "based on the assumption that translation is not so much determined by the source text as by factors relating to the target culture" (Lauscher, 2000: 156). Reiss's model for translation criticism is regarded as the first attempt to introduce a functional perspective in translation studies because, even though the model is deeply rooted in equivalence theory, the model judges translation upon the functional relationship between source and target texts (Nord, 1988: 2). In 1978, Hans Vermeer developed a general theory of translation purpose or *skopos* as he called it. *Skopos* theory "focuses above all on the purpose of translation, which determines the translation methods and strategies that are to be employed in order to produce a functionally adequate result" (Munday, 2008:79). These functionalist approaches are criticized by some scholars, particularly by exponents of equivalence theory such as House who (1997: 12) argues that such a focus on the target text at the expense of the source text violates the very nature of translation, which is "characterized by a double binding relationship". Schäffner (2005: 235) writes that the criticism of these approaches rests on "the definition of translation and the relationship between source and target texts"

and she argues that in these approaches the translation can fulfil its *skopos* but it may be judged on other accounts as inappropriate.

However, despite the abovementioned criticism, functional approaches to translation quality work well in professional settings. The European Commission (2015:1) stipulates that the translated texts need “to be fit for their intended communication purpose”. Producer-based and production-based approaches to translation quality adopt a functional perspective of translation. “Functionalism”, Nord (2013:208) writes, “is widely seen as appealing to common sense when it is discovered it would spread like a wild fire in translation studies”.

2.5.3 Studies related to product-based approaches

Many researchers studied, applied or criticised some of the product-based models. O’Brien (2012) conducted a study titled “Towards a Dynamic Quality Evaluation Model for Translation”. Her aim was to study the current models of translation quality evaluation and to explore the potential of developing a dynamic model for translation quality evaluation. To achieve this aim, she (2012: 56) chose a sample consisting of eleven translation quality evaluation models, and then she (2012: 58) first analysed each model individually and then she compared the models with each other. She (2012: 55) found that the majority of the models in her sample base their assessment on counting errors in random samples. She (2012: 55) concluded that the error typology methods are static and she (2012: 71) recommended using a more dynamic model.

A study titled “A corpus-based error typology: towards a more objective approach to measuring quality in localization” was conducted by Jimenez-Crespo’s (2011); his aim was to provide a more objective foundation for localisation quality (2011: 315). The author (2011: 315) used an error typology approach to study the localisation of a Spanish corporate website. His conclusion indicated the shortcomings of the current practices of evaluating localisations and he recommended using a bottom-up corpus approach for assessing localisation quality (2011: 315).

Chengzhi (2010) conducted a study about “Quality assessment for the translation of museum texts: application of a systemic functional model”. The study (2010: 109) has

two objectives: (i) to evaluate the available models of translation quality assessment; and (ii) to propose a new model for evaluating the quality of the translation of museums' texts. To achieve the first objective, the author (2010: 110-112) reviewed some of the translation quality assessment models such as House's (1997). The outcome of the review referred to flaws in these models (2010: 213-214). The second objective focused on creating a quality model based on systematic functional linguistics to overcome the flaws of the quality assessment models he studied (2010: 114). The main conclusion of the study is that the judgement of translation quality requires empirical analysis based on both interlingual and intercultural comparisons (2010: 124).

2.6 Producer-based approaches

These approaches have a single aim – to assess the competence of translators. Competence is defined as the “ability to apply knowledge and skills to achieve intended results”; when competence is demonstrated, people refer to it as “qualification” (ISO, 2015: Clause 3.10.4). Demonstrated competence signals the status of the translator – it tells buyers that this individual is qualified and therefore he or she is capable of producing quality translation. In the following subsections, I discuss the importance of signalling translators' status and the methods of such signalling and I end by referring to some studies that engage with the producer-based approaches.

2.6.1 The importance of signalling translators' status

Chan (2009: 156) defines a signal as message that a seller sends to a buyer to convey “credible information” about the quality of a product or a service. Signalling is the process of making a signal of a status. The European Commission (2012: 5) writes, “status is understood as the presumed values of the skills rather than the skills themselves”. In the translation industry, signalling the status of translators and differentiating between the competent and the incompetent is very important because buyers of translation services cannot judge the quality of the translation; they need a signalling system to differentiate between good and bad translators (European Commission, 2012: 9). Another reason that makes signalling important is the very low entry barrier to the translation profession. Any bilingual individual can assume the role of a translator and this results in “unfair competition” between those who are qualified

and those who are not (European Commission, 2009: v). A third reason is that today it is not difficult for anyone to certify translators. The European Commission (2012) investigated translators' certification industry and found that there are many online organisations that issue certificates¹ for translators without any training or examination just for paying the fees.

2.6.2 The methods of signalling translators' status

In the professional sector, the status of professions is signalled by means of certification. Bendana and Melby (2012: 33) define certification as the process by which a certification body attests that an individual is able to provide a particular service or make a certain product. Certification can be awarded by government, academic institutions, or professional organisations (Hlavac, 2013: 33-34). The certification bodies, in turn, should be accredited as otherwise anyone can issue a certificate. Accreditation means that the certification body is authorized by institutions such as the International Accreditation Forum or governmental authorities to examine candidates' competence and issue certificates (Lommel, 2013: 231). There are many methods for certifying the competence of translators; among them are academic qualifications, professional certification, years of experience, peer recommendation and membership of professional associations (European Commission, 2012: 5; Hlavac, 2013: 33-34).

Academic qualification refers to formal translators' training in academic institutions. Graduates of academic institutions are assumed to be qualified as they have spent many years receiving instruction in specific fields. In addition, compared with other certification bodies, people trust academic institutions as they are well regulated. Professional certification acts as a signalling mechanism too. The difference between an academic qualification and a professional certification is that the professional exams test

¹ In South Africa and Australia, they use the term "accreditation" for "certification" (Koby, 2013: 157). However, I followed other researchers and used ISO's terminology for assigning "certification" for the translators and "accreditation" for the awarding body. In other words, certification is applied to persons and accreditation is applied to organisations that certify persons (Lommel, 2013: 231).

the candidates' ability to produce quality translation according to market needs (Koby, 2013a: 265). The professional exams do not have any prerequisites nor require a theoretical background in translation whereas, academic institutions have a formal training procedure. The Translation Diploma of the Chartered Institute of Linguists (CIOL) is an example of such certificates. Anyone who is able to produce a high quality translation can take this exam (CIOL, 2016).

The membership of professional associations can signal the status of translators too. Professional associations are specific interest groups such as "trade unions, charities, ... and chambers of commerce" (Johal and Anastasi, 2015: 159). Professional associations control the quality of their members through the admission criteria and procedure. They usually accept anyone who wants to participate in their activities, but the degrees of membership differ. They have degrees of membership for students, associates and qualified members. Those who are given a qualified or certified translator's status undergo strict admission criteria. Candidates for a qualified membership of the UK's Chartered Institute of Linguists (CIOL) or Institute of Translation and Interpreting (ITI) must satisfy the following criteria before becoming a qualified member:

- i. They should have a relevant qualification;
- ii. They should have a proven work experience;
- iii. They should have a certificate of good character;
- iv. They should sign a code of professional conduct; and
- v. They should pass a professional exam; in the case of the CIOL, it has a standalone Translation Diploma that a candidate can use as proof of professional competence, while the ITI has an exam that is used for its own purposes only (ITI, 2016; CIOL, 2016).

Therefore, for candidates to be qualified members of these institutes they need, in addition to professional competence, to prove that they are responsible individuals who are able to maintain high standards of professionalism and are committed to continual professional development (ITI, 2016; CIOL, 2016). The American Translators' Association requires (i) a current certificate from a member of the Fédération Internationale des Traducteurs (FIT), (ii) an advanced degree or a bachelor's degree

plus two years of experience, and (iii) work experience (Koby, 2013a: 163). The membership of these associations is considered as one of the highest signals of status because they have strict admission criteria (European Commission, 2012: 5); in addition the members of these associations have a commitment to continued professional development and high ethical standards. A study by the European Commission (2012: 40) finds that the members of professional associations are paid more than non-members.

In addition to the above-mentioned signalling mechanisms, work experience is an important signalling tool for employment and membership of professional associations. The main admission criteria of the CIOL is a “relevant qualification or proven working experience” (CIOL, 2017); in other words, work experience can be a substitute for academic qualifications. Peer recommendation is also a signalling mechanism. It means that a professional translator should provide a testimonial regarding a candidate’s professional competence and sometimes character (CIOL, 2017; ITI, 2017).

However, it seems that all these types of status signalling are not sufficient for some organisations such as the EU and UN because they have their own exams. To become a translator in the European Commission, for example, a candidate “has to be successful in an open competition that can last between five to nine months” and he or she must have two foreign languages in addition to his or her mother tongue besides a university degree. The pass rate of the examinations of these institutions is between 1% to 10% even though there are strict prerequisites to write these exams (European Commission, 2012: 126).

2.6.3 Studies related to the producer-based approaches

The methods of assessing and certifying translators’ competence have been the object of inquiry of many researchers. Chan (2013) studied the effectiveness of translation certification as a signalling device from a translators’ recruiter point of view. The aim of his study was to examine the signalling power of translators’ certification; that is, he wanted to know the effect of competence on translators’ marketability (2013: 157). To achieve this purpose, he used a sample of twelve fictitious resumes and semi-structured interviews to ask a sample consisting of translators’ recruiters to rank the resumes

(2013: 156-159). He concluded that the most important signal is a relevant university degree and that working experience is important too, but is not sufficient alone as a signal of professional status (2013: 179). He recommended that translation stakeholders such as translation companies, translators' training institute and translators' professional associations should coordinate their efforts to develop a "multilateral signalling mechanism" for translators' competence (2013: 155).

The European Commission (2012) investigated the status of the translation profession in the European Union. They collected data using desk study methods (as most of the data is available in "surveys conducted recently") in addition to initial questionnaires, follow-up exchanges and country fact sheets (2012: 16-17). This data enabled them to extract rich information about the status of translation in the European Union and around the world as they included many non-European countries for comparison. The authors find that the "general title translator" is not protected; that is, anyone can use the title without a need for any kind of certification. However, there are strict selection criteria when it comes to employment in government, international organisations or companies (2012: 20-23). They also find that the membership of professional associations is a very good way to signal translators' status (2012: 33). They conclude that most of "the traditional status signalling [mechanisms] are failing" and that there is no agreement between the countries about the signalling system – each country uses its own system (2012:9). The study recommended (i) improving the mechanisms by which the status of translators is signalled, (ii) a cross-border recognition of qualification and certification and (iii) coordination of the European signalling systems with other signalling systems such as those of China, Canada and Australia (2012: 128).

2.7 Production-based approaches

These approaches to translation quality, O'Brien (2012: 57) writes, view quality in a more "holistic manner". They focus on the entire service rendering and they have provisions for human and technical requirements as well as specification of the translation workflow. The need for such approaches emerged recently when the majority of translation buyers and sellers became organisations. Translation agencies and their clients needed benchmarks for translation quality. To satisfy this need,

national and international standardisation bodies developed and issued standards for translation quality. Among the national standards are the Italian *UNI 10547* (1996), the German *DIN 2345* (1998), the Austrian *ÖNORM 1200* (2000); and among the international are those of The European Committee for Standardisation, *EN 15038* (2006) and The International Organisation for Standardisation, *ISO 17100* (2015). These standards address quality through assessing the quality management systems of organisations. In the following subsections, I first review the notion of quality management system and then I review *ISO 9000:2015* as an example of generic quality management standard and *EN 15038:2006* and *ISO 17100:2015* as specific translation quality standards.

2.7.1 Quality management systems

Quality management comprises “coordinated activities to direct and control an organisation with regard to quality” (Kumar, 2013: 249). These activities consider different aspects of quality: quality control, quality assurance, quality assessment, quality planning and quality objectives. Such quality activities are managed through adopting a quality management system (QMS). A QMS is defined as a “management system to direct and control an organisation with regard to quality” (Kumar, 2013:249). Hoyle (2007: 197) defines a QMS as a “set of interconnected and managed processes that function together to achieve the organisation’s quality goals”. The effectiveness and efficiency of a QMS is measured by standards. A standard is defined as “an agreed-upon way of doing something or measuring something” (Kumar, 2013: 55). There are many standards for assessing an organisation’s QMS. Some of these are generic; that is, they assess the QMS of any organisation regardless of the organisation’s activities such as *ISO 9000*, and some are specific to certain industry or profession such as *ISO 17100* which is specific to translation. An organisation that seeks certification according to a certain standard will first comply with the requirements of the standard, and then seek an accredited certification body to assess its compliance with the standard. The certification body will issue a certificate of compliance if the organisation satisfied the requirement of the standard. The organisation can then use this certificate as evidence of quality assurance.

2.7.2 ISO 9000: A generic quality management system

ISO 9000 family of standards and guidelines is used globally for establishing quality management systems, improving quality and as the basis for excellence and continual improvement (ISO, 2006: 1). The family consists of many standards; however, the following standards are the most important ones and they work together and form a set for identifying the requirements for QMS; namely, what a QMS should look like.

- i. *ISO 9000: Quality management systems – fundamentals and vocabulary*. This standard describes the fundamentals of QMS and familiarizes the user with the main concepts and normative vocabulary of the QMS (ISO, 2006: 2).
- ii. *ISO 9001: Quality management systems – requirements*. Building on *ISO 9000*, this standard specifies the basic requirements for a quality management system that an organisation should fulfil in order to assure the quality of its products or services (ISO, 2006: 2). This is the standard that organisations comply with when they want to be ISO 9000 certified. That is, *ISO 9001* specifies the requirements against which an organisation can be certified by an external body (ISO, 2006: 3).
- iii. *ISO 9004: Managing for the sustained success of an organization – a quality management approach*. This standard takes organisations' quality further than *ISO 9001*; it provides a wide range of quality objectives (ISO, 2006: 6).
- iv. *ISO 19011: Guidelines for auditing management systems*. This standard provides guidelines for internal and external auditing during and after implementing *ISO 9000* (ISO, 2006: 6).

2.7.3 EN 15038: A specific translation standard

The European Translation Standard (*EN 15038:2006: Translation Services: Services Requirements*) was developed by the European Committee for Standardisation. The purpose for developing the standard “is to establish and define the requirements for the provision of quality services by translation service providers” (CEN, 2006: Introduction). The standard establishes and defines the requirements of “the core

translation process and all other related aspects involved in providing the service” (CEN, 2006: Clause: 1).

2.7.4 ISO 17100: A specific standard to translation industry

In 2011 a decision was made to convert *EN 15038* to an ISO standard. *ISO 17100* was published in May 2015 (EUATC, 2016). I compared the two standards and I found that there is no substantial difference between them. In the development of the ISO standard, every stakeholder in the translation industry was represented: translation companies, freelancers, professional associations, universities, academic professors, and other interested parties (EUATC, 2016). It is worth noting that *ISO 17100* has been gaining momentum since its publication; translation companies want to comply with it, and translation buyers want assurance according to its provisions. Non-commercial organisations comply with the standard or use it as a benchmark for their work; the European Commission (2015: 3) states that “all translated texts should comply with the general principles and quality requirements for professional translation laid down in the international standard *ISO 17100*”.

The standard “specifies requirements for all the aspects of the translation process directly affecting the quality and delivery of translation services” (ISO, 2015b: Introduction). In this regard, *ISO 17100* corresponds to both *ISO 9000* and *ISO 9001* because it both defines the vocabulary and specifies the requirements. In addition to a foreword, introduction and six annexes, the standard consists of six sections, namely: scope, terms and definitions, resources, pre-production process and activities, production process and post-production process. These sections and the clauses they contain can be re-arranged in three groups; namely, information, resources and processes. In the following subsections, each of these groups is considered further.

2.7.4.1 The information

- i. The Scope (Section 1) shows what the Standard does and what it does not. The Standard identifies the “requirements for the core processes, resources and other aspects necessary for the delivery of a quality translation services.” A Translation

Service Provider (TSP) can use conformity with the Standards as a means to assure the quality of their services.

- ii. Terms and definitions (Section 2) provide definitions of the key terms of the standard.
- iii. The Annexes of the Standards (Annexes A-F) include additional information about the clauses of the standards.

2.7.4.2 The resources

- i. Human resources (Clause 3.1). The Standard identifies the minimum human resources that are necessary for the work of a TSP. They consist of two administrative staff, namely a manager for the TSP business and a project manager, and two technical staff, namely, translators and revisers. The standard also identifies the necessary competences of translators, revisers and project managers.
- ii. Technical resources (Clause 3.2). These include the technical equipment necessary for “the efficient and effective completions of translation projects”, such as equipment for storing data, communication, information resources and media.
- iii. Technological resources (Clause 3.2). These include “translation technology tools, translation management systems, terminology management systems”. Annex E provides a list of such resources.

2.7.4.3 The processes

- i. Pre-production processes and activities (Section 4). This Section identifies the necessary steps from the first contact between a TSP and a client until beginning the translation work. It includes the administrative, technical and linguistic aspect of the project preparation.
- ii. Production process (Section 5). This section includes an administrative and technical work. The administrative work is managing the project, the final verification and the submission of the work to the client. The technical work is translation which includes

five steps; namely, translating, checking, revising, reviewing and proofreading. Reviewing and proofreading are optional steps.

- iii. Post-production processes (Section 6). These include receiving feedback from the client and closing the project.

2.7.5 Studies related to the production-based approaches

It appears that standardisation is relatively new in the translation industry; therefore, there are not many studies of translation standards. The only study at hand is part of a larger study conducted by the European Commission (2009) to investigate the language industry in the European Union. In response to an interview question about EN 15038, the translators who responded to the question, say that the standard “does neither refer to nor reflect the quality of output” and that due to market pressure TSPs hire low quality translators and this leads to low quality translations. Revision does not improve the quality of the low-quality translation; it is better to have unrevised high quality translation than revised low quality translation (2012: 25-26). The concern of the respondent translators is that the Standard does not have provisions for quality assessment and that introducing revision as a compulsory activity in the translation process does not necessarily guarantee quality translation. The authors concluded that the standard “addresses quality issues partially” and recommended reviewing the standard and making amendments (2012: v).

2.8 Discussion of the literature review and related studies

The purpose of this chapter is to put the research into context and to highlight a gap in the body of knowledge. To remind the reader, the broad topic of this research is translation quality management, that is, considering the entire elements of providing translation service: the human resources, the technical resources and the translation workflow. Some of the volumes I reviewed in Section 2.2 above have suggested some of the elements of my topic. The human and technical resources feature in Holmes’s Map and in Williams and Chesterman’s (2002) twelve topics. Hatim (2013) and Saldanha and O’Brien (2013) suggested human resources as an area of research. The three volumes I reviewed (see 2.2) suggested translation quality assessment as a topic of

research. However, for them this means the quality of the translated text. Saldanha and O'Brien (2013) write:

Evaluation of translation can involve an examination of the process, the context, and/or the product. To date, the majority of research on quality in translation studies has focused on the assessment of the translated product, hence the decision to include [...] discussion of research on translation quality assessment.

Furthermore, the approaches to translation studies reviewed in the previous sections have their limitations and shortcomings. The production-based approaches aim to address the needs of commercial translation organisations in addition to their drawbacks when it comes to assessing the quality of translation. The product-based approaches have failed, as Lauscher (2000: 158) argues, “to provide help for practical quality assessment because they do not account for the reality of translating and translation”. The related studies I discussed in sections 2.5.2, 2.6.3 and 2.7.5 where I also indicated the shortcomings of these approaches and suggested amendments for them.

To sum up, some of the elements of the topic of this research are suggested as an object of research in translation research volumes; these include the human and technical resources, while other elements such as translation workflow and quality management do not feature. Therefore, this research focuses on a less-explored areas of translation studies, namely translation quality management and translation workflow.

2.9 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual and theoretical orientation of this research consists of many theories, conceptual frames of references, models and empirical literature that are drawn from many fields of study such as linguistics and translation, management, best practice and quality studies. The aim of this conceptual framework is to guide the investigation and to provide a framework for understanding, explaining and predicting the relationships between the different ideas, practices and discourses of the research. Developing a conceptual framework for a research project is a form of policy-making since it implies a selection from amongst many alternatives. However, such choices should be justified according to the purpose of inquiry and the topic of the research. Thus, the first

justification of my choices is the dual nature of this research as it is concerned with both translation studies, a humanities discipline, and quality management, a social sciences discipline. This dual nature prompts the research to engage with many disciplines. The second justification is that the purpose of inquiry is to find a practical solution to the concerns relating to translation quality in a non-commercial environment. This purpose of inquiry justifies adopting many choices such as a functional theory of translation and drawing from best practice studies.

Translation studies is an interdisciplinary field. Saldanha and O'Brien (2013: 3) write that translation studies is an interdisciplinary field because it borrows from many disciplines and covers a wide range of practices. The aim of a scientific discipline, Moran (2002: 6) writes, is "to establish the laws that explain natural phenomena within its (sic) own field, and thus to account for only a small part of reality". In other words, a discipline confines itself to one area of inquiry. Therefore, the main reason for using interdisciplinary research is to address problems that cannot be solved within one of the existing disciplines (Moran, 2002: 15-16). This is the case for the topic of this research – translation quality management – where each of these terms belongs to a different discipline. Thus, in addition to the inherent interdisciplinary nature of translation studies, by focusing on translation quality management, this research engages more disciplines that are not usually associated with translation studies such as management, quality studies and standardisation.

Another important theoretical orientation of this research is adopting a functional theory of translation. Subsection 1.7.2 and Sections 2.2 addressed the functionalist theory of translation. Here, I briefly explain how adopting a functionalist perspective serves the purpose of this research. Firstly, the main service that functionalism has done for translation, writes Schäffner (2005: 235), is considering contextual factors such as the purpose of a translation, the requirements of the target text audience and the commissioner's instruction. Secondly, despite objections from Hatim and Mason (2005: 2) and others, functionalist theory makes a distinction, even implicitly, between literary and non- literary translation. Now, adopting a functionalist perspective enabled me to see the PAP as the sole owner of the intellectual property of the texts it wants to

translate and it has the right to instruct the translators to translate the texts the way that serves its purposes and suits its audience.

Many insights from standardisation research, and quality and best practice studies have played an important role in furthering the argument of this research. From quality studies, I adopted the stance that applying preventative quality measures is wiser than waiting until something goes wrong and taking corrective measures; that is, assessing translation quality is not an easy endeavour and it is more fruitful to focus on developing a system for quality management that minimises mistakes. The elements of quality are (i) the quality of output without regard to the system of production of the producer, (ii) the system of production, and (iii) the individual or the organisation that produces the product or renders the service (Budin, Krajcso and Lommel, 2013: 144-145). Quality management combines these three production elements in one system that allows for quality assurance, control and evaluation. However, the notion of quality is relative not absolute; therefore, I felt a need for a benchmark to be used as a point of reference when discussing quality; in other words, to measure quality with reference to that benchmark. The need for a benchmark prompted me to engage with standardisation research. Standards are agreed upon benchmarks developed by competent standardisation bodies. However, quality standards are developed to satisfy general quality requirements without attention to small details or to an organisation speciality. Thus, a need has emerged to approach benchmarking from other areas beside standards, that is, to use the best practices of organisations that have things in common with the object of my inquiry.

The current study draws many concepts, theories and modes of analysis from text linguistics, genre analysis and language for special purposes. Many authors such as Hatim and Mason (1990), Bhatia (1993) and Gotti and Sarcevic (2006) have referred to the usefulness of these disciplines in translation as they help in analysing and transferring source texts. In environments such as the PAP, the importance of these disciplines is clearer as such organisations usually have certain text types and certain language domains. Adopting the concepts of text type and language domain allowed me to integrate quality control, risk analysis, translation type, and translation brief within the model I build.

Management theory has also contributed to building the theoretical and conceptual orientation for this research. This discipline has provided context and justification for many elements of the model such as organisational structure, project management and process approach to management. In addition, many concepts of this field such as ‘management’, ‘system’, ‘activity’, ‘task’, ‘procedure’ and ‘process’ form important part of the vocabulary of this research.

In summary, the aim of this research is to design and develop a model for translation quality management and best practices; to achieve this aim, modes of analysis, theories, models and concepts from all the above-mentioned disciplines will be used. It is worth mentioning that these theoretical orientations have methodological implications and these will be discussed in the following chapter.

2.10 Conclusion

This chapter put the research into context. It first reviewed some of the research trends in translation studies and then it proposed a new categorisation system for translation quality approaches and used this new system to review some of the literature and related studies. A conceptual framework for the study was outlined in the previous Section. The first conclusion of this chapter is that there are few studies that attempt to consider translation quality from a production perspective and this is the gap the current research seeks to fill. The second conclusion is that there are a growing number of translation quality standards, which suggests that translation is moving towards being an industry rather than a profession or craft. As this chapter and the previous one have given a background to and context of this research, the next chapter moves on to discuss the methodological aspects of this research and devise a plan for carrying out the remaining objectives of the research.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

3.1 Introduction

The previous two chapters provided context and background to this research. This chapter focuses on research methodology, method, design and quality control. Under research methodology in Section Three, I discuss and justify the philosophical, logical, and typological choices I made. In Section Four I discuss the research methods I used, namely action research, cause study, modelling and benchmarking. In Section Five, I present a research design that shows in step-by-step manner how the research is conducted while Section Six focuses on the quality control measures I used to assure the quality of the research.

3.2 Definition of concepts

Before I start my discussion, I want to define some concepts and show how they are used in this research. Concepts such as methodology, design, method, technique and instrument are commonplace in research discourse, but there is overlap between their usage and many of them are synonyms; therefore, they may confuse the reader if they are not clearly defined. Saldanha and O'Brien (2013: 14) write:

Terms are used in research in a way that assumes general agreement about the meaning assigned to those terms. However, even seasoned researchers can use terminology inconsistently, and this can lead to much confusion and frustration on the part of the reader, and especially, the novice researcher. Terms such as model, framework [...] and methodology often go unexplained or used synonymously, resulting in a lack of comprehension.

In this study, research design refers to my plan for conducting the research; under this heading I showed my overall strategy for achieving the objectives of the research. Myers (2011: 19) writes that a research design is “the plan for an entire [...] research project”. The plan acts as a blueprint that guides the researcher’s work on his project. He adds, research design “involves deciding upon all the various components of a research project”.

I used research methodology to refer to the specific methodological choices that I made such as the philosophical, logical and typological choices. Saldanha and O'Brien (2013: 14) write that research methodology is "a general approach to studying a phenomenon".

The term research method is used in this study to refer to certain research techniques that I used to achieve different elements of the research; the methods I used include action research, case study, modelling and benchmarking. A research method is defined as a "specific research technique" (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013: 13). Myers (2011: 260) defines a research method as "[a] strategy of inquiry, a way of finding empirical data about the world".

In addition to the above concepts, I also used the term technique to refer to some of the tools I used to achieve some steps of the research; namely, I used the term technique for the ways with which I collected data such as interviews and observation. I also used the term technique to refer to the tool I used to process the data, that is, grounded theory. The term instrument is used to refer to the devices I used to document the interviews.

3.3 Research methodology

Research methodology in translation studies was the focus of many volumes. In Section 2.2, I reviewed some of these volumes. In this paragraph, I want to briefly consider the methodologies they suggest for doing research in translation studies. (Here, I am using methodology in the broader sense that includes research design and research methods.) Saldanha and O'Brien (2013) divide translation research into four areas of focus and for each area they specify a certain methodology. For text-oriented research, they suggest some linguistics methods such as critical discourse analysis and corpus linguistics for the studies that aim to answer descriptive or explanatory questions (2013: 50) and for the studies that have evaluative purposes they suggest using translation assessment models (2013: 100). For the process research, they suggest psychological and psycholinguistic methods (2013: 109). They suggest sociological methods such as questionnaires, interviews and group interviews to conduct participant-oriented research (2013: 150). Since the context-oriented research focuses on the political, cultural and social aspects of translation, the authors (2013: 205) suggest cultural studies methods such as case study and ethnographic methods. Williams and Chesterman (2002) did not

suggest certain methodologies as the above authors do; however, as Lan, Dong and Chiu (2009: 189) noted, the authors identified three theoretical orientations out of which research methodologies can be developed. Lan, Dong and Chiu (2009) conducted a study to compare the research methods and topics of research between Taiwan and the rest of the world. Regarding research methods, they (2009: 189) found that “the research methods employed in Taiwan and abroad are similar and that translation theories were used to analyse and solve the phenomena and problems in translation.” They (2009: 189) recommended giving students instruction in “research approaches” such as data collection, interviews and introspective methods.

In the following subsection, I present and justify some of methodological choices I made. In Section 3.3.1 I discuss my philosophical assumptions; Section 3.3.2 addresses the logic of the research while the research typology is the subject of Section 3.3.3.

3.3.1 Philosophical assumptions

Philosophical assumptions refer to the ontological and epistemological perspectives that underlie a research project. Myers (2011: 23) notes, “[E]very research project is based on some philosophical assumptions about the nature of the world [ontology] and how knowledge about the world can be obtained [epistemology]”. Understanding such philosophical concepts is helpful in clarifying the research design and showing the reason for choosing one design over another or one method over another (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002: 27). The main philosophical paradigms that influence the formation of research designs are positivism and social constructionism. Positivists assume that social reality exists externally and that it can be studied objectively: that is, ontologically, positivists assume that reality is both external and objective; epistemologically, they assume that knowledge will only be significant if it is based on the observation of this external and objective reality. Thus, positivist researchers assume that reality is objective and can be examined by measurable properties (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002: 28; Myers, 2011: 37).

On the other hand, social constructionist research, also referred to as interpretative research (Myers, 2011) or hermeneutic research (Gummesson, 2000), has different views about reality and knowledge. Ontologically, social constructionists assume that

“reality is not objective and exterior, but it is socially constructed and given meaning by people” (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002: 29); epistemologically, social constructionists assume that “access to reality (given or socially constructed) is only through social constructions such as language, consciousness, shared meaning and instrument” (Myers, 2011: 38). The social constructionists’ approach to social science developed “in reaction to the application of positivism to the social science[s]” (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002: 29).

In the present study, I will be guided by the social constructionists’ approach to reality and knowledge. This approach has implications for the various elements of the research. Table 3.1 which was adopted from Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2002: 30-31), shows some of these implications.

Table 3.1: The implications of social constructionism on this research

Element of the research	Social constructionists’ position
Aim	Invention
Starting point	Meaning
Research design	Reflexivity
Techniques (data collection)	Conversation
Data analysis/ interpretation	Sense-making
Outcome	Understanding
Research progress through	Gathering data through which ideas are induced
Sampling	Small number of cases chosen for specific reasons
Unit of analysis	May include the complexity of the whole situation
Explanations	To increase the general understanding of the situation

3.3.2 The logic of the research

The decisions that researchers make regarding the philosophical and methodological approaches to their research affect the logical methods they use. The positivist’s research uses deductive logic for “the testing of existing theories and hypotheses through data”. This means that the positivist’s research moves from “general statements to specific instances” (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013: 15). In contrast, researchers working on social constructionists’ traditions “start off by using an inductive method and subsequently adopt [a] deductive approach” (Gummesson, 2000: 176). That is,

these researchers firstly gather all the evidence that is relevant to the problem and sometimes obtain new data; then, the evidence and data are analysed to arrive at the most probable hypothesis. Secondly, deductions are made from the hypothesis, and then the theory is further tested against new evidence (Gummesson, 2000: 176).

This study adopts a social constructionist perspective (see 3.3.1 above) and consequently its logical moves correspond to the constructionists' usual moves. I started by identifying a problem and then I read literature and collected data. The data confirms the existence of the problem; that is, there is a concern about the quality of the services of the PAP-TU. I make a hypothesis about a correlation between 'improving translation quality' and 'implementing a quality management model; that is, I assumed that implementing a quality management system will improve the translation quality and I designed a study to confirm or refute this hypothesis.

3.3.3 Research typology

Research typology refers to classifying research according to types. The classification criterion is the perspective from which the research is considered. Kumar (2011: 29) classifies research from three perspectives: mode of inquiry, objectives of the study and application of the findings. In the following paragraphs, I consider this research from these three perspectives.

From the objectives of the study perspective, there are many types of research (also known as types of research questions). Saldanha and O'Brien (2013: 16-17) identify four types of research questions: explorative, descriptive, explanatory and evaluative. Kumar (2011: 30-31) identifies four types of purposes that research questions usually aim to achieve; these are descriptive, correlative, explanatory and exploratory questions. The descriptive questions aim to tell what a situation or event looks like; the purpose of correlative questions is to "discover or establish the existence of" relationships, associations or interdependences between two or more aspects of a situation or a phenomenon; exploratory studies aim to investigate less-explored areas of knowledge; and finally, explanatory studies aim to show "why and how" there is a relationship between two aspects of a situation or a phenomenon.

Mode of inquiry according to Kumar (2011: 31) refers to the processes researchers use to find answers to their research questions. Williams and Chesterman (2002: 58) classify research from this perspective into two types: conceptual (or theoretical) research and empirical research. Empirical research according to these authors (2002: 58), “seeks new data, new information derived from the observation of data and from experiential work; it seeks evidence which supports or disconfirms hypotheses, or generates new ones”. Empirical research is often contrasted with conceptual research. The purpose of conceptual research, write Williams and Chesterman (2002: 64), is to define concepts, to interpret or reinterpret ideas, to contextualize concepts and to “introduce new concepts or method or framework that allow a better understanding of the object of research”. There are two main approaches for conducting empirical research, namely quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative research “is used to study general trends across a population with a focus on numbers” (Myers, 2011: 260); qualitative research is used “to describe the quality of something in some enlightening way” (Williams and Chesterman, 2002: 64). Qualitative research methods, Myers (2011: 5) writes, are designed to help a researcher to understand social phenomena within their social and cultural contexts. They enable researchers to understand the context within which decisions and actions take place.

The third perspective of research classification is the application of the findings. From this perspective, there are three types of research: pure, applied and action research. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2002: 9-11) write that pure research intends to lead to theoretical development with or without practical implication; applied research intends to lead to a solution of a problem, while action research goes further than developing a theory or solving a problem: it aims to have a direct impact upon the object of research.

The question of this research is “can adopting a model for quality management and best practice assure the quality of the PAP-TU’s services”. I looked at this question from the above three perspectives and I found that it is an empirical, qualitative, correlative and action research question. It is obvious that this question is an empirical question; there is a need first to investigate the current situation of the Unit and then either to design a model or to apply an existing model to see whether such a model can assure the quality

of the Unit services. Therefore, empirical and not conceptual research suits this research question. The choice of qualitative over quantitative paradigm is prompted by firstly, the social constructionists' traditions that I have chosen to follow. These traditions are associated with qualitative research methods such as action research, case study, ethnographic research and grounded theory. Secondly, the data is small and accounting for it numerically will not have much merit. I am seeking a deep understanding and explanation of the PAP Translation Unit system and practices; therefore, I will be working within the qualitative research tradition.

The objective of this research question is correlative. I want to know the relationship of implementing a quality model upon the PAP-TU services: does the model assure the quality of the Unit services or not? In other words, I want to know the correlation between “adopting a quality management model” and “assuring the quality of the Unit services”. The assumption is that adopting a model will assure the quality of the Unit services considering the numerous situations in which other organisations have adopted a model for quality management and the model assures the quality of their services.

From the perspective of the application of the findings, the research question aims to change the existing situation by suggesting a better method of addressing quality. Therefore, it goes beyond understanding the phenomenon or solving the problem; the research rather seeks to change the existing system and practices of the PAP-TU through designing, developing and implementing a new model of quality management and best practice. Thus, this study is an action study that wants to form and implement a new method of doing things. The study explicitly uses action research methods as a framework to reach this goal.

3.4 Research methods

Section 3.2 defined a research method as a certain technique or tool that is used for achieving an element of research. I used many research methods to achieve the objectives of this study. I used action research method as a framework to inform both the research design and outcome. I used case study method to assess the current situation of the PAP and achieve the first objective of the research. Modelling research method is used for designing, developing and implementing the PAP-TU Model; that is,

achieving the second objective of the research. A benchmarking research method is used for comparing the PAP practices with other organisations' practices and for building the model. In the following subsections, I briefly consider each one of these research methods.

3.4.1 Action research

This study is informed by an action research method. Action research is defined as “[a] qualitative research method that aims to solve practical problems while contributing to research in a particular academic discipline” (Myers 2011:257). This research method is particularly relevant to the current study because of the outcome it makes possible. In this study, I want to go beyond investigating the object of inquiry. I want to formulate a policy based on the findings of the study; in other words, I want to investigate a problem, suggest a solution and implement the solution. Action research makes such a course of action possible as the aim of action research is to make a direct impact upon the object of research (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002: 9-11). The difference between action research and other types of research is that action research seeks to change the object of inquiry in addition to expanding scientific knowledge; other methods seek to study phenomena not to change them (Myers, 2011: 55).

In addition to justifying the research outcome, action research is used as a framework for the research design. Hatim (2013: 202) identified eight steps for an action research design: identify a problem, investigate the problem, evaluate data, list possible actions, predict outcome, select best action, implement action, evaluate action. My research had a similar design to the one suggested by Hatim. I identified the quality of the PAP-TU services as the research problem; I suggested adopting a quality model as a solution; I investigated the problem and designed a model to solve it and provided for the implementation. Action research helped me in assessing the current system of the PAP. I assumed the role of an external consultant who came to the organisation to investigate a certain problem and to provide a solution. I told the study participants that I was using action research, and that they may think of me as a consultant hired by the organisation to bring improvement. I told them that my learning outcome is to find a solution to their problem. In my pre-interview visits, I noticed that the participants did not understand

fully what I wanted to do as they are used to researchers who come, investigate a phenomenon and leave. For this reason, I added more information to the standard Participant's Information Sheet where I told the participants about action research, my role as a researcher and their roles as participants.

3.4.2 Case study

I used a case study research method to achieve the first objective of the research, namely to investigate the current situation of the PAP-TU. Case study method is defined as “[a] qualitative research method that aims to explore or explain contemporary real-life situations; [...] the focus is normally on one organisation” (Myers, 2011: 25). I found this method a perfect fit because it has access to techniques such as direct observation and systematic interviewing as Saldanha and O'Brien (2013: 207) write. This method enabled me to view the PAP-TU from different perspectives using multiple techniques. I explored the points of view of different staff members in addition to the freelancers; to do this, I used archival research, fieldwork observation, interviews and focus groups.

A case study method, write Saldanha and O'Brien (2013: 208), requires some form of a conceptual structure; that is, the focus should not be on the institution itself but on some variables of it. I specified the boundaries of my study as the Translation Unit and those functions of the PAP that affect the work of the Unit. In addition, case study has an open-ended and flexible design; thus, modifications can be made as the research progresses (Saldanha and O'Brien 2013:2011). I exploited this flexibility and changed my research design many times. For example, I added a ‘focus group’ as a data collection technique when I found it both feasible and fruitful. I also added benchmarking as a research method when I started interpreting the findings because I needed to compare the PAP practices to the practices of other institutions in a systematic way. However, despite its numerous advantages case study as a research method has its disadvantages. The most notable is the fact that it is difficult to generalise the findings of a case study to other cases because it is difficult to assume that all things can be equal in other cases (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013:209).

3.4.3 Modelling

I used a modelling research method to achieve the second objective of the research – building the PAP-TU Model. Modelling is used for various purposes of inquiry, such as describing, explaining, predicting or theorizing” (Pöchhacker, 2004: 84-85). In translation quality, modelling is a frequently used method of inquiry. I presented some of these models in sections 2.2, 2.3, 2.4, 2.5 and 2.6. The modelling process is in some ways similar to an action research process as both include specifying a problem, suggesting a solution, applying the solution and evaluating the application. Sterman (2000: 86) identifies five steps in a modelling process:

- i. To identify a problem, that is to state its variables and specify its boundaries;
- ii. To formulate a hypothesis that explains the problem and suggests a solution;
- iii. To formulate a simulation model;
- iv. To test the simulation model; and
- v. To design policy and evaluate the model.

I used some of these steps in creating my model. I first articulated clearly the problem that I want to solve and then I hypothesized that applying a model of quality management and a procedure of best practice can solve the problem. However, when I come to building the model, I used a four-phase process that I devised for this purpose, namely designing, development, implementation and evaluation.

Hoyle (2007: 190) defines designing as “a process of originating a conceptual solution ... and expressing it in a form in which a product may be produced or a service delivered”. The product of designing is not a workable model. The design is abstract, without reference to reality; it represents only how an ideal model should appear. In this phase, I adapted *ISO 17100:2015* and used it as the framework of my model. I divided the model into three sections: basic requirements, work processes and secondary requirements. Developing the model was the next phase. Developing refers to transforming the design into a fully workable model (Hoyle, 2007: 190). In this phase, I relied on the PAP-TU assessment study to determine the capacity of the Unit for adding resources and then I filled in the structure of the model by the provisions of quality standards and the best practices of similar organisations.

Implementation is a third phase. implementation means “to carry out a directive” (Hoyle, 2007: 192). In this context, it means applying the model. It is worth mentioning that these three steps, designing development and implementation are not separate; instead, they go together. Modelling, Sterman (2000: 86) writes, is “a part of the learning process, is iterative, a continual process of formulating hypotheses, testing, and revision, of both formal and mental models”. The last phase of building the model, is evaluation. Evaluating is “to ascertain the relative goodness, quality or usefulness of an entity with respect to a specific purpose” (Hoyle, 2007: 190). After the implementation, the model should be evaluated and any amendment should be carried out.

3.4.4 Benchmarking

Benchmarking is a research method for conducting best practice studies. Kelessidis, (2000: 2) defines benchmarking as “the process of improving performance by continuously identifying, understanding, and adapting outstanding practices and processes found inside and outside an organization”. The process of benchmarking involves comparing a set of one organisation’s elements against the corresponding elements of another organisation known for its excellence in performance (Kelessidis, 2000: 2). In this research, I used this method to compare some elements of the PAP-TU (the recipient organisation) with the corresponding elements of the EU and UN (the source organisations). Kelessidis, (2000: 3) identifies five phases of a benchmarking process:

- i. Planning: to determine the elements of the recipient organisation that need benchmarking and the corresponding element in the source organisation;
- ii. Analysing: to analyse the specified elements of the two organisations to determine the performance gap;
- iii. Integration: to prepare the recipient organisation for implementing the exported best practices;
- iv. Action: to implement the best practice;
- v. Maturity: to monitor the implementation to enable continual learning.

I adapted some of these processes to conduct my study. I first identified the element that I found unsatisfactory in the PAP-TU current situation. These included: workflow,

technical resources, human resources, source text analysis, translation types, risk analysis, quality control and quality management. I benchmarked these elements with the corresponding elements of the EU, UN, *ISO 17100:2015* and *EN 15038:2006*. Secondly, I analysed the corresponding elements and identified the difference between the PAP and the standards or the procedures of other organisations. Thirdly, I used the benchmarked element in the discussion of the findings of the PAP assessment study and I imported some of the EU and UN's best practices to the Model.

3.5 Research design

In Section 3.2 I defined research design as a detailed plan that specifies in a step-by-step manner the overall strategy for conducting a research project. This research consists of eleven activities. Table 3.2 presents a summary of these activities, while the following is a detailed explanation of them.

1. I started by giving a background to the research problem.
2. Against the background, I formulated the research question and stated the research aim and objectives.
3. The rationale section argued for conducting the research from three perspectives: that the topic is important, that it is new and that it contribute to the body of knowledge.
4. I put the research into its context by reviewing literature and I identified a gap in the body of knowledge that needed to be addressed.
5. The conceptual framework section showed the theoretical orientation and the conceptual frames of references that guide this research. These include interdisciplinary, functionalist theory of translation, and management theory; in addition to insights from text linguistics, best practice and quality studies.
6. I distinguished between research methodology and research method. Under research methodology, I identified and justified some methodological choices. These include philological assumption where I adopted a social constructionist's perspective for my epistemological and ontological orientations. I stated the main logical moves of the research. In research typology section, I identified my study as

empirical qualitative from the mode of inquiry perspective; its objective is correlative; and its outcome will be used for changing the current situation of the object of inquiry. The methods of the research include action research, case study, modelling and benchmarking.

7. I developed a plan for conducting the research that shows the activities that I am going to do and the methods or techniques that I will use to achieve them.
8. I devised a procedure for the research's quality control that includes using a triangulation technique to approach the data from different perspectives. I also make my methods clear so that other researchers can check my findings by following my path.
9. A chapter is dedicated to the study of the current situation of the PAP. I used a case study research method to achieve this objective. To collect the data, I used four data collection techniques; namely, interview, group interview, fieldwork observation, and archival research. Note-taking is the instrument I used to document the interviews. Before I started processing the data, I transcribed it as closely as possible to the original. I used grounded theory as a technique for processing the data. The data processing includes coding and analysing. I engaged benchmarking research method to interpret and comment upon the findings in a systematic way.
10. A modelling research method is used to design, develop, implement and evaluate the PAP-TU Model. In addition to the findings of the PAP assessment study, I used many quality standards and procedures of best practice to design and develop the model. The Model consists of three sections: basic requirements, processes and secondary requirements. I used benchmarking methods to provide me with additional material for developing the Model. Regarding implementation, I did not implement the model in the real word, but I provided a detailed procedure for the implementation. I also anticipated some of the implementation challenges and provided suggestions for dealing with them. I also addressed the evaluation procedure. I flashed forward to see the future of the PAP and the model. I compared implementing the model scenario with the business as usual scenario.

11. In the last activity, I summarised the main points of the research, drew some conclusions and made some recommendations.

Table 3.2: Summary of the research design

Objectives	Research Methods	Activities	Chapter number	Section Number
Introducing the research, putting it in context, identifying its methodology and putting a plan in place for achieving its objectives	Action Research Method	1. I gave background to the research	I	1.2
		2. I stated the research question, aim and objectives	I	1.3–1.5
		3. I provided rationale for conduction the research	I	1.6
		4. I put the research into context and identified a gap in the literature	II	2.2–2.6
		5. I showed the theoretical orientation of the research	II	2.7
		6. I stated the methodological and methodical choices	III	3.3–3.4
		7. I put a plan for conducting the research	III	3.5
		8. I stated the research quality control procedure	III	3.6
The PAP-TU assessment study	Case Study Method	9. I conducted the PAP assessment study	IV	4.3–4.6
Creating the PAP-TU Model	Modelling Method	10. I designed, developed and addressed the implementation and evaluation phases of the PAP-TU Model	V	5.3–5.6
Concluding the research		11. I concluded by a summary, conclusion, recommendation	VI	7.1–7.3

3.6 The quality control of the research

The issues of research quality are straightforward in quantitative research. Quantitative researchers have well-established methods to address the validity, reliability and

generalizability of their research. Validity and reliability are meant to establish the research quality within its immediate context, namely, the object of the research, whereas generalizability connects the research to the outside world (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013: 27). On the other hand, qualitative researchers have attempted to develop alternative methods to guarantee the quality of their research. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2002: 53), for example, formulated the following questions as an alternative method to assure the quality of qualitative research: (i) validity: "Does the study clearly gain access to the experiences of those in the research setting?" (ii) reliability: "Is there transparency in how sense was made from the raw data?" (iii) generalizability: "Do the concepts and constructs derived from this study have any relevance to other settings?" Wood and Kroger (2000) introduce the term warrantability as a method of evaluating research quality. Warrantability involves making sure that the analysis is both trustworthy and sound, and is co-constructed between the researcher and the assessor of the research. There are many requirements to achieve warrantability, such as accountability, orderliness and documentation, demonstration, pattern and faithfulness (cited in Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013: 38-40).

In this study, I used the techniques proposed by Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2002) and Wood and Kroger (2000) to assure the quality of the research. Some of these techniques are incorporated in my design, such as using the triangulation technique to cross-check different kinds of data. In the following paragraph, I present some of the quality control procedures I used.

- i. I used the triangulation method for collecting data. Using this method gives me the opportunity to thoroughly access the experience of the sample. I used interviews, focus groups, fieldwork and archival research to collect data about the same topics.
- ii. I used grounded theory for data analysis; therefore, I do not impose my version of reality on the data, rather the findings emerge from the data through the processes of coding and analysis.
- iii. I used a benchmarking technique to compare the findings of my research with data from other organisations; therefore, my commentary on and interpretation of the findings are done in a systematic way.

- iv. I documented all the steps of the research and kept a logbook. I also defined all the methods and techniques I used, justified their choice and indicated their shortcomings.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter has shown the methodological orientation and given a detailed plan for conducting this study. The methodological section has presented and justified some philosophical, logical and typological perspectives from which I approach this research, while in the research methods section, I presented the research methods I used to achieve the objectives of the research. I summarized and then presented in detail my plan for conducting the research. I presented the methods with which I controlled the quality of the research in the previous section.

The main point of this chapter is that despite the numerous methods I used to conduct this research, they still work together in harmony without contradiction and each one of them carries the argument of the research further. In the next two chapters, I put the plan I developed in this chapter into practice. Chapter Four assesses the current situation of the PAP-TU, while Chapter Five builds the PAP-TU Model.

Chapter 4: Assessing the current situation at the PAP-TU

4.1 Introduction

The previous three chapters addressed the theoretical and methodological aspects of this research. This chapter focuses on achieving the first objective of the research, namely, assessing the current situation of the PAP-TU. A case study research method is used as the framework for the assessment study while a benchmarking research method is used to compare the findings of the assessment with the practices and resources of other organisations. The chapter consists of eight sections. In the following section, I give a general overview of the PAP. The next five sections address the issues related to the data. In Section Three, I present the population, the sampling process and the methods I used to collect data. I process the data in Section Four, and present the findings of the process in Section Five. In Section Six I interpret the findings and I attempt to make sense of them beyond the immediate context in Section Seven.

4.2 An overview of the PAP

The PAP is an organ of the African Union (AU). It is located in Midrand, Johannesburg, South Africa. The Parliament is headed by a president who is assisted by four vice-presidents. The administrative affairs of the Parliament are overseen by a secretariat which is headed by a clerk assisted by two deputy clerks: one for administrative affairs and the other for legislative affairs (Institute for Security Studies, 2016). The Translation Unit, the focus of this research, reports to the Head of the Division of Plenary, Hansard, Interpretation and Translation, who reports to the Deputy Clerk for Legislative Business and Conference. The Parliament has six official languages, namely Arabic, English, French, Swahili, Portuguese and Spanish. Its documents should be issued in all these languages and the six versions have the same legal status (Institute for Security Studies, 2016; Pan African Parliament, 2016; Tohouenou, 2013:107). The Translation Unit consists of two translators who report directly to the Head of the Division of Plenary, Hansard, Interpretation and Translation. In the PAP organisational structure, the Unit does not have the name “unit”; however, even though the TU does not exist as an administrative unit of the PAP, it nevertheless exists as an entity that provides translation services.

4.3 Data collection

The purpose of data collection, in this part of the research, is to provide insight into the current systems and practices of the PAP-TU. My intention is firstly, to investigate the causes and effects (for example, X has a certain effect on Y); secondly, to understand and describe the causal mechanism and to make generalizations about them (such as X has observable feature Y and this means so and so). In other words, as Saldanha and O'Brien (2013: 36) write, to know how and why such an effect is brought about, and whether it will be there for long. The focus of this data collection is the PAP-TU and the other functions of the PAP that have relationships with the TU. In this regard, there are three sources of data, namely the people, environment and documents. The people refers to the stakeholders of the PAP-TU; these include the staff of the PAP, the freelancers working for the Unit and the users of the Unit's services. The documents refer to a variety of written materials that include, but not limited to, the records of the PAP that related to the Unit. The environment refers to the physical and psychological environment within which the Unit operates; this includes offices, computers, dictionaries and other relevant objects. These sources of data are the focus of this investigation.

4.3.1 The population and the sampling process

The population of a study refers to "all the possible units or elements that can be included", and the sample refers to "a portion of the elements in a population" (Dane, 2002: 289). Sampling is the process of choosing a sample. Dane (2002: 302-303) identifies three sampling processes: the accidental sampling is based on the availability of elements or the ease of including them; the purposive sampling refers to "any procedure directed to obtain a certain type of elements"; the quota sampling means "selecting sampling elements on the basis of categories assumed to exist within the population". I used purposive and quota sampling processes to obtain a sample for this study. My justification is based on the objectives of the research. The primary objective of this part of the research is to assess the current situation of the PAP-TU; this primary objective splits into these secondary objectives: to understand the context within which the PAP-TU works, to analyse and evaluate the organisational structure and workflow,

to assess the human and technical resources, and know the staff's opinions about the development of the Unit. Thus, the target population of the study is the TU and those functions of the PAP that have a relationship with the Unit as those are the section of the population than can provide information relating to these objectives.

The people who work for the TU consist of two groups: staff and freelancers. There are three staff members: two of them are staff translators and the third is the head of the Unit who is also the Head of the Division of Plenary, Hansard, Interpretation and Translation. The freelance translators' group consisted of 35 "frequently used"² translators. Considering the objectives of the study, I targeted the three staff and five of the freelancers to represent the people who work for the Unit. I interviewed the three staff members and sent the interview questions to all the freelancers except for two whom I approached directly to be interviewed and they rejected my request. Two out of the thirty-five freelance translators responded to my interview questions.

The departments of the PAP that have a direct relationship with the TU are the Department of Legislative Business and Conference and the Department of Finance, Administration and Human Resources. The relationship of the latter function to the TU is limited to issues of payment only and this does not affect quality. Therefore, I excluded it from the sample. I conducted formal and informal³ interviews with the Heads of the Plenary, Hansard, Interpretation and Translation Division and the Head of the Committees, Documentations and Library; in addition I conducted an interview with the Documentations Manger.

Therefore, the sample of this study consists of seven members: three managers and four translators; two of the translators are staff translators and the other two are freelancers. I think this sample is sufficient for achieving the objectives of the study as it includes the staff of the Unit, the managers of the PAP functions that have a close relationship with

² This expression is used by the PAP-TU. The listed freelancers are categorized into three groups: "frequently used", "recommended not used yet" and "never used". The second and third groups fall outside the scope of this study as they have never worked for the PAP.

³ Informal interview means I had a conversation with them during my fieldwork observation.

the Unit and representatives of the freelancers. To protect the identity of the participants, I refer to the managers by the letter M; that is, they will be M1, M2, M3. The staff and the freelance translators are given the letter T; that is, they will be T1, T2, T3, T4.

4.3.2 The techniques of data collection

This study followed two general traditions of data collection, namely, naturalistic and survey techniques. Naturalistic, also known as observational, techniques “investigate a phenomenon or a process as it takes place in real life in its natural setting”; naturalistic techniques are in contrast with experimental techniques, which seek to elicit data through manipulating variables (Williams and Chesterman, 2002: 62). Within the naturalistic tradition, I used fieldwork and archival research techniques to collect data from the environment and records of the PAP respectively. Survey research falls between the naturalistic and experimental traditions, as it “consists of (inter)actively taking data by eliciting them from informants, usually by way of interviews or questionnaires” (Pöchhacker, 2004: 63). Within the survey tradition, I used individual interview and group interview techniques to collect data.

In summary, the data of this research was collected from the above mentioned sources of data (see 4.3 above) using the relevant techniques of data collection: interviews and focus groups for people, fieldwork for the environment and archival research for the documents. In the following subsections, I discuss each one of these four data collection techniques in detail.

4.3.2.1 Fieldwork technique

Fieldwork is the general label of many research techniques that include observing events as they occur. There are two types of this technique: “participant observation” and “systematic observation”. In the former the observer is part of the staff of the organisation; in the latter, the observer is an outsider (Dane, 2002:147). I spent ten days (from 17 to 26 August 2016) at the PAP’s premises as a systematic observer. During this period, I familiarized myself with the place and the people therein and used this period to prepare for the interviews: I identified the key people with whom I later

conducted interviews; I also reviewed and amended my interview schedules after the feedback I received during my fieldwork observation. An important source of data during this period is the informal interviews I conducted with many managers and staff members. I documented what I had seen and heard in my field notebook.

4.3.2.2 Archival research technique

This data collection technique was used to collect data from the PAP's records and documents related to the work of the Unit. However, when I asked about the documents related to the Unit during my observation, I did not find many. One of the participants said to me, "Translation is a practical issue, so you will not find much written material about it". However, I had access to some important documents related to the work of the Unit. These documents are old but regardless of their age, I consider them valuable sources of data. They gave me an idea about the Unit and directed my attention to many concerns. In addition, they gave me important terms and concepts to use in my investigation. I was not allowed to quote these documents in my research and I abided by this instruction. I have also been given three unclassified documents: "The code of conduct – Translation Unit" (2014), "Translation request form" (2015) and "General conditions governing outsourced translation at the PAP" (2015). Another important source of data that I used was the PAP's website (www.panafricanparliament.org). The website provided me with important data about the PAP such as the history of the institution, its organisational structure and some of the text types.

4.3.2.3 Interview and group interview techniques

In qualitative research, interviews are defined as "a data gathering technique that involves questioning a subject (the informant or interviewee)" (Myers, 2011: 259). I chose this technique over other techniques because I wanted to gain an understanding of the PAP-TU's systems and insight into the employees' opinions about their work. Interviews are excellent tools for eliciting such data. Saldanha and O'Brien (2013: 196) write, "The main benefit of interviews is that they give privileged access to a person's thoughts and opinion about a particular subject, which are difficult to access through direct observation of behaviour". Interviews are classified according to (i) the number

of the participants in the interview, (ii) the degree of structure and (iii) the manner of conducting the interview.

There are two types of interviewing with regard to the number of participants: individual interviews, that is a one-on-one interview, and group interviews. Group interviews are sometimes referred to as focus groups. Focus groups are “groups of typically six to ten participants which are brought together to engage in a discussion that is ‘focused’, that is, centred around a small number of issues” (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013: 173). In this study, I used both group and individual interviews.

There are two types of interview with regard to the manner in which they are conducted: face-to-face interviews or mailed interviews. In the first type, the interviewer meets with the interviewees and conducts the interview with them face-to-face. In the second type, the interview questions are sent to the interviewees by post or email and after answering the questions, the interviewees send the schedule back to the researcher. I used both of these types. I conducted interviews with the staff of the PAP and mailed interviews to the freelancers who were not available at the PAP premises.

Regarding the degree of structure, there are three basic types of interviews: structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. In structured interviews, the researcher uses strictly regulated pre-formulated questions, whereas in unstructured interviews, the researcher uses guiding questions to direct the discussions so that he can elicit the required information. Semi-structured interviews have elements of both structured and unstructured interviews; researchers use some pre-formulated questions, but they allow the interviewees to freely engage in other issues and new topics might emerge during the interview (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013: 172; Myers, 2011: 123-124). In this class, I used semi-structured interviews for both the face-to-face and mailed interviews. For face-to-face interviews, I prepared an interview schedule, but I let the interviewees freely speak about the work of the Unit and add new topics. For the mailed interviews, I made my questions open-ended and gave the participants the opportunity to add whatever topic they considered to be relevant.

I designed three interview schedules for collecting data from the target population. The first schedule is addressed to the staff of the Unit, as they are capable of providing data

about a range of issues relating to the Unit. The second schedule is addressed to the Head of the Documentations Unit, who acts as a link between the Translation Unit and other departments of the PAP. The last schedule is addressed to the freelance translators who assume the role of external contractors with the PAP.

I used note-taking as an instrument for documenting the interviews. Gummesson (2000: 128) writes that there are two ways of capturing details of an interview: firstly, writing down the conversation by making rapid notes or using shorthand; secondly recording the conversation on a tape or video recorder. Video recording is arguably the most accurate instrument for capturing interview details as it captures more detail; tape recording follows and notetaking comes last. Considering the uneasiness that video recording may cause, I preferred to tape record the face-to-face interviews. However, the use of tape recording became unfeasible and therefore I relied on notetaking. Before I started processing the data, I transcribed the interview manuscripts following the original as closely as possible without any sort of editing. However, the mailed interviews did not need transcription as they came in a written format.

4.4 Data processing

Before raw data becomes a meaningful piece of information, it should undergo two interrelated processes: coding and analysis. There are many techniques that can be used to turn raw qualitative data into meaningful information. Some of these techniques are discourse analysis, narrative analysis, grounded theory, thematic analysis and content analysis. The research question and the type of data determine my choice of the analytical tool. On the one hand, I collected qualitative data through formal and informal interviews; such data does not yield meaningful numerical values, but it may indicate important thematic regularities. On the other hand, the purpose of the research question is to find a correlation between two variables: ‘translation quality’ and ‘adopting a translation quality management system’.

For these reasons, grounded theory is used to process the data of this research. This, however, does not mean ignoring other techniques of data processing when the situation requires. Saldanha and O'Brien (2013: 191) define grounded theory as a qualitative data analysis technique that is based on two principles: (i) data analysis should be based on

empirical findings; and (ii) the outcome of the analysis should be a theory. Charmaz (2006: 2) provides another definition that focuses on the process of grounded theory; she states, “grounded theory methods consist of systematic, yet flexible guidelines for collecting and analysing qualitative data to construct theories ‘grounded’ in the data themselves”. It appears from these definitions that using grounded theory techniques involves three steps: processing, interpreting, and theorising. Section 4.6 deals with data interpreting, while I attempt, in Section 4.7, to make sense of the data beyond its immediate context. In the following two sections, I process the data and present the findings of the process.

Before I start the data processing, there are two points I want to clarify. Firstly, the three groups of data (interviews, fieldwork and archival research) are merged. I process them together because on the one hand, the data is relatively small: transcripts of four interviews, some fieldwork notes, and many documents; on the other hand, the data deals with the same object. Secondly, the data that I am processing is partially coded because the object of inquiry is a small Unit with definite vocabulary and roles; in addition, the interview schedules were semi-structured; therefore, I did not start the coding process from scratch.

4.4.1 Data coding

Data coding is the first step in using grounded theory. Coding “means categorizing segments of data with a short name that simultaneously summarizes and account[s] for each piece of data. Your codes show how you select, separate, and sort data to begin an analytic account of them” (Charmaz, 2006: 43). Assigning codes for raw data “is the pivotal link between collecting data and developing an emergent theory to explain these data” (Charmaz, 2006: 46). The coding process involves two steps: (i) initial coding i.e. reading the data line-by-line or word-by-word (Charmaz, 2006: 48) and (ii) focused coding i.e. to use “the most significant and/or frequent earlier codes to sift through the large amounts of data (Charmaz, 2006: 57). I began the coding process by reading the data line by line and highlighting subject matters and themes. As soon as I started coding, my preconceptions about the object of inquiry were deconstructed and new concepts emerged. For example, financial costs, alignment with the AU, poor quality of

source texts, heavy workloads and the inadequate Translation Room emerged as new themes. At the same time, themes such as translator's competence, quality management system and language varieties, which were on my predetermined list of themes, were of less importance in the data.

4.4.2 Data analysis

This phase of data processing follows data coding. Data analysis “requires both a clear explanation of how the analysis was done and conclusion reached, and a demonstration of how raw data was transformed into meaningful conclusions” (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002: 117). I conducted the analysis in two steps; first I categorised the themes and subject matters that emerge from the coding phase and then I connected these themes and subject matters to build larger categories. During these processes, I attempted to reconcile three competing categorisation methods. That is, to categorise the themes and subject matter according to (i) the objective of the study, (ii) the interview schedules, or (iii) the themes that emerged from the data itself. However, I followed the themes that emerged from the data itself as I do not want to impose my version of reality upon the data. These are some of the categories that emerge during the analysis; the entire categories form the headings of the next section.

- i. The stakeholders of the Unit: this category emerges from the interviews, my fieldwork notes and the PAP Website.
- ii. The organisational structure: I built this category from the interviews, my fieldwork notes and the PAP Website.
- iii. The workflow: I identified the workflows of the Unit from the interviews and the Translation Request Form.
- iv. The human and technical resources: for constructing these categories, I mainly relied on the interviews.
- v. Concerns about the Unit services: I put under this heading the themes and subject matter that emerged from the interviews and fieldwork notes and referred to the negative aspects in the work of the Unit such as high cost, low quality and inconsistency of translation.

- vi. The Unit's difficulties: this category includes subject matters and themes such as low quality source texts, heavy workloads and short deadlines which emerged from the interviews and fieldwork.
- vii. Some themes and subject matters such as multilingualism, quality management, continuous professional development stand alone and do not go into any category.

4.5 Presentation of the findings

This section presents the findings of the data analysis without any attempt to interpret the data or comment upon it. The interpretation of and commentary on the data is the subject of the next sections.

4.5.1 The stakeholders

The core stakeholders of the Unit are the Bureau and the Secretariat of the PAP. These two are responsible for the administrative and financial affairs of the Unit. The main users of the Unit's translation "are the Members of the Parliament (MPs)" as one of the employees said to me during my fieldwork. M2 said that the main client of their translation services is the AU as they are its legislative organ. M2 added that they also communicate with the African Parliaments and through them they communicate with the African people, and sometimes they communicate directly with the general public through some material they publish for this purpose. The secondary stakeholders of the Unit are those who either consume its translations, such as the general public, governmental and non-governmental organisations and the organisations that collaborate with the Unit in technical matters such as the Organs of the African Union. In summary, the stakeholders of the Unit include (i) the PAP management which oversees the financial and administrative affairs; (ii) the MPs, AU and the general public who consume the translation of the Unit.

4.5.2 The organisational structure

The Translation Unit used to report to the Documentations Unit; that is, the Documentations Unit used to be the administrator of translation work from receiving a task to delivering the translation to the consumer. However, since January 2016, as M3

told me during my fieldwork, the Unit has become part of the Division of Plenary, Hansard, Interpretation and Translation. Now, the Unit consists of two staff translators: one is for Portuguese and the other is for French. These translators report directly to the head of the Division of Plenary, Hansard, Interpretation and Translation. According to T3, they are not a unit yet. They will have one Arabic and one English translator in the near future. The two staff translators coordinate the work of the unit in a rotational term: each one of them assumes it for six months. M1 captures this understaffing saying that there is supposed to be a head of the language units, but for now we have only a coordinator; in the future, we will have a head. He continues, “We do not have in-house revisers, but during the sessions we have two revisers for every five translators”. The organisational structure of the Unit within the PAP can be summarised as the following:

- i. The Bureau;
- ii. The Secretariat;
- iii. The Department of Legislative Business and Conference;
- iv. Division of Plenary, Hansard, Interpretation and Translation;
- v. The Translation Unit which consists of two staff translators who coordinate the work of the Unit;
- vi. The freelance translators.

4.5.3 The work process

In the current structure, the translation work originates from the Documentations Unit as T3 said:

The Documentations is the entry point for the document to be translated ... they receive it, give it a file name, capture its information, they are the custodian of the organization's documents. After that they send the document to the translation unit, we see if the document can be translated by the staff otherwise we give it to the freelancers.

The Translation Unit has a database of freelancers from which the translators are chosen. After the work is finished, the Translation Coordinator returns the translation to the Documentations Unit. The following is a detailed workflow of the Unit.

1. **The requester of a translation service.** He or she fills a Translation Request Form for each document to be translated. The Form includes information about the document (title, language, number of words), specification of the request (target language, deadline and the nature of the document), and endorsement by an approving authority (the request should be endorsed by one of the managers who are authorized to do so).
2. **The approving authority.** Any one of the managers who is authorized to endorse a Request Form, may approve, disapprove or make amendments to the Form.
3. **The Documentations Unit.** The requester sends the duly filled and approved Form to the Documentations Unit. In the Documentations, they capture the details of the request, give it a file name, classify it and then send it to the Coordinator.
4. **The Translation Coordinator.** He has three options for translating the text: it can be translated by the staff translator, or by the freelancers (inside the PAP during the sessions), or by the remote freelancers. His decision is based upon the volume, type and urgency of the work.
5. **Translators.** There are two possible workflows: one is for the staff translators and the freelancers inside the PAP, the other is for the remote freelancers.
 - a. The staff translators and the freelancers inside the PAP: they receive the source texts; they translate them and send them back to the Translation coordinator.
 - b. The remote freelancers: they receive a translation assignment; they should acknowledge its receipt within 24 hours, otherwise the assignment will be cancelled. If they accept the assignment, they should translate it within the time limit and send it back to the Translation Coordinator. At the end of the month they send their invoices for payment.
6. **After translation.** The Translation Coordinator receives the translated document and sends it back to the Documentations Unit which registers the information of the document, saves a copy of it, processes it further and sends it to the requester.

The peak of the Unit's work is during the parliamentary sessions. The PAP is a sessional parliament. Every year, it holds two statutory plenary meetings in May and October and its Committees hold four statutory meetings per year; two in March and

August, and the other two are usually held on the side-lines of the ordinary Plenary sessions in May and October. M2 describes the work during the Parliament sessions as follows:

We usually start 30 or 45 days before the sessions, we need translation for the previous meeting minutes and the agenda of the coming meeting, we also have documents and presentations for the coming meeting. The short deadline and the time pressure come from: (i) some documents and presentations come in the last minute or during the sessions themselves (ii) there are amendments to the agenda or the documents (iii) there is a change in the nature of the documents from the agenda - it becomes a recommendation for example (iv) and the work of the meetings themselves.

4.5.4 The technical and technological resources

I posed questions to the participants about the technical and technological resources they use. In response to my questions about whether the PAP recommended certain translation tools, T1 told me, the “PAP does not recommend anything. I always use the ones that suit me.” The staff and the freelance translators use their own tools and technologies. T2 said, “if Translation Unit of PAP could develop a terminology database for use by all translators, this would be an improvement factor.” T3 raised concerns about the equipment the translators use and described them as “outdated”. He also described the Translation Room of the freelancers as “improper” and “not well-equipped”. I have seen the Room, during a Plenary session, and it is very crowded and sometimes there is not enough space for the translators.

However, it appears that the management is aware of the important role of technology in decreasing cost and increasing quality: M1 said to me that they are not in an ideal situation with regard to technology and they do not have a translation memory to avoid duplicating translation. Still, implementing a total CAT solution is not an easy endeavour for an institution that relies mainly on freelancers. M3 wondered, “if we adopt a total solution how we give freelancers access, it is difficult.”

4.5.5 The human resources

The number of staff and freelance translators

At the moment, the Unit has two staff translators in addition to the freelancers who work for the Unit either remotely (from home) or at the PAP premises during the sessions. The database of these freelance translators, as of January 2016, consists of 59 translators; 35 of whom are regularly used; the others have not been used yet. Understaffing is the main challenge of the Unit which is expected to fulfil its objectives with only two staff translators working as translators, interpreters and coordinators of the Unit's work. M2 referred to the effect of understaffing in this way, "I believe that with the current organizational structure we cannot speak of quality". M1 said, we are not in an ideal situation with regard to staff [...] the administrative work takes priority. This does not allow for training, continual professional development, etc."

The procedure and criteria for hiring staff and freelancers

The PAP uses the AU procedure and criteria for hiring staff. This is a detailed process to ensure that the best employees for the organ are chosen. M1 said:

Translation is an upper position job, we look for age, qualification, experience, short list, writing test, interview ... we do not intervene in the process, the choice is done by others including some people from the business community ... we hire the most qualified because of the nature of the job.

For hiring freelancers, the PAP has no written criteria, even though it has a long established tradition. M3 answered my question about the criteria for hiring freelancers saying that they use those who work with the AU as many of them have worked with them for ten years; other than those, they use those who work for international organizations and governments. M2 answered the question this way:

For the freelancers, the people who start this Unit come from the AU, so they use the norms there, so these are some procedures, we use some of those who work for the international organization, those accredited by translators' institutes, we

have a sort of permanent freelancers, some people work with us since we start. In the last session, they start something new, they bring translators from the AU other organs, at a time when they have no sessions, this is also a good step.

However, it appears that these well-established traditions for hiring freelancers do not prevent incompetent translators from sneaking into the freelancers' database. M3 put it this way, when I asked about this concern, "We do not know, people present to us certificates stating that they are competent". In responding to a question about the translation quality M1 said, "bad quality comes from people who are not translators, we started using professionals who are used by other organizations" and he continues, "we fired google translators ... we bring better professionals".

The translators' satisfaction

The management thinks that the freelancers are satisfied with their work for the Unit. "We use the African Union rates for paying them", M1 said. The African Union rate that M1 is referring to is \$24 per page as the document titled "General Conditions Governing Outsourced Translation at the PAP" (2015) indicates. T3 thinks that the freelancers are financially satisfied but the working environment needs improvement as "the Translation Room is not quite appropriate". The freelancers themselves said that they are satisfied with their work for the PAP. In answering the question: "Are you satisfied with your work with the PAP?", T1 said, "Yes, I am satisfied." T2 said, "I am satisfied so far. I am comfortable in my collaboration with them." For the staff translators, it appears that they are overwhelmed by the volume of work. When I asked whether they have duties other than translating and interpreting, M1 said, "Yes, coordination, invoicing, language assistance, doing management work. Things would have been easy if we have a chance to develop the Unit professionally."

4.5.6 The source texts types

I asked different interviewees to tell me about the text types that the PAP translates and their responses are similar: the PAP has only certain types of texts. T1 described the text type they translate for the PAP as, "Documents such as Minutes of Permanent Commissions' Meetings; Reports; Corporate documents, etc.," and he continued, "I

translate plenary documents, Committee Minutes, Speeches, Presentation papers”. I thought that most of the texts to be translated were transcription of oral speeches, but M2 told me that this is not the case, “we have only four text types: agenda, minutes, reports, presentations ... even there is templates for them,”. However, I think he is referring to the Committees’ documents only.

4.5.7 The translation types

I asked the interviewees about the types of PAP translation and M3 said, it is “a parliamentary documents translation” even though the parliament does not have legislative power yet. Many of the respondents consider the PAP translation as a special case of translation in terms of content and context. With regard to content, the PAP translates parliamentary documents which are not common in the translation market. As for context, most of the translation work is done during the Plenary sessions and/ or the Committee meetings and there is considerable pressure at such times. T4 said, when I asked about the specialization among translators:

It is a translation of general nature: document, legal, we have eleven committees, all sort of subjects ... so it is difficult to get specialization ... the texts are not highly technical, semi-specialized.

4.5.8 Concerns about the Unit services

The stakeholders of the Unit have concerns and sometimes dissatisfaction about the services of the Unit. Among these concerns is the poor quality and inconsistency of the translated texts. The MPs, the main consumers of the translation, have complaints about the poor quality of some translations and the inconsistency within one language and within the different languages. One of the employees tells me during my observation “the members always complain about quality”. M1 thinks that one of the reasons for poor translation is the incompetent translators that once worked for the Unit; he said “bad quality comes from people who are not translators”. On the other hand, T4 thinks that underfinancing is one of the reasons, “quality needs cost, as your research is about quality, good professions cost”, he said to me. M2 located the problem in understaffing as he said, “I believe that with the current organizational structure we cannot speak

about quality”. The short term remedy the management of the Unit has adopted is to bring professionals from other AU organs and to introduce revisers during the session. The long term remedy is to increase the staff and use technology.

Cost is also one of the main concerns of the Unit. M2 said that translation is very expensive and this undermines quality, while M3 put it in this way, “the translators cost us much; in addition to their fees, we pay for their tickets, hotels and daily expenses; if we had staff, they would not have cost us that much”. M2 said to me in a passing reference during my fieldwork:

Your model should include something about cost, this is an important matter; cost also affects quality because we have to decrease the number of translators in order to spend within the limits of the budget.

However, there is another point of view in this regard. When I said to T4 that there are complaints about the cost of translation, he said:

I am worried about the word complaint, we are speaking here about nations’ sovereignty: no way to reduce cost; quality needs cost (as your research about quality), good professions cost a lot.

On the other hand, many of the respondents think that the Unit needs more funds to fulfil its commitments. Challenges such as understaffing, a poorly equipped Translation Room and dated technical equipment indicate a need for more resources. As a matter of fact, the arguments for increasing the budget are more frequent than the concern about cost as even those who raise concerns about cost acknowledge the Unit’s underfunding.

4.5.9 The Unit’s difficulties

As the stakeholders of the Unit have some concerns about the Unit’s services, the Unit also has many difficulties that prevent it from fulfilling its duties properly. In addition to the understaffing and underfunding challenges, the Unit has other technical difficulties and issues such as the poor quality of source texts and their frequent amendments, the short deadlines and the heavy workload.

The poor quality of the source texts and their frequent amendments is a challenge that all the respondents agree upon. The translators are affected by this challenge more than the others. T1 said, “Some of them [the source texts] have a lot of mistakes; sometimes you cannot get the concept.” The managers among the respondents acknowledge this problem; M1 said, “if the source text is good, the outcome will be good”, and he added, “some texts are written by people’s second language: people write not in their mother tongue.” M2 told me of incidents where even some of the staff have written texts that the translators could not render in another language.

In addition to the fact that some of the drafters of the text write in their second or third language, the workflow of the Parliament during the sessions does not allow for revisions of the source texts; that is, whenever a text is drafted it should be sent to the translators to be translated as soon as possible. In addition to the poor quality of some of the source texts, they more often undergo amendments and changes of their content. This challenge is residual because it is part of the nature of the Parliament’s work. Any decision or recommendation is drafted many times and some of the changes are done by different people. And the texts, M2 said, “change in the nature, an agenda becomes a recommendation, for example.”

The short deadlines and the heavy workload are also among the Unit’s concerns. The freelancers particularly suffer from this situation. T2 said, “The most important challenge is the deadlines. The assignments are very often of a short notice”. T1 thinks that the PAP give “a very short time to translate big documents” and that

Enough time should be given for translating big document [...] There should be a system of submitting the documents for translation at least a week before so that they can be organised and sent to the translators as earlier as possible.

The point of view of the respondents among the managers is not different from the translators’. M1 said that the translation requesters send “the work in the last minute instead of sending it before to give translators sufficient time ... No time for translation no quality.” M3 highlighted this challenge saying, “[an] original may send in the morning and needed by 12:00, there is two translators, it should be done.”

The short deadline challenge is closely linked to the heavy workload challenge. The freelancers identify it as a 'short deadline' but the staff calls it 'heavy workload'. M3 thought that the heavy workload it is due to the absence of "policy and this is a weakness". M1 described the situation saying:

During meetings how 52 PowerPoints be translated ... people do not translate presentation, the interpreter communicates the content during the presentation. They send bulk texts without looking to the capacity of the Unit.

4.5.10 Multilingualism and language weightings

Many of the respondents drew my attention to multilingualism as an important factor in the PAP language policy and to the fact that the official languages of the PAP may increase and not otherwise. They also drew my attention to the language weighting as an important topic to be considered. M2 said that the PAP does not need to use its official languages equally: "70% of the PAP translation is from English, 10% from French, Arabic is rare". The PAP translates its documents into the six working languages, but the Committees use only four languages in their work: Arabic, English, French and Portuguese.

I asked whether the language varieties of the PAP community cause difficulties for the Unit and the answer is "not much". "We do not have serious problem in this regard we do not have varieties⁴, we have standard languages, there is a common style" M3 said to me and added, in practice but not officially we use French French, British English and Portuguese Portuguese as these are the varieties used in the member states. It appears that they do not have an official variety of Arabic as the member states use different varieties of standard Arabic. M2 told me that there are many problems with Arabic, "it is good that they introduced revisers and the quality improved". He highlighted this situation by different rendering of key terms such "ministry", "agriculture", "training" and "employment".

⁴ I think the respondent did not understand my question clearly as I asked about standard varieties such as British English and American English.

4.5.11 Quality management

Responding to my question about whether the Unit has a quality management system in place, they say that it does not. M1 said that they hope to have one in the future. For the time being things have started to improve as they have introduced revisers during the sessions.

4.5.12 Continuous Professional Development (CPD)

I posed questions about the CPD for the translators; that is, whether the PAP organizes such activities and the answer is “no”. M1 confirmed this answer saying, “We do not have this, in the AU, EU, UN they have.” T1 said, “I attend seminars on translation in my country”.

4.5.13 The freelancers’ work process

I posed three questions specifically to the freelancers about their work: “the work process”, “the methods with which they cope with working under pressure” and “the quality control procedure they use”. T1 described his work process as the following:

When I receive the document, I start to translate it right away if it is urgent, if not I just read the whole document before translating it in order to understand it clearly.

T2 replied in this way:

When I take an assignment, I make sure that I will finish translating the document at least 1 or 2 days before the deadline, depending on the length of the document. This allows me to finish a translation and not to proofread it immediately. After that I proofread the document, spellcheck it and I send it. I always open a folder where I keep a copy of the source language and the one I work on. I use Trados to translate my documents

I asked them about their methods for controlling the quality of their work; T1 answered the question saying:

I always make sure that I read it at least twice to make sure everything is okay. For the difficult terms I consult the experts on that field if there is time to do so.

T2 said that he uses online language resources such as dictionaries, encyclopaedias and terminology databases; he continued:

I don't hesitate in using these tools, anytime a doubt arises; I use them even in those fields that are familiar to me ... I do the proofreading process in two times: first, I ascertain the accuracy between the source and target languages; secondly, I focus only on the text in the target language, to make sure that issues such as phrasing, style, adequacy of the context 'sound' as they should in that language.

The freelancers developed ways to cope with pressure; T1 told me "it is very difficult to translate under pressure, but because of my experience in doing so at the PAP, I am used to it." T2 said:

I am used to pressure. But I only take an assignment when I am sure that the pressure is manageable. I often spend sleepless nights working. While working I take a [break] from time to time, listening to good music, drinking a glass of water, going outside for a while, etc.

4.5.14 Alignment with the African Union

This issue is always present in the discussion. The staff think that the PAP is part of the AU and its departments should match the AU's as otherwise there is a problem. They also consider the AU Translation Directorate as a specimen. During my fieldwork, one of the staff, who appeared to have visited the AU seat in Addis Abba, told me that in the AU they have revisers and even proof readers who just say here is a missing comma, this accent should be acute not grave. He advised me to start by considering the alignment with the AU and added, "The structure is the same. We are supposed to be similar to them, but they [the AU] had decreased the number of employees: they deleted the revisers". T4, in a pre-interview meeting, mentioned this issue, "It is better to start from there; we are part of the AU". M2 thought that I should familiarize myself with the AU Translation Directorate because on the one hand it is a complete translation

department with all the necessary staff, on the other hand the PAP is an organ of the AU and the PAP-TU should match the AU's.

4.5.15 Suggestions and recommendations for the PAP-TU Model

During my fieldwork I received many suggestions and recommendations for the model I am developing. Some of them came spontaneously such as “you have to include something about cost”, “you should start with the AU”, “such a model should address the short deadlines”. I also elicited such suggestions and recommendations by asking the interviewees if they have any suggestions for the model or if they want the model to address a particular concern.

During my fieldwork one of the employees said to me, “You can suggest to them to make the in-house translators revisers for the freelancers not interpreters”. M1 directed my attention to the future of the Unit saying:

I think it will be helpful to take into account when we do legislation. In this regard what other organizations such as EU do ... also if you look in translation technologies: e-Luna, Trados ... what they look like ... They address things like workflow, translation memory; UN had e-Luna; we do not have terminology database and we need to develop a translation memory.

M3 draws my attention to two issues; he said, “Is your model for freelancers or staff? If it is for freelancers, how do you give them access?”. His next point is that I should always take into consideration “multilingualism ... documents here should be translated to the six working languages.”

The freelancers' suggestions are related to the challenges they face in their work with the PAP. T2 hopes that “if the Translation Unit of PAP could develop a Terminology Database for use by all translators, this would be an improvement factor”. T1 suggested:

There should be a system of submitting the documents for translation at least a week before so that they can be organised and sent to the translators as early as possible.

4.6 Interpretation of the findings

The data of this research was analysed in Subsection 4.4.2 and the findings of the analysis were presented in Section 4.5. This section takes the analysis further by connecting the findings to the literature in the field and the best practices of similar organisations. I used benchmarking methods to identify some of the PAP's key processes, activities and resources and compare them with those of other organisations such as the European Commission and the United Nations or with the provisions of certain quality management standards such as *ISO 17100*, *ISO 9000* and *EN 15038*.

Departments that render services are expected to render quality service with reasonable cost, least managerial attention and provision for the future. The findings of the study reveal that the PAP-TU has challenges in all these areas. Again and again different stakeholders raise concerns about the quality of the translation and about the inconsistency of translations within one language and between the different languages. There is also concern about the cost. In addition, it appears that the Unit does not benefit from its experience because it does not have the necessary staff to analyse the experience or the proper technology to document it.

The participants in the study identified the reasons for these challenges, difficulties and concerns as the absence of translation policy, the lack of permanent management for the Unit, understaffing, underfunding, poor utilization of information systems and technologies, bad quality of the source text, short deadlines, heavy workload and occasionally incompetent translators. In the following subsections, I comment upon some of these findings.

4.6.1 The absence of translation policy

The absence of a translation policy is one of the main findings of the study. This challenge features many times directly and indirectly during the interviews. ISO (2015: Clause 3.5.) defines policy as the “intentions and directions of an organisation as formally expressed by its top management”. In this context, a policy determines what texts are to be translated, how, when and for what purpose; in addition, a policy can be a framework against which objectives are set and quality management procedures are

identified. Many of the respondents speak about heavy workload, bad source text quality and the translation of texts that are not usually translated such as presentations. Establishing a translation policy can address all these problems by stating, for example, the text to be translated and when it will be ready for translation. A policy means that the workload of the Unit should correspond to the resources of the Unit. Furthermore, a policy will help the PAP to fulfil its regulatory or legal requirement of multilingualism as well as fulfilling its political objective through mobilizing the resources in the direction that fulfils these objectives. In addition, a translation policy will help the Unit to analyse the risk associated with its work according to the objectives.

4.6.2 Administrative challenges

The findings of the study reveal that the Unit has many administrative challenges. These can be summarised in the absence of a permanent manager, the lengthy and apparently difficult to manage workflow and the large organisational structure. The lack of a permanent manager affects the work of the Unit a great deal. In the current organisational structure, the work of the Unit is managed by a coordinator. The two staff translators do this job in rotation; each one assumes the role for six months. ISO (2015: Clause 2.3.2.2) writes that for an organisation, leadership creates a unity of purpose, guides the employees and “enable the organisation to align its strategies, policies, processes and resources to achieve its objectives”. The PAP-TU is in need of a translation manager who, in addition to managing the work of the Unit, can establish policies, state objectives, propose plans for continuous development, and be the spearhead for innovation and progress.

The organisational structure of the Unit is also a point of concern. The TU used to be part of the Documentations Unit and now it is part of the Division of Plenary, Hansard, Interpretation and Translation and in both cases the Unit is far removed from top management and located within departments that do not have a technical relationship with translation. For a multilingual parliament, the language unit should be given an important role because it is the production point of the parliament. Parliaments produce texts such as legislation, policy documents, reports and other text types.

The TU of the PAP has a lengthy work process and there are very few steps in this lengthy process that contribute to translation quality or even relate to translation work. Table 4.1 compares the workflow of the Unit and the workflow suggested by ISO (2015b: Sections 4-6) for translation agencies.

Table 4.1: Comparison between PAP-TU workflow and ISO 17100 workflow

PAP-TU workflow	ISO 17100 workflow
Initiation of a translation request	Initiation of a translation request
Approval of the authority	Project preparation
Documentations Unit	Translation
Translation coordinator	Checking
Translator	Revision
Translation coordinator	Final verification
Submission to the user	Submission to the user
	Post-translation

The entire workflow of the PAP-TU consists of administrative steps with exception of translation. In contrast, the workflow of ISO is technical and contributes to quality: project preparation includes administrative, technical and linguistic work (Clause 4.6); checking by translators is a separate process (Clause 5.3.2); revision is a compulsory step (Clause 5.3.3); final verification ensures that the translation meets the specification (Clause 5.3.6); post-translation work includes eliciting feedback and closing the project (Clauses 6.1 and 6.2).

ISO (2015b) suggests that one person do all the non-technical work, namely, a project manager. The PAP has at least three persons to do this: the approval authority, the Documentations Unit officer and the Translation Coordinator. None of the PAP's seven steps contribute to the translator's understanding of the source text. Furthermore, the separation between the translators and initiators is not recommended; translators often need to contact the initiator to obtain more information about the text or the purpose of the translation. Risk analysis is a very important step and it is absent from the PAP workflow. In the European Parliament risk analysis is carried out when assigning a translation project and the risk level determines the quality control level and this in turn determine the translators' competence profile (European Commission, 2015: 3).

4.6.3 Underfunding

Underfunding is the biggest challenge for the Unit. There is no justification for the absence of staff translators for Arabic and English, translation managers and revisers other than the underfunding of the Unit. The participants of the study agreed on the fact that the Unit is underfunded. In this regard, the only thing that one can say is that if the management wants quality translation and wishes the Unit to be developed, more resources are needed. However, if the PAP management puts more resources into the TU, this will be a good investment because, on the one hand, this will improve the quality, and on the other hand, it will decrease the cost in the long run.

Cost is one issue that was raised many times during the study. However, the discussion around cost should be divided into two perspectives. The first perspective is the cost of the Unit in budgetary terms; that is, the cost of translation compared to other functions of the PAP. From this perspective, there is not much to say, as it is evident from the findings that the Unit is underfunded. The second perspective is talking about cost in terms of efficiency; from this perspective, there is a room for economising, but the Unit needs first to invest in hiring a least a project manager and using technology so that it can benefit from the economy of scale and reduce cost. In the short term, these suggestions may contribute to efficiency:

- i. The Unit could add technology to prevent the duplication of translation and this would decrease the cost.
- ii. The Unit could consider working per hour instead of working per paper particularly after implementing technology because when using a translation memory, the cost of a translation project will depend on what has already been translated.
- iii. The Unit could consider hiring translation agencies instead of working with the freelancers directly. The translation agencies are good at economising and getting the best of the translation technology.

4.6.4 Human resources challenges

I discuss human resources challenges under three headings; namely, understaffing, hiring criteria and translators' satisfaction. Understaffing is evident from the study; not a single respondent or document contradicts the fact that the Unit is understaffed: there is no permanent head of the Unit, project manager or revisers. ISO (2015b: Clause 3.1) identifies a translation manager, project manager, translator and reviser as the minimum human elements for a translation organisation. It is self-evident that without sufficient human resources the Unit cannot achieve its objectives. However, with a proper management system and qualified administrative staff, the freelancer can compensate for the absence of permanent staff.

The procedure and criteria for hiring staff is satisfactory because it is based on open competition and a detailed procedure that involves many stages of selection. However, the PAP has no specific procedure and criteria for hiring freelancers and this affects the quality of its translation negatively as the Unit relies on freelancers. Qualified translators are able to mitigate the risk of error and discrepancy and this contributes to maintaining a positive image of the institute (European Commission, 2015: 6). The European Commission (2009: 24) noted that the entry barriers to the translation industry are very low and that the number of well qualified linguists is too small to cover the growing demand, but it remains the PAP's responsibility to source good freelancers.

The findings of the study indicate that the freelancers are satisfied with working for the PAP, but when I carefully studied their answers and compared them with each other I found them contradictory. On the one hand, the freelancers said that they were satisfied; on the other hand, they had concerns about source text quality, short deadlines, a heavy workload, dated equipment and an unfriendly Translation Room. It seems that the freelancers are talking about satisfaction in terms of financial gain and not the satisfaction derived from doing the work itself. Job satisfaction is the positive attitude an employee finds in the work he or she does; such an attitude affects productivity and quality (Rodríguez-Castro, 2015: 32). Adopting this definition, I doubt that the freelancers derive satisfaction from their work in this environment and under these

circumstances. Improving the work in the Unit on different levels will contribute to translators' satisfaction and this in turn will contribute to quality and productivity.

4.6.5 Underutilisation of technology

The findings of the study reveal that the PAP does not use translation technology systematically, nor does it recommend certain kinds of technology to the translators. Translation technology, also referred to as computer-aided translation (CAT), consists of software developed to assist in the process of translation. The main components of CAT are terminology databases and translation memory (Freigang, 2005:134-135). The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime [UNODC] (2012) writes that CAT improves the performance and the quality of the translation process as it makes available matches for the source text and equivalents for the terms; in addition, CAT provides relevant and accurate information and templates for formatting. EPSO (2016) thinks that CAT decreases the risk of translator errors and increases their productivity. UNODC uses the web-based Mercury translation memory and Vintars terminology database. These tools are used in all UN headquarters (UNODC, 2012).

Companies dealing with CAT tools have recently developed translation management programs that include translation memory and terminology databases in addition to components that manage translation workflow as well as the administrative work related to the translation process. Software and Documentation Localization [SDL] (2016: 10) claims that the translation solutions they have developed (i.e. SDL Translation Management System) reduce costs by 40% as they standardise the work and automate all processes except for authorisation, translating and revising. They also claim that their program estimates the translation cost based on what already exists in the translation memory. If, for example, a 50% exact match of the source text is found the client will pay only 50% of the total cost (SDL, 2016: 10). Of course, this is commercial data and it is not verified by independent and uninterested parties; however, it still gives an indication of the potential benefits to the PAP were it to implement such solutions because, according to the respondents, translation in the PAP is repetitive. In addition to translation memory and terminology databases, a translation management system can help PAP in managing the translation process. The solution could decrease the human

element in the Unit by centralising the different translation processes into a single process (SDL, 2016: 10).

4.6.6 Technical challenges

The Unit has many technical challenges. Some of them are short deadlines, poor source text quality, and heavy workloads. I commented upon this in Subsection 4.6.1 above when I discussed the absence of translation policy. However, there are also other challenges that can be addressed by the Unit such as quality control, text types and non-European languages.

Quality control is the process that focuses on achieving quality requirements (ISO, 2015: Clause 3.3.7), that is, making sure that the translated text fulfils the required purpose. The minimum quality control level, states ISO (2015b: Clauses 5.3.1-5.3.3) consists of checking by the translator and revision by another senior translator to ensure that the text is suitable for the intended purpose. The PAP implements translator checking as well as revising during sessions. However, the findings do not reveal whether the translator's checking is a separate workflow step or part of the translating process. The European Commission (2015: 3) writes that checking is a separate workflow step and is different from the normal checking during the actual translation process. It is a revision carried out by the translator himself or herself. EPSO (2016) recommends frequent checking of random samples particularly for priority and sensitive documents, but the EPSO does not specify who will carry such the random checking.

Since the PAP normally translates specific source text types, it can exploit this characteristic of its source texts to decrease cost and increase quality. The participants of the study describe the PAP's translation type as "parliamentary document translation". The European Commission (2015: 2) describes the European Parliament translation as "institutional translation and multilingual law-making". Regarding source text types, the respondents say that the main documents are agendas, minutes, reports and presentations. In the European Parliament, the main text types are legislation, technical reports, policy papers, press release and brochures (European Commission, 2015: 1). Specifying text types plays an important role in quality control and risk analysis because not all texts need to be translated with the same care. In the European

Parliament, document types have quantified error impact (European Commission, 2015: 3). Legislation, for example, has the highest risk impact and therefore the minimum level of quality control for this text type will be higher than that of a press release.

Another technical challenge that the Unit faces relates to non-European languages. The findings of the study indicate that the Unit has specific concerns about Arabic. However, this challenge may exist elsewhere such as in translation into or from Swahili. This challenge is understood: on the one hand, the Unit has no staff translator for Arabic to at least oversee the work of the freelancers; on the other hand, Arabic is not related to the other European languages. Therefore, translating into and from Arabic may pose some challenges. Furthermore, while there is official or practical adoption of a language variety for the other languages (British English, French French, Portuguese Portuguese), there is no such adoption for Arabic; instead Arabic translators use different standard varieties. In addition, the Arabic translators who work for the PAP come from different regions of Africa with different professional traditions and norms; often what is acceptable in one place as a good or satisfactory translation is not considered so in other places. In addition, each translator uses the language variety of his or her region. Important terms like “ministry”, “agriculture”, “training”, “employment”, for instance, are rendered differently in Arabic depending on the variety the translator uses.

4.6.7 The future challenge

It appears that the Unit lets the future take care of itself. It does not have enough managerial staff to plan for the future nor does it have the necessary translation technology to document the current experience for developing translation memory and a terminology database. The PAP is expected to grow into a legislative parliament for all Africa. However, despite this gloomy picture, there is optimism in the Unit about the future. More than one respondent told me that there is a new organisational structure in which there are Arabic and English translators, and there is a researcher for the entire PAP (the Unit can benefit from his or her services). In addition, the staff are happy with the new manager of the Division. One respondent said, “before she comes when we make proposal no one listen to us ... now things improve, she herself is a linguist... we start change, in the coming years I want to see more”.

4. 7 Discussion of the findings

The findings of this study (Section 4.5) indicate that there are some concerns about the work of the Unit such as unsatisfactory translation quality, the high cost of the services, and difficulty in managing the Unit. The findings also referred to the reasons behind these difficulties as underfunding, understaffing, heavy workload for the capacity of the Unit, poor source text quality and under-utilisation of technology. In Section 4.6 the resources and practices of the PAP were compared to the resources and practices of other organisation as well as to the provisions of some quality standards. The comparison confirms underfunding as a source of many concerns and difficulties such as the lack of a permanent manager and revisers. The comparison also indicates that many of the Unit's challenges can be addressed within the range of the current resources.

Now, I invoke the second objective of the study – building a model for quality management and best practice for the Unit. The question is, do these findings justify continuing this research project or do they suggest other courses of action? The answer is, the findings justify continuing this project, because they, on the one hand, reveal that the Unit's challenges are of administrative nature: absence of translation policy, long and untechnical workflow, multi-layers' organisation structure, underutilisation of technology and absence of criteria and procedure for hiring the freelancers. On the other hand, the findings reveal that the Unit has a special type of translation work and therefore the current quality management standards such as *ISO 17100* cannot address the Unit's specific needs as they are constructed as benchmarks for commercial translation agencies. Hence the Unit needs a quality management model for its own use.

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter focused on assessing the current system and practices of the PAP-TU. Data about the current situation of the PAP was collected, analysed and interpreted. The findings of this chapter show that there are many challenges facing the PAP-TU such as unsatisfactory translation quality, high costs, difficulty in managing the Unit, and the lack of future plans. The findings also referred to the reasons behind these difficulties as underfunding, understaffing, heavy workload for the capacity of the Unit, poor source

text quality and underutilisation of technology. These findings suggest that the Unit needs more funding in addition to a system that can assure quality, reduce the cost and the administrative burden and provide for the future. In the next chapter, such a system is built.

Chapter 5: Creating the PAP-TU Model

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided a detailed description of the current system and practices of the PAP-TU and concluded by showing a need for a quality management model. This chapter will build such a system and achieve the second objective of the research. To do this, I used a modelling research method to design, develop, implement and evaluate the model. In Section Two, I present the theoretical and empirical bases upon which the model is built. The design and development of the model is the object of Section Three where I present the core and secondary requirements of the model as well as the work processes. In Section Four, I introduce a detailed implementation procedure that indicates each stakeholder's responsibility, I then anticipate some implementation challenges and suggest measures for dealing with them. Section Five proposes a procedure for evaluating the model. Section Six fast forwards and show how the model can serve the PAP in the future when it adds new languages or becomes a legislative parliament. Section Seven provides an argument for implementing the model and compares the implementation scenario with the business as usual scenario.

5.2 The theoretical and empirical bases of the model

ISO 17100:2015 and the findings of the PAP assessment study form the basis of the model. I also used other quality standards, translation and linguistic theories and procedures of best practices. A benchmarking research method is used to import these materials into the model (see subsections 3.4.4 for more discussion on this method). These are the most important resources that I used in building the model.

- i. The outcome of the empirical study “assessing the current situation of the PAP”;
- ii. Translation quality standards:
 - *ISO 17100: Translation services – requirement for translation services,*
 - *EN 15038:2006: Translation services – services requirement;*
- iii. Quality management standards

- *ISO 9000: Quality management systems – Fundamentals and vocabulary,*
 - *ISO 9001: Quality management systems – Requirements,*
 - *ISO 9004: Managing for the sustained success of an organization – A quality management approach,*
 - *ISO 19011: Guidelines for auditing management system;*
- iv. Translation and linguistic theories. These substantiate the processes, workflows, and activities of the model;
- v. The best practices of professional translators, translators’ associations, translation agencies, and translation departments in organisations similar to the PAP such as the UN, AU, EU. These best practices identify successful methods of doing activities that the PAP-TU can adopt;
- vi. Management theory to address functions such as project management, organisational structures and work processes.

5.3 Designing and developing the PAP-TU Model

5.3.1 Preface

This model is designed to assure the quality of the PAP-TU services. It consists of three sections: basic requirements, work processes, secondary requirements. Table 5.1 includes a summary of the model.

5.3.2 Statement of objective

The objective of this model is to guide the work of the PAP-TU through identifying the necessary requirements and processes to assure the quality of the Unit’s services.

Table 5.1: Summary of the PAP-TU Model

Sections		Clauses	Number
Basic requirements		Terms and definitions Translation policy Quality management system Technical and technological resources Human resources management The organisational structure Project management The Freelancers-PAP agreement	5.3.4
Processes	Pre-translation	1. Originator: prepare a request form 2. PM ⁵ : receive and check the request 3. PM: do risk analysis and choose translators 4. PM: Send the project to translators; translators confirm receipt	5.3.5.1
	Translation	5. Translator: translate 6. Translator: check, and send the translation to PM 7. PM: receive the translation and send it to reviser 8. Reviser: revise and send the translation to PM 9. PM: final verification and submit to end user	5.3.5.2
	Post-translation	10. PM: follow-up with the end user and feedback 11. PM: Close the project	5.3.5.3
Secondary requirements		Risk management Source text analysis Translation brief Continuous development The PAP-TU Manual The PAP-TU Style Guide Educating the stakeholders Standardising the tools and technologies Research and statistics PAP translation community	5.3.6

⁵ PM refers to the Project Manager in this table only.

5.3.3 Mission, vision and values

Mission is defined as the “organization’s purpose of existing as expressed by top management” (ISO, 2015: Clause 3.5.11). The mission of PAP-TU is to provide a quality translation service, to use resources efficiently and effectively, to continually grow as the PAP itself grows, to assist the PAP in achieving its mandatory multilingualism objectives and its political goals, and to provide support for similar departments in other African parliaments.

Vision is the “aspiration of what an organization would like to be as expressed by top management” (ISO, 2015: Clause 3.5.10). The PAP-TU aspires to be one of the top multilingual translation departments, to be a role model for similar translation departments in Africa and to state the standards for quality translation services.

Values, in an organization’s environment, are defined as the “fundamental principles that guide the organization in accomplishing its goals. They are what it stands for such as integrity, excellence, innovation, inclusion [....] These values characterise the culture in the organization” (Hoyle, 2007:200). The PAP-TU is guided by three main values:

- i. In achieving its objectives, the Unit is committed to the highest standard, quality and excellence.
- ii. In dealing with the stakeholders, the Unit is committed to inclusion, diversification and equal opportunities for all.
- iii. In planning for the future, the Unit is committed to continuous development, innovation and evidence-based decision making.

5.3.4 The basic requirements

Requirements refers to a “need or expectation that is stated, generally implied or obligatory” (ISO, 2015: Clause 3.6.4); in this model, the requirements are stated. In other words, this section specifies the basic requirements of the model and states the characteristic features of every element of the requirements, and Section 5.3.5 states the secondary requirements.

5.3.4.1 Terms and definitions

The definition of the terms is essential to the work of any model, system or standard because in these modes of communication the language is used ‘performatively’; that is, verbs such as ‘comply’ and ‘assess’ are used to instruct users to perform certain actions. Furthermore, these modes of communication use terms such as ‘system’, ‘procedure’, ‘process’, ‘practice’ to refer to specific activities, roles or functions. ISO standards usually define the key terms at the outset so there is no confusion in understanding or applying the standards’ clauses. In this section, I provide definitions of some important auxiliary verbs because the definition of these auxiliary verbs is essential to the work of the model as they indicate the situation of the clause; the definition of other terms is given in the clauses of the model.

The term ‘shall’ is used to indicate that the requirement under consideration is essential to the work of the model (ISO, 2015: Introduction).

The term ‘should’ indicates that it is highly recommended to use this requirement even though there are other alternatives (ISO, 2015: Introduction).

The term ‘may’ is used to indicate the permissibility of taking a certain course of action in the context under consideration (ISO, 2015: Introduction).

The term “can” is “used for statements of possibility and capability, whether material, physical, or causal” (ISO, 2015: Introduction).

5.3.4.2 Translation policy

A policy is defined as the “intentions and directions of an organization as formally expressed by its top management” (ISO, 2015: Clause 3.5.8). Policy-making is assigned to the “top management” because it involves choosing between different courses of action. These choices should be based upon the overall goal of the organisation, the environment within which the organisation works, the stakeholders’ needs and expectations, the available resources and the future of the organisation. Taking these points into consideration, the PAP top management should establish a policy that “is

appropriate to the purpose and context of the organisation”; “provides a framework for setting quality objectives”; “includes commitment to satisfy applicable requirements”; and “includes a commitment to continual improvement of the quality management system” (ISO, 2015: Clause 5.2.1). In this model, the purpose of the translation policy is to guide the work of the TU and to provide a framework upon which the Unit can state its objectives and develop its work plans. I found the following areas, processes and functions need particular attention from the top management of the PAP, as the Unit itself is not capable of addressing them:

- i. The text to be translated: the management should determine which texts are to be translated. This means that not all but only some texts can be sent for translation. An example of such policy item could be “an agenda can be sent to translation whereas a presentation cannot”. Another policy item may state the characteristics of the text to be translated; such as, “a text should not be sent to the TU unless it has undergone many stages of revision and it is a final draft.”
- ii. The workflow of the Unit: such policy item can decrease the current lengthy workflow by cutting work processes such as going through Documentations or authorisations (see 4.5.3 for the current workflow).
- iii. The organisational structure of the Unit: the top management of the PAP may explore different alternatives regarding the organisational structure of the Unit; they can keep the current structure, implement the one recommended by this model or suggest a new one.
- iv. The quality control levels and procedures: this item also needs a top management decision because it requires time and resources. The management shall determine upon the recommendation of the Unit which level of quality control a certain document type should undergo.
- v. The role and responsibilities of the staff: the management should identify the roles and responsibilities of the staff such as the translation manager, project manager, and language heads.

- vi. Continuous development: guidelines for the Unit's continuous development should be stated by the top management.
- vii. Implementation of a quality management system: the management should decide which QMS the Unit is to implement.

5.3.4.3 The quality management system

The PAP shall have a quality management system (QMS) to assure compliance with this model. At every stage of the work, the person in charge should make sure that his or her performance complies with the quality objectives and quality procedures of this model. This QMS consists of quality policy, procedure, control and planning.

(A) Quality policy

The quality policy of an organisation refers to the “policy related to quality” and this quality policy should be consistent with the organization's overall policy and in line with the organisation's vision, mission and values (ISO, 2015: Clause 3.5.9). The PAP top management should establish a quality policy to guide the work of the Unit with regard to quality and to be a framework for stating quality objectives and procedures.

(B) Quality procedure

The quality of the services of the Unit shall be monitored at every stage in the workflow; the following is a detailed quality procedure:

- i. The requesters of a translation service shall make sure that the text they want to translate is prepared for translation according to the stated procedure and that their request has the required endorsement if needed.
- ii. Upon receiving a translation request, the Project Manager should make sure that the request and the attached text are submitted according to the established procedure. The Project Manager should carry out risk analysis and assign the project to translators accordingly.

- iii. The translators should translate and check their translation according to the brief of the project, their agreement with the PAP and the norms of the profession.
- iv. The revisers should revise the text according to the brief of the project, their agreement with the PAP and the norms of the professions.
- v. Upon the completion of a project, the Project Manager should make sure that all those who participated in the project have followed the stated quality procedure.

(C) Quality control

The quality of the translation is to be checked in at least two stages: the translators shall check their translation for accuracy and completion before delivering it back to the Project Manager; the revisers are the main quality controllers; they shall revise the translation and report any mismatch between the ST and TT to the Project Manager.

(D) Quality planning

There should be a quality plan in place to identify and review all quality concerns. The staff and freelancers should undergo continuous development in quality control. Research should be carried out to identify any quality failure and adopt the necessary corrective measures. The Translation Manager shall have a quarterly meeting with the staff to discuss quality concerns and review the quality, policy, procedure and plan.

5.3.4.4 Technical and technological resources

In order for the Unit to achieve its objectives properly, it should have the necessary technical and technological resources. Technical resources refer to the equipment that is “required for the efficient and effective completion of translation projects” such as communication equipment, hardware and software and information resources (ISO, 2015b: Clause 3.2). Technological resources refer to “translation technology tools, translation management systems, terminology management systems, and other systems for managing translation-related language resources” (ISO, 2015b: Clause 3.2). Translation technology is referred to as computer-aided translation (CAT); this includes all software systems that are developed to be used in translation (Freigang, 2005: 134).

CAT is divided into three types of software; namely, terminology databases, translation memories and translation management systems. In the following paragraphs, each one of these technologies will be discussed in more detail.

(A) Terminology database (TD)

A terminology database, also referred to as a term bank or a terminology management system, is any system that stores specialized terms in electronic form (Schäffner, 2005: 249). A terminology database is the main remedy for the inconsistency of terms that many stakeholders of the Unit raised concerns about (see 4.5.8). The terminology databases provide agreed, unified and reliable terminology and this ensures greater terminology consistency (Schäffner, 2005: 249). In addition, adopting a terminology database will save the time that translators and revisers otherwise spend searching for the suitable equivalences. Schäffner (2005: 249) writes that in technical translation searching for terms takes 60% of the translator's time. A terminology database is particularly important when the PAP starts legislating because in that case inconsistency or discrepancy will have serious consequences.

(B) Translation memory (TM)

A translation memory is a software tool consisting of databases that contain segments of source texts and their equivalent target texts; these segments are extracts from previous translations (Freigang, 2005: 135); in other words, the previous translations are recycled. This process means that a translation or part of it will not be duplicated: as soon as translators enter a new text in the system, the memory will tell them whether the text or part of it has already been translated or not. This software is particularly useful for the PAP as they have certain document types and these documents frequently undergo revision and amendment.

(C) Translation management system

A translation management system (also known as translation management package or a translation management suite or translation management solution) is software that consists of a system for managing the work of a translation organisation in addition to

other CAT specific software. If the Unit implements such a solution, it will include both a terminology database and a translation memory in addition to other features relating to the technical and administrative functions of the Unit; therefore, there will be no need for the translation memory and the terminology databases suggested above. However, such management packages give the most benefit when they are used by staff translators.

5.3.4.5 Human resources management (HRM)

HRM is the function of the organisation that deals with the employees from recruitment to service termination. It is defined as a system of policies, programmes and practices that affect the behaviour and performance of the employee so that they are satisfied and contribute more to the performance of the organization (Amos, et al., 2016: 9). The use of the concept ‘human resources’ (HR) indicates a shift in the way in which people view organisations’ workforces. Traditionally, the function of the organisation that deals with the employees was called “personnel management”; the renaming reflects the growing recognition of the people’s role in achieving the organisation’s goals (Amos, et al., 2016: 9). HRM practices include planning human resources, designing and analysing jobs, recruitment, training and development, and performance management (Amos, et al., 2016: 9). The PAP has an HR division that deals with the HR in administrative terms, but the TU has to deal with the technical aspects of the HRM such as recruitment, training and development, and job design. In the following paragraphs, I discuss recruitment and then specify the minimum required human resources which include a translation manager, project manager, language heads, translators and revisers. I want to stress that I am referring to roles and functions rather than specific posts. In other words, a person can perform more than one function except the functions of translating and revising which must be done by separate persons.

(A) Recruitment

Recruitment has three main aspects: policy, procedure and criteria. The recruitment policy is part of the Unit’s overall policy and it was dealt with in Section 5.3.4.2 above. Recruitment procedure and criteria are still to be discussed. Procedure refers to a “specified way to carry out an activity or a process” (ISO, 2015: Clause 3.4.5). In this

context, procedure refers to the process with which the PAP recruits its new staff and freelancers. Such a process may include advertising the vacancy, studying the applications, making a shortlist and conducting interviews, for example. Criteria refer to the standard against which the new recruits are chosen, such as educational qualifications and years of experience. The PAP uses the AU procedure and criteria for hiring staff and these are enough from an administrative point of view. However, considering the technicality of translation work, the Unit should work with the PAP human resources department in the technical aspect of the recruitment. For hiring freelancers, the Unit has no written procedure or criteria and this is an avoidable shortfall. The PAP should have documented procedures and criteria for recruiting freelancers. Section 2.5 focuses on translator's competence and Subsection 5.3.6.8 focuses on developing a freelancers' database; these two can be the basis for drafting such procedures and criteria.

(B) The competences and roles of the Unit's staff

ISO (2015: Clause 3.10.4) defines competence as the “ability to apply knowledge and skills to achieve intended result”. The same clause further states that demonstrated competence is referred to as qualification. In other words, a qualified person is the person who can demonstrate his or her competence. The competence of a person can be demonstrated by many ways such as educational qualifications, certified training and documented work experience (ISO, 2016: Clause 7.2). Specifying the competence necessary for a certain job is determined by the role the holder of the job plays in the organisation (ISO, 2016: Clause 7.2). Role refers to the activities a person does when performing a certain job. The minimum competences and the basic roles of the Unit's staff are identified in the following paragraphs.

(1) Translation Manger

The role of the Translation Manger:

- i. He or she manages the work of the Unit and organises the relationship between the Unit and other PAP departments;
- ii. He or she should participate in establishing translation policy;

- iii. He or she shall develop the quality system of the Unit and monitor its implementation;
- iv. He or she should establish the research and statistics function of the Unit;
- v. He or she should participate in the staff recruitment;
- vi. He or she should arrange for the continuous professional development of the staff and the freelance translators.

The competences of the translation manager:

- i. He or she should be a translator with a long work experience in both translating and managing translation departments;
- ii. He or she should be at least bilingual in two of the PAP languages, and preference should be given to trilingual or quadrilingual candidates;
- iii. He or she should have a general managerial experience.

(2) Project Manager

The role of the Project Manager:

- i. To help the Translation Manager in his or her work;
- ii. To manage translation projects from receiving a project until delivering the translated text to the end user;
- iii. He or she is responsible for monitoring compliance with the quality procedure; that is, he or she should make sure that, at every stage, the participants in the project have complied with the quality requirement;
- iv. He or she should elicit feedback from the users regarding the services of the Unit.

The competences of the Project Manager:

- i. The candidate should possess a relevant experience in administering such projects;
- ii. The candidate should have a broad knowledge of translation work and the related process;
- iii. The candidate should have excellent written and communication skills in English and preferably another one or two of the official languages of the PAP;
- iv. Ability to relate to others.

(3) Translators and revisers

The role of the translators and revisers:

- i. The role of the translators is to translate the texts according to the brief, their agreement with the PAP and the norms and best practices of the profession; the translators should check their work before sending it back to the PAP to make sure that they have translated everything correctly;
- ii. The role of the revisers is to revise the texts according to the brief, their agreement with the PAP and the norms and best practices of the profession; the reviser should report, in a written format to the Project Manager, any unsatisfactory translation.

The competences of the translators and revisers:

- i. Translators and revisers shall have competences in five areas: translating competence, linguistic and textual competences in the SL and TL, research competences, information acquisition and processing competences, cultural competences, and technical competence (CEN, 2006: Clause 3.2.2). The Clause also identifies the methods by which these competences are acquired: (a) recognised degree in translation, (b) qualification in another subject plus two years of work experience or, (c) five years of documented experience. However, considering the nature of the PAP work and the fact that it pays quite well compared with other employers, the minimum qualifications should be raised above the CEN (2006) level. The translators' competence should be assessed against five criteria: academic qualifications, membership of professional associations, professional certification, years of work experience and peer recommendation (see Section 2.5 for more discussion on translators' competence).
- ii. Revisers should have the same competence as translators in addition to longer working experience as a translator and proven experience in revising (ISO, 2015b: Clause 3.1.5).

(B-4) The heads of the languages

Each one of the staff translators shall act as a head of his or her respective language. They are called Head of French, Arabic, English, and Portuguese languages. These are their basic roles:

- i. They oversee the work of their respective language;
- ii. They help the Translation Manager in running the Unit;
- iii. They monitor the work of the freelancers of their respective language;
- iv. They develop the style guide for their language.

5.3.4.6 The organisational structure of the Unit

Tyson (2015: 30) defines the organisation as a large entity within which individuals and groups operate. The different organisational elements such as people, structure, technology and environment interact within the organisation (Tyson, 2015: 32). As one of the organisational elements, the organisational structure refers to the reporting relationships; that is, who manages whom. Sandford (2015: 48-60) identifies many types of organisational structures, such as the functional structure which is highly traditional and suits centralized organisations such as the military. In the divisional structure, “each division runs as independent business unit”. This structure suits the organisations that have a variety of products. Matrix structures are adopted by organisations that provide innovative solutions where projects require highly specialized labour. Cluster structures are ideal for conditions requiring flexibility, innovation and change.

Developing organisational structures is a type of classification: closer organisational functions such as marketing and finance go together to form a division or a department. In the current PAP structure, there is no professional or functional relationship between the TU and the Plenary and Hansard functions except that these functions use the services of the Unit. The same is true for the previous organisational structure where the TU used to report to the Documentations Unit of the Division of Committee,

Documentations, Library and Research. Furthermore, in the current organisational structure the Unit is far removed from the top management.

For these reasons, namely, the lack of strong ties between translation and Plenary and Hansard functions and the long distance between the TU and the top management, I suggest that the TU should be a separate unit under the direct supervision of the Clerk of the Parliament along with the Units of Legal Services, Monitoring and Evaluation, and International Relations and resources mobilization. This suggestion is supported by the current trends in organisational theory to reduce organisational layers (Sandford, 2015: 68). Figures 5.1 illustrate the suggested organisational structure of the Unit. The following is the suggested new organisational structure of the Unit from bottom to top:

1. The freelance translators: they report administratively to the Project Managers and technically to the Head of their respective languages;
2. Project Manager: he or she oversees the administrative work of the Unit;
3. The Heads of Languages: the four staff translators oversee the work of the freelance translators in their respective language and help the Translation Manager in his job;
4. The Translation Manager: he manages the Unit;
5. Clerk of the Parliament.

For managing the work with the freelancers, a cluster structure is more suitable than other organisational structures. Sandford (2015:60) points out, “The subcontractors are the clusters around the central point. Specific and time-related contracts for work come from the central point.” In this type of structure, the subcontractors are required to do specific technical work such as translating, revising, reviewing or proofreading while the administrative work is done by the Project Manager. In other words, the Project Manager oversees the freelancers’ work. Companies like Nike use this organisational structure where all products are manufactured by subcontractors; however, such a structure needs strong leadership (Sandford, 2015: 61).

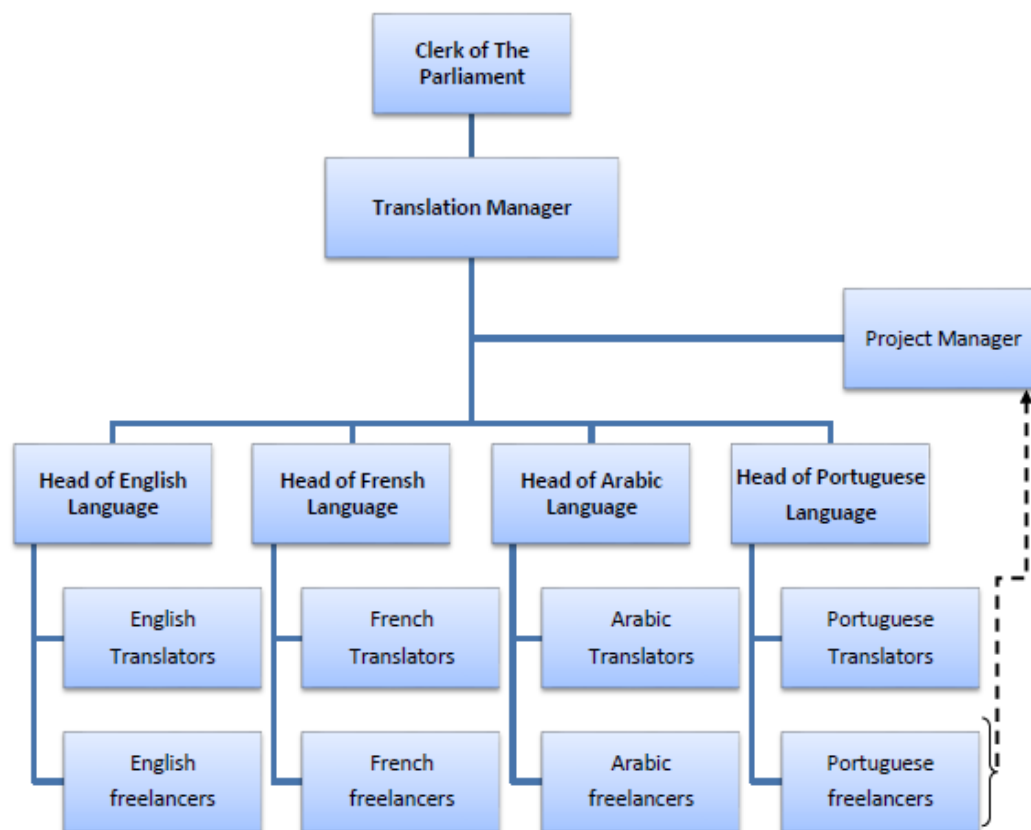


Figure 5.1: The suggested organizational structure of the Unit

5.3.4.7 Project management

A project is defined as a process undertaken to achieve specific objectives in specific periods of time; a project can consist of smaller group of projects (ISO, 2015 Clause 3.4.2). As a unit of work, a project is opposed to a continuous process like a production line in a factory, for example. The continuous process, write Fox and Waladt (2008: 8), has a system and procedure and it produces the same product whereas projects are a temporary endeavour to achieve certain objectives of the organisation. ISO (2015b) suggests the project as the unit of work for translation organisations because in these organisations the work is not a continuous process; it rather consists of smaller units of work and each one of them has specific objectives and dates for starting and finishing. The project as a unit of work suits the PAP-TU because its work comes from time to time and each task is unique and has a specific start and end date.

Projects, like any other method of organising work, need management and this is the area of project management which refers to applying knowledge and skills to project activities through defining, planning, controlling and closing projects, and mobilizing staff within the scopes of time, cost and quality (Fox and Waladt, 2008: 4). Adopting a project as a unit of work and the principles of project management to the work of the Unit will have many benefits such as reducing risk, controlling resources, providing a single point of responsibility and standardising the methods and procedures (Fox and Waladt, 2008: 12). The project management will be the link between the Unit and all those who participate in a translation project.

I specified the competence of the PAP-TU Project Manager in 3.5.4.5 above. However, there are other options that can be considered in this regard. Bendana and Melby (2012:26), for example, suggest that a project manager in translation organisations should be an experienced translator who knows both the process in translation services and in the translation industry, while ISO (2015b: Clause 3.1.7) does not stipulate a strong translation background; it rather states that the project manager should “develop a basic understanding of the translation services industry and a thorough knowledge of the translation process, as well as mastery of project management skills”. I adopted the ISO recommendation when I specified the competence of the PAP-TU Project Manager because I believe this is an administrative and not a technical position.

5.3.4.8 The freelancers-PAP agreement

The understanding between the PAP and the freelancers should be in a written form to identify the rights and obligation of each party. Contracts may not be suitable in such a situation as the PAP is not obliged to give freelancers work; therefore, the alternative to contracts would be for the two parties to sign a ‘memorandum of understanding’. Such a memorandum states the rights and obligations of each party if and only if the PAP commissions the freelancer to do a job for it. In case of dispute, such a memorandum serves as a tool for resolving the dispute.

5.3.5 The work processes

A process is defined as a “set of interrelated or interacting activities that use inputs to deliver intended result [...] Two or more interrelated or interacting processes in series can also be referred to as a process” (ISO, 2015: Clause 3.4.1). The “intended result” of a process is referred to as output in information sectors, product in production sectors or service in a services sector (ISO, 2015: Clause 3.4.1). The process approach to managing work is opposed to a function approach to work management. Functions are collections of specialised departments that perform specific jobs in the organisation such as marketing, personnel, production and finance functions (Hoyle, 2007: 110). In a functional approach, the work is passed onto a function, executed and passed onto another function (Hoyle, 2007: 110). This model suggests a process approach to the management of the PAP-TU. The process approach is recommended by ISO (2015) as the most suitable approach to all types of quality management because “consistent and predictable results are achieved more effectively and efficiently when activities are understood and managed as interrelated processes that function as a coherent system” (ISO, 2015: Clause 2.3.4.1). ISO (2015b: Sections 4-6) identified three groups of processes for the provision of translation services in commercial organisations:

- i. Pre-production processes and activities: these include a clients’ quotation request, a TSP’s quotation, signing agreement, receiving the source text and preparing the project.
- ii. Production processes: these include project management, translating, revising, final verification, and submission.
- iii. Post-production processes: these include receiving or eliciting feedback from the user and closing the project.

Because this model is designed for a non-commercial organisation, the ISO (2015b) processes will be modified to suit the PAP-TU. The important modification is to remove the contractual relationship that governs the processes and to add risk analysis. The model retains the three ISO groups of processes: pre-production process, production process and post-production process as in the following subsections. Figure 5.2 presents a flowchart of the workflow of the Unit.

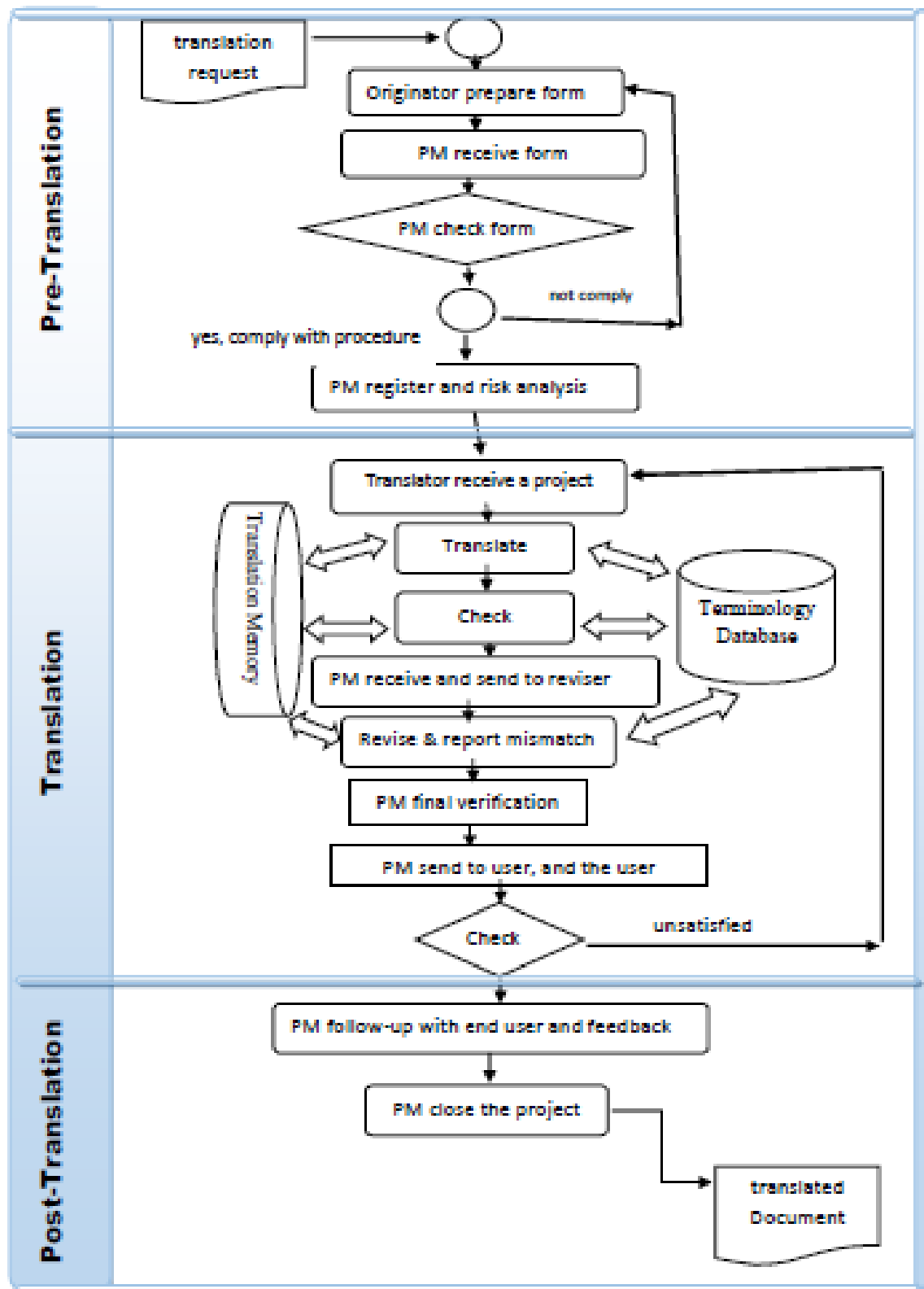


Figure 5.2: The work processes of the PAP-TU Model

5.3.5.1 Pre-translation process

This process assumes the existence of both a translation policy and procedure for the work in the TU. It includes two persons and consists of four activities as follows:

1. The originators should fill in a translation request form properly and make sure that the text they intended to translate complies with the established policies and procedures. Then, they should send the form and the text to the Project Manager.
2. Upon receiving a translation request, the Project Manager should check the request for compliance with the established policies and procedures; if it does not comply, the Project Manager should return it to the originators with his comments.
3. If the request complies with the procedures and policies, the Project Manager should capture its information and carry out a risk analysis to decide on the necessary quality control and the suitable staff for this project. Then, the Project Manager communicates with the staff to check their availability to finish the project.
4. The Project Manager sends the project to the translators and receives a written confirmation from the translators stating the receipt of all the components of the project and that the project will be finished in the specified time and according to the given translation brief and their agreement with the PAP.

5.3.5.2 Translation processes

This process assumes the existence of a translation policy and procedure as well as a translation brief. It involves three persons and five activities as follows:

1. The translators should translate the text according to the translation brief, their agreement with the PAP and the norms and good practices of the profession. In their translation, the translators should use the tools and technologies that the PAP has recommended for them (ISO, 2015b: Clause 5.3.1).
2. The translators should check their translation to make sure that they have translated everything correctly. Checking is a separate process (ISO, 2015b: Clause 5.3.2); that

is, checking is a revision carried out by the translators. After finishing the project, the translators send the translated text to the Project Manager.

3. Upon receiving the translated text from the translators, the Project Manager shall verify the paper work attached with the translation and send the text to the revisers.
4. The revisers shall revise the text according to the translation brief, their agreement with the PAP and the norms and good practices of the professions. They should return the revised text to the Project Manager accompanied by a separate report if they notice any mismatch between the ST and TT (ISO, 2015b: Clause 5.3.3).
5. Upon receiving the revised text, the Project Manager shall make a final verification to make sure that every process is done according to the established procedures and that the translation is consistent with the translation brief (ISO, 2015b: Clause 5.3.6), and then he sends the work to the end user.

5.3.5.3 Post-translation processes

This process involves two persons and two processes:

1. The Project Manager shall follow-up with the end user to report any dissatisfaction and elicit feedback. If the situation requires amendment or re-translation, the Project Manager should make sure that such amendment or re-translation is carried out.
2. Upon acceptance of the translation and documenting the end user's feedback the Project Manager should close the project.

5.3.6 The Secondary requirements

The following requirements are not obligatory requirements for the work of the model, but they add value and elaborate upon some points that are mentioned briefly in the basic requirements or the processes of the model.

5.3.6.1 Risk Management

Risk is the “likelihood of something happening that could have a positive or negative effect” (Hoyle, 2007: 198). ISO (2015: Clause 3.7.9) defines risk as a positive or

negative deviation from the expected result that causes uncertainty. The same Clause defines uncertainty as the state of “deficiency of information related to understanding or knowledge of, an event, its consequence, or likelihood”. Thinking about risk “is essential for achieving an effective quality management” (ISO, 2015a: Clause 0.3.3). Organisations address risk through adopting risk management systems. Risk management is the process by which organisations address the risk attached to their activities and how that risk could affect their work (Hoyle, 2007: 199). Risk is managed by identifying the potential risk, quantifying its effect and putting the necessary measures in place to mitigate them. In translation industry, the main risk is related to the errors or discrepancies in the translation. The European Commission (2015:6) writes:

Translation errors and discrepancies create risks of litigation and financial, political and image-related damage. They may entail considerable extra work later in the legislative process, in working groups and in other EU institutions [....] They may also result in difficulties and problems – and potentially errors – of interpretation and implementation at the national level.

Risk in translation is analysed based on two criteria: firstly, the probability of risk occurring and secondly, the possible impact of translation error (European Commission, 2015: 2). The greater the impact of translation error and/ or the higher the probability of risk occurring, the more quality control measures are needed. What is important here is that the probability of risk occurring and its possible impact are not equal for all text types. The European Commission (2015: 4) specifies different quality control measures for different text types: legal documents and policy documents, for example, have a different risk impact. To mitigate risks, these are some suggestions:

- i. The source text should be well drafted.
- ii. A clear translation brief should be given to translators.
- iii. Risk assessment should be carried out before starting any translation project and the quality control measures should be decided accordingly.
- iv. The translator’s and revisers’ competence profile should match the quantity of risk attached to the project.

5.3.6.2 Source text analysis

Source text analysis refers to studying the texts to be translated to determine their textual profile: text type, genre, domain terminology, etc. Hatim (2005: 262) defines text analysis as analysing language beyond the sentence level to determine the organisation and mapping of the text. ISO (2015b: Clause 4.6.3.1) states that translation service providers “shall ensure that the source language content is analysed to ensure efficient and effective performance of the translation project”. Analysing the source text has an important effect upon performance as it helps translators to produce equivalence not only in content but also in form. The European Commission (2015: 1) specifies many text (document) types such as legislation, technical reports, policy papers, press release, brochures and web texts. They also identify quality requirements and quality guidelines for four main text categories: legal documents, policy and administrative documents, information for the public and input for EU legislation, policy formation and administration (European Commission, 2015: 4).

The situation in the PAP is similar to the situation in the European Parliament; therefore, the PAP can also establish textual profiles for the texts they frequently translate and base their translation brief and quality control measures upon such text profiling (see Section 4.5.6 for more discussion about the PAP text types). However, it is expected that the PAP has new types of texts from time to time; for such new types, a text analysis should be done before it is sent for translation.

5.3.6.3 Translation brief

The Translation brief, also referred to as commission or specification, is the instruction given by translation buyers to translators to translate the texts according to these instructions. Koby (2013a:162) writes that the translation brief states the characteristics of the target text such as the purpose of the translation, the audience who will read the translation and the medium of communication. Translation brief has special status in the functional theory of translation which this study has adopted. Koby (2013:178) writes that functionalism means a translation project should have a source text and a set of specifications. The PAP shall have a translation brief as an integral part of any

translation project. Standard briefs can be written for repeated text types and special briefs can be written for new texts.

Translation brief, risk management (5.3.6.1 above) and source text analysis (5.3.6.2 above) are interrelated and interconnected functions. Firstly, they all carried out by the Project Manager; secondly, the translation brief and risk management depend a great deal upon the source text analysis.

5.3.6.4 Continuous improvement

Continuous improvement is at the heart of any quality or professional competence system because systems and people do not stand still; they either improve or deteriorate. To keep a system up to date, there is a need for a procedure for continuous improvement. ISO (2015: Clause 3.3.2) refers to continuous improvement as a “recurring activity to enhance performance” and that the process of “establishing objectives and finding opportunities for improvement is a continuous process”. The Translation Manager shall establish a procedure for the continuous development of the Unit and the staff. The Translation Policy (see 5.3.4.2) should also include provisions for continuous improvement. The Unit shall have at least a quarterly CPD gathering where translators and staff exchange information, discuss challenges and reflect upon the latest developments in the field. The CPD can be done online since most of the associates of the Unit are not available in one place.

5.3.6.5 The PAP-TU Manual

The PAP-TU Manual is a single document that gives the stakeholders of the Unit the information they need about the work of the Unit; it shall consist of the following:

- an overview of the PAP;
- an overview of the TU: its mission, vision, values, structure and workflow;
- the key persons in the Unit and their contact details;
- the established quality policy and procedure;
- the recommended translation tools and technologies;
- the Unit’s Style Guide; and
- any other relevant information.

5.3.6.6 The PAP-TU Style Guide

ISO (2015b:2.2.10) defines a style guide as a “set of editing and formatting instructions”. Using a style guide contributes to quality and consistency. The PAP can start by adopting one of the commercial style guides until it develops its own style guides. Each Head of a language should develop a style guide for his or her respective language to be used by all the translators and revisers. CEN (2006: Annex D) states that a “style guide can include instructions or choices” regarding punctuation, spelling, formatting, different sorts of adaptations, terminological choices and avoidance of common errors.

5.3.6.7 Educating the stakeholders

Educating the stakeholders means making them aware of (i) the services of the Unit, (ii) the work process in the Unit, (iii) the proper way to prepare a text for translation, and (iv) how to send feedback or complaint regarding the services of the Unit. The Translation Manager shall make sure that the different stakeholders have sufficient information about the work of the Unit. Such awareness can be brought about through preparing leaflets or manuals or running workshops. Most importantly, the Translation Manager should prepare a standard form for the end users’ feedback and complaint; such a form should be sent to the users along with the translated text.

5.3.6.8 The Freelancers’ database

Freelancers, also referred to as professional contractors or independent professionals, are a subset of the self-employed workers who work in specialist industries such as translation, project management, or computer programming; this group does not include farmers, traders and craftsmen (Johal and Anastasi, 2015:159). In practice, employers do not distinguish between the ‘self-employed’ and the ‘employed’ who are looking for additional work. Such a distinction is important because the self-employed make themselves available for work 24/7 and they develop strategies for working with many customers whereas, the employed who are seeking additional income are not available all the time and do not have the commitments the freelancers have. Furthermore, there is social responsibility attached to hiring freelancers as this entails the distribution of

wealth and giving jobs to the unemployed. This is particularly relevant for organisations working in South Africa where the unemployment rate has reached 27%. The findings of the study reveal that the Unit management started bringing translators from other AU organs during the PAP sessions to assure quality; firstly, there is no empirical evidence that such a step will assure quality; secondly, from a social responsibility's perspective, this step means giving work to those who are already employed and preventing the unemployed from having work.

One of the main principles of adopting outsourcing as a method of work is to have a large number of freelancers in the database to make sure that at any time you have sufficient human resources to finish the project. Translation agencies have an aggressive procedure that can be adopted: when they have a new translation project, they send it simultaneously to as many freelancers as they can; the first freelancer who reports to the agency that he or she wishes to accept the project wins the commission. Therefore, the PAP should have in its database more translators than needed so as to make sure that it has enough freelancers at any time and the freelancer's database shall be updated regularly for the deletion and addition of names.

5.3.6.9 Standardizing translation tools and technologies

Recommending the use of certain translation tools and technologies contributes to quality and efficiency. Organisations may require their freelancers to use specific tools and technologies. Choosing a formal language variety is also important. The study reveals that the PAP unofficially adopts standard varieties for English, French, Spanish and Portuguese. The same thing should be done for Arabic. The Translation Manual and Style Guide can make an important contribution to standardising work.

5.3.6.10 Research and statistics

This is one of the Translation Manager's functions. He or she should maintain statistics about the work of the Unit. Empirical research can be conducted using such statistics to deal with the problems that arise and to improve performance.

5.3.6.11 PAP translation community

This suggestion is about encouraging the management, staff and freelancers of the Unit to socialize with each other and exchange ideas. It could be established through Facebook or a Twitter group for example.

5.4 Implementing the model

Implementation means “to carry out a directive” (Hoyle, 2007: 192). In this context, it means putting the model into practice by providing the necessary requirements, adopting the recommended processes, using the suggested terminology, and following the stated procedures. An organisation can benefit from a partial implementation of a model, but it will not achieve the full benefit of the model unless it implements the entire model because the parts of the model work together. In the PAT-TU Model, for example, the translation policy is a basic requirement without which many functions of the model such as the work process and organisational structure cannot function. In the following subsection, I deal with a number of aspects related to implementing this Model.

5.4.1 Implementation procedure

This model has been designed and developed to address the needs of the PAP-TU within the range of the available resources. For this reason, it does not suggest much spending other than adding one employee and some basic translation technologies many of which are available for free download. Here, it is important to mention that the staff that have been suggested are roles rather than positions. The Project Manager is the only new position that the model suggests and it is an administrative position not a technical one so that the cost of hiring a project manager will not be too high. This position is important for the work of the Model as he or she will act as the executive manager of the Unit. The model has three sections: basic requirements, processes and secondary requirements. The following paragraphs give a detailed procedure for implementing the model.

- i. Firstly, the decisions to be taken by the top management of the PAP are establishing and implementing a translation policy, adopting the suggested organisational structure and workflow, developing a quality management system and writing a draft for the legal agreement between the PAP and the freelancers.
- ii. Secondly, the resources to be provided by the top management are translation memories, terminology databases and a Project Manager.
- iii. Thirdly, the remaining requirements are not core to the work of the model. They can be developed by outsourcing or by the staff. These secondary requirements are risk management, source text analysis, translation briefs, continuous development procedure, TU Manual, TU Style Guide, educating stakeholders, freelancers database, research and statistics function and PAP translation community.

5.4.2 Implementation challenges

I anticipated some challenges for implementing this model. Among these challenges are the resistance to change because implementing the model means introducing extensive changes. Tyson (2015: 38) writes that change is the norm in an organisation's life-cycle and it can be seen as a threat as well as an opportunity. It is important to convince the staff to see the change as an opportunity and to make them accept and work with the change (Tyson, 2015: 38). Another challenge is the fact that the majority of the users of this system are not PAP staff and therefore convincing them to change their normal work habits presents an additional challenge. The remedy of these challenges is communication and participation; the PAP should engage the stakeholders from the beginning of the implementation process.

5.5 Evaluating the model

Implementation is not the last phase in a modelling process. There should be an evaluation for the performance of the model and making the necessary amendments. Evaluation is carried out to "see if the situation has improved" (Hatim, 2013: 203). In this phase the PAP management should not rely solely upon its evaluation, but should seek feedback from different stakeholders. Amendments should be carried out upon

receipt of feedback. Another aspect of post-implementation procedures is the continuous revision and development of the model. In order for the model to be up to date, it should undergo periodical revisions and development. The model uses quality standards and management theory and these areas of specialities regularly undergo revision and development.

5.6 The model and the future of the PAP

This model is designed with an eye on the future when the PAP implements a translation management solution such as Trados or when it becomes a legislative parliament. The processes of this model can easily be automated through a translation management solution or any other data management system because they are simple and clear processes that are designed without reliance on numerous human elements.

There are three sections of this model that are particularly important when the PAP starts legislating. These are risk management, source text analysis and a translation brief. In technical terms, adding legislation to the work of the Parliament means adding more text types that have special textual profiles and there is a certain level of risk attached to them.

Legislation is a subtype of legal language. Cao (2013: 415) defines legal language as the language of the law and legal processes; that is, the language of enforced law and non-enforced law. Cao (2013: 416) identifies two categories of legal translation: ‘normative legal translation’ which aims to produce equally authentic legal text in bilingual and multilingual languages and ‘informative legal translation’ which aims to merely produce information for the reader. The model can provide for all the aspects relating to legislative translation. New text types should undergo an analysis to identify their characteristics; upon such analysis, a textual profile, a translation brief and a risk level can be assigned to the text. Furthermore, the human resources Section 5.3.4.5 can be used to specify the competence profile of the PAP’s legislative translators. This may include further requirements such as training in legal translation, or experience in translating similar text types.

The benchmarking methods that have been used in developing this model can be used to address the challenges of non-European languages. Such challenges are evident from the empirical study when many of the participants referred to the special challenges that Arabic poses to the PAP-TU. In this regard, the PAP has to rely on the experience of other international institutions such as the UN and AU to develop Arabic terminology databases and translation memories. When the PAP adds another African language they can rely on the experience of the African national parliaments. As the PAP is expected to be a role model for the African parliaments, so does its Translation Unit. In this regard, many sections of the model such as research and statistics can be used as a basis for cooperation and knowledge transfer.

5.7 Does the model fulfil the PAP-TU needs?

The optimum model is the one that satisfies as far as possible the all stakeholders' needs. The main stakeholders of the PAP-TU have been identified (see 4.5.3) as the PAP management, MPs, staff and freelance translators. The findings of the PAP assessment study identified the stakeholders' needs as the following: the management wants quality and efficiency; the MPs want quality services; the translators want organized and enjoyable work, well-drafted source texts and sufficient time to finish the work. Therefore, any optimum model should reconcile these competing needs. This model does so by bringing the different stakeholders into the middle ground: the PAP management should invest more in the Unit and give it more autonomy; in return management receives quality translation, a developed unit, and an easy-to-manage translation workflow. On the other hand, the staff and freelancers in the Unit are asked to put in more effort and to undergo a substantial change and in return they will develop personally and professionally and will have better working conditions. Therefore, this model answers the question of this research – can adopting a model for quality management and best practice assure the quality of the service of the PAP-TU – positively by providing a model that address the PAP-TU concerns of quality, cost, management without adding too many resources. Figure 5.3 compares adopting the model scenario with the business as usual (BAU) scenario and indicates that in the implementation scenario the cost and the management difficulties will decrease and the quality will increase while in the BAU scenario things will stay still or deteriorate.

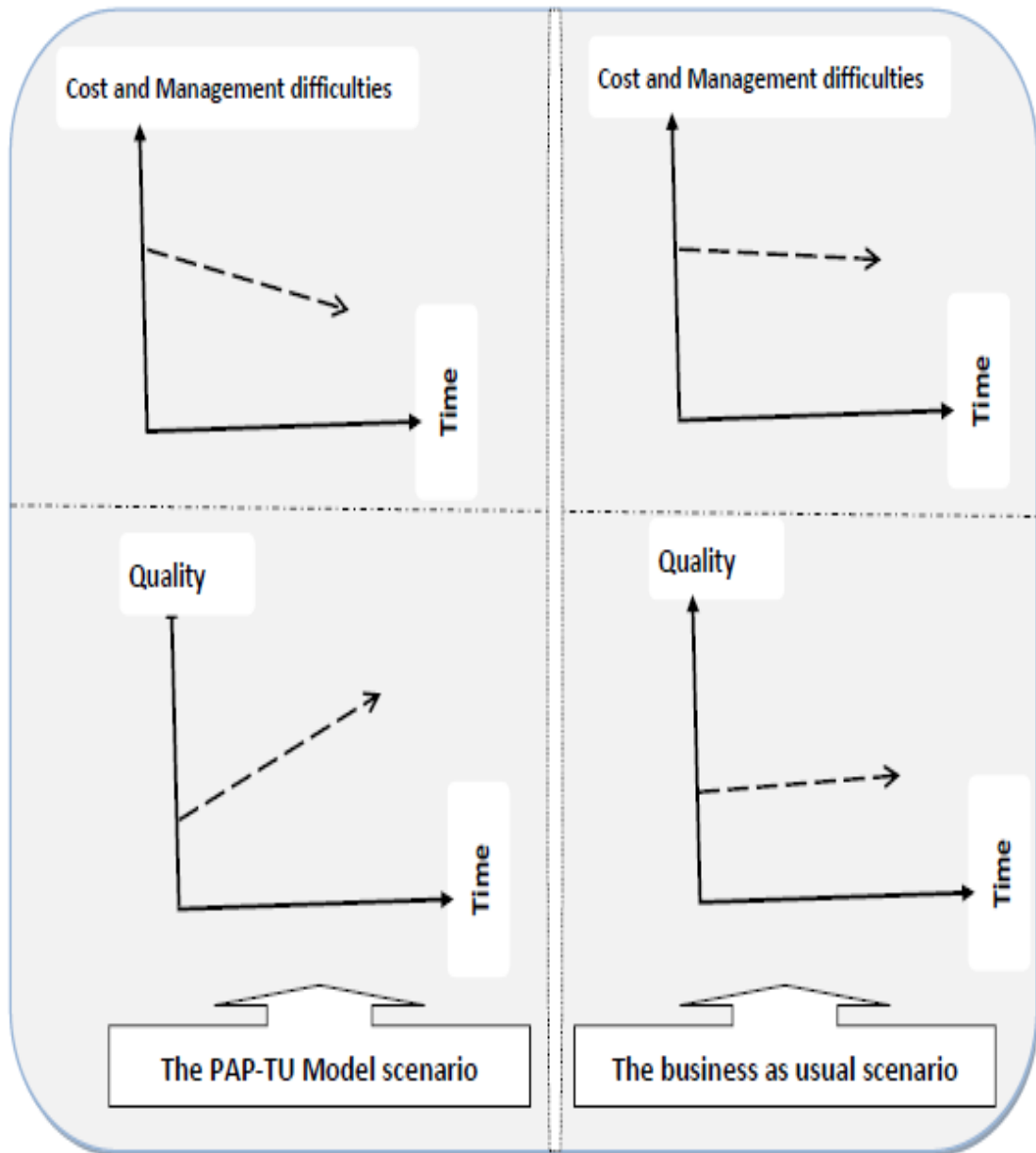


Figure 5.3: comparing the PAP-TU Model and the BAU scenarios

5.8 Conclusion

This Chapter built upon the previous chapters and created a quality model for the PAP-TU. Modelling research method is used to achieve this objective. The modelling process consists of four phases: designing, developing, implementing and evaluating the model. The model consists of three sections, namely basic requirements, work processes and

secondary requirements. The implementation and evaluation phases provided a procedure for conducting these phases. The main conclusion of the chapter is the fact that despite the financial constraint, there is room for improvement through investing a little more in the Unit and using the available resources more efficiently, and that this model is able to assure the quality of the PAP-TU services.

The next chapter is a concluding chapter of the research in which a summary of the main arguments of the study is presented, in addition to drawing some conclusions and making some recommendations.

Chapter 6: Conclusion of the research

The previous chapters gave the main arguments of this study. The first three chapters introduced the problem, contextualised it and proposed a plan for a solution. The following two chapters executed the plan and solved the problem. This chapter concludes the study by summarising the main findings, drawing some conclusions, and making some recommendations.

6.1 Summary of the main findings

This research project originated from two impulses: my personal interest in the field of translation quality and the suitable object of inquiry I found as a vehicle, namely the PAP-TU. The research is set out by formulating a research question and stating the research aim and objectives. The aim of the research was to find a holistic solution for the quality of the services of non-commercial translation organisations. Chapter One gave background to and rationale for the research and concluded by indicating a gap in the body of knowledge and stating that this research was intended to fill this gap.

In Chapter Two, the research problem was contextualised and the gap in the body of knowledge was highlighted. I also presented and justified the theories, models and concepts that act as the theoretical and conceptual orientation of the research. The main finding of Chapter Two is that each of the current approaches to translation quality has its shortcomings and that there is a need for a new holistic approach to translation quality. The chapter also proposed a new categorisation system for approaches to translation quality and used the new system for categorising the relevant literature and related studies.

I moved on to discuss the practical part of the study in Chapter Three. I first discussed some of the methodological choices I made, such as research philosophy, logic and typology, and then I presented and justified the research methods I used to achieve the objectives of the research. This chapter also included a detailed research design where I showed in a temporal manner the different phases of the research and the tools and methods that I would be using to achieve each one of them. Before concluding this

chapter, I discussed the research quality and showed the different measures that I used to assure the quality of the research.

Achieving the first objective of the research – assessing the current situation of the PAP-TU – was the focus of Chapter Four. Using a case study research method as a framework, this chapter collected, analysed and interpreted data about the PAP-TU. Interviews, group interviews, fieldwork and archival research were the main techniques for data collection. I used grounded theory to process and interpret the data. To compare the resources and processes of the PAP with those of similar organisations, I used benchmarking. The chapter concluded by showing that the PAP has many concerns relating to the cost, quality and management of its Translation Units and that the main reasons for these concerns are underfunding, poor source text quality, heavy workloads, short deadlines, understaffing and the lack of a permanent translation manager.

Chapter Five focused on achieving the second objective of the research – designing, developing, implementing and evaluating the PAP-TU Model. The main research method I used in this chapter is modelling, but I also benefited from a benchmarking research method in extracting and importing some of the best practices of other organisations. I used *ISO 17100:2015*, the findings of the PAP assessment study and other resources to build the model. The model consists of three sections, namely basic requirements, processes and secondary requirements. I do not implement the model in the real world, but I provided a detailed procedure for the implementation; I also anticipated some of the implementation problems and provided some solutions to them. In addition, I provided for evaluation of the model. This chapter concludes by saying that the PAP-TU Model is capable of assuring the quality of the TU services if implemented and that the Model is an optimum solution to the concerns and challenges of the Unit as it reconciles the different stakeholders' needs.

6.2 Conclusion

The previous section summarised the main findings of this study. This section will draw some conclusions from these findings. The main conclusion of this study is the fact that adopting a model of quality management and best practice can assure the quality of the services of the Translation Unit of the Pan African Parliament (PAP-TU). This

conclusion answers the research question: can adopting a model for quality management and best practice assure the quality of the service of the PAP-TU? The study also confirmed the assumptions put forward from the beginning that none of current approaches to translation quality is able to provide a total solution for the translation quality of non-commercial organisations and that there is a need for a holistic model that combines these approaches and fill the gaps they leave with the best practices of professional translators and successful translation organisations.

The new categorisation system for approaches to translation quality that was suggested in Chapter Two proved helpful when used to re-categorise the approaches. The production-based and the producer-based approaches to translation quality have emerged as important categories. The study also found that the production-based approaches to translation quality are under-researched. These two findings suggest that the approaches to translation quality that are developed in professional or industrial settings are not given as much attention in academic literature as the product-based approaches which are developed in academic circles.

The study found the distinction between literary and non-literary translation useful. Such a distinction frees non-literary translators from many of the constraints of literary translation such as the assumption that the text is autonomous. In pragmatic translation the commissioners own the texts and they can ask translators to transfer them into another language in the way that best serves their purposes. Distinguishing between literary and non-literary translation and adopting a functional approach to translation will lead to developing translation strategies and techniques for pragmatic translation where the focus is on the target culture's need.

The recent developments in translation industry such as the publication of ISO Translation Standard in 2015 will have important implications for translation studies. Such a development may necessitate the need for a new definition of translation and of the role of translators. The current definitions, with the exception of the functionalists' definition, view translation more or less as the transference of the ST into TT, but, as I came to learn during this study, the autonomy of the source text is not an important aspect, and translation comes to mean doing to the source text whatever the commissioner instructs the translator to do. In addition, in many settings, translation has

become a co-drafting: there is no source text per se, rather there are raw ideas and information out of which a translator should make a target text. Furthermore, in situations such as multilingual law-making, for example, the target text becomes a source text in its own right once it is translated. The role of a translator is also changed from a person who transfers the meaning of a text to a person who extracts terms from terminology databases and target texts from translation memories; a person who co-drafts and creates texts rather than merely transfer the meaning of texts. All these changes necessitate a re-definition of translation and the role of translators in bilingual or multilingual communication.

This study agrees with other studies that refer to the large gap between theory and practice in the field of translation. This is particularly evident in translation quality; for example, the models developed by House (1997) and Reiss (1979) require an encyclopaedic knowledge of translation and linguistics and a long time to assess a translation. Professional translators work under time pressure; they should translate around 375 words per hour and they are expected to revise translations in an even shorter time. Therefore, any model for translation quality assessment that does not take time constraints into consideration or the fact that translators are not necessarily fluent in translation and linguistic theories and jargon will not be useful in the market.

The institutions that have specific text types such as the PAP, EU or UN can exploit the techniques and theories of text linguistics to standardise their translations. The techniques of text linguistics can help in analysing source texts and providing textual profile for them; such textual profiles can be used in developing translation strategies and methods for assessing the quality of translation. Exploiting theories of text linguistics works quite well with adopting a functional perspective of translation theory.

6.3 Recommendations

The first section of this chapter summarised the main findings of the study and the second section draws some conclusions from these findings. This section shows the implications of these conclusions by recommending certain courses of action for both researchers and professions. Since the study has many implications, I group the recommendations under theoretical, methodological, practical and pedagogical recommendations.

Theoretically, more research is needed in the area of translation quality. There is an immediate need for research about *ISO 17100* and similar standards to introduce them to translation scholars and professions and to put them into their theoretical and empirical context. The authors of the standards publish them without background and context, and these could be supplied by the academic community. Another area that lacks sufficient research is freelancing as an important type of employment for translators. Studies reveal that 70% of translators work as freelancers. I did not even find a proper definition of what is a ‘freelancer’ nor a study about the economics of freelancing in the translation sector. In this regard, non-freelancers such as full-time or part-time employees compete unfairly with the freelancers. The environment within which freelancers work also needs research: freelancers work in isolation and usually under time pressure and this affects the quantity and quality of their work in addition to their personality and well-being.

Methodologically, I would recommend that other researchers in the field explore new research methodologies (I am using methodology in its larger sense). In addition to the frequently used case study method, I used action research, benchmarking and modelling methods in this study. Action research can be used as the main structure of a design wherein the researcher can investigate a problem, find a solution, implement the solution and evaluate the result of the implementations. I highly recommend using benchmarking research methods in theoretical and empirical studies because this method enables the researchers to evaluate an organisation’s practices against other organisations’ practices as well as transferring knowledge between organisations. For studies that attempt to solve a certain empirical problem, I recommend using modelling as a research method. This method gives researchers a framework for specifying a problem, suggesting a solution, collecting data to study the problem, developing a solution, implementing and evaluating the solutions.

Practically, different stakeholders in the translation industry should establish horizontal and vertical channels of communication. By the horizontal channels, I refer to similar institutions such as translation departments in universities. In this regard, the efforts of the European Commission to establish a common framework for the MA degree in translation studies in European Universities should be both welcomed and applied in other areas. By vertical channels of communication, I refer to communication between

different stakeholders such as universities, translation service providers, translation associations and translators. Such meetings would provide an excellent opportunity to exchange ideas and discuss concerns and to look at the development of the industry from different perspectives. I also recommend welcoming the latest development in the field such as the publication of translation quality standards because they give translation a professional status. Translation has not had such a status before, but now it has: now translation can be compared to well-established professions such as accounting and computer programming.

Pedagogically, translation has become an industry and consequently curricula for translator training should reflect this fact. Questions such as “For whom are our students going to translate?”, “What are the major text types in the market?” “What type of competence are employers looking for?”, “Who are the main buyers and employers in translation market?” should be considered in consultation with the different stakeholders in the industry before designing curricula. In other words, curricula should be developed after a thorough study of the current and future market’s needs and trends. In addition, translation curricula should attend to aspects such as project management, computer literacy, translation technology, freelancing and membership of translators’ associations; these topics are just as important as translation theory and practice in the market.

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Appendices

Appendix A: the freelancers interview questions

Experience and qualification

- Can you tell me about your qualification and experience as a translator?
.....

Translation process

- Can you describe to me the process you follow in translating from receiving a task until you deliver the translation to the PAP?
.....
- How do you handle quality control?
.....
- How do you cope with working under pressure and stress?
.....

Technical issues

- Do you think moving from a manual translation system to a computer-aided one will make things easy and contribute to quality and efficiency?
.....
- Do not you think standardizing the use of tools and technologies will contribute to quality and efficiency?
.....
- Can you describe to me the type of translation you do for PAP?
.....
- And what about the text type, what kind of texts do you translate for the PAP?
.....

Challenges, difficulties and concerns

- Are there any challenges that you face in your work?
.....
- If there are such challenges, what is your suggestion to overcome to them?
.....
- Are you satisfied with your work with the PAP?
.....

The system I am developing

- As the purpose of this research is to develop a quality management system for the Translation Unit of the PAP, do you have anything that you want the system to address?
.....
- What constitutes an optimum translation quality system from your point of view?
.....

End questions

- I there anything that you want to add?
.....

Thank you for your time and goodbye.