Quality And Efficiency

Factors in Translation

By

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In The Name of God Most Gracious Most Merciful

In dedication to:

My Mother and Father,

whose inspiration shines through every
page of this dissertation,

My son Samir,

whose patience and accompaniment has
been great comfort in times of distress.

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Abstract

Translation may be considered as an art that consists of the attempt to replace the written message/statement in one language by the same message/statement in another language.

> "The ultimate aim in translation is to transfer an idea from a source language into a target language with the form and content 'intact'." (Abdulbagi, 1981: p3)

In the contemporary world the volume of translation market is a modest but rapidly developing growth industry. The world translation market occupies approximately 175,000 persons full time, for a turnover of about $3,000 million. This market is significantly expanding. There exists moreover a latent, potential market of approximately 30% of the actual translation market which would appear if there was a decrease in prices and delivery times. In practice translators do not know how the actual process operates since there is no clear existing theory for them. (Van Dijk : 1983).

Translation may be defined as the replacement of material in one language (source language) by equivalent textual material in another language (target language). Translators therefore may come across the problem of equivalence. In spite of possibly being able to define equivalence, in practice this is not easily achieved. Practically, translators tend to perform with the expectation of being aware of what is happening in the actual process. Yet, this is not as easy as it may seem.

Problems and errors do occur sometimes in the translation process and it is therefore standard to judge translators on the basis of quality, efficiency and commercial success. Also, in education people are judged on the basis of quality and efficiency.

It is the objective of this research to carry out the following:

(a) Establish working definitions and terminology of translation, quality and efficiency.

(b) Propose a means of evaluating quality and efficiency in translation.

(c) Review the process used in the private sector as revealed by investigation.

(d) Consider whether the method in (b) is suitable in light of (c). If not, what changes must be made.

One of the by-products of this study will be to illustrate the benefits of practicability for appreciating quality control to interested parties (e.g. translators and interpreters in corporations, institutions or freelance) and to propose a model for the assessment of evaluation of the translation agency work.

This study will be performed by conducting a survey analysis to evaluate the quality and efficiency of the translation agencies in the private sector. This will be carried out in two countries,: Kuwait and the United Kingdom, where translation plays a vital role in everyday life. The survey will be conducted using 21 translation agencies in Kuwait out of a total of 42. As for those in the United Kingdom, the samples will be taken from all regions in the United Kingdom based on statistical random selection. The sample size will be roughly 20-25% of a total of 1009.

The results of this survey will thus enable the researcher to review the current practice in translation and to evaluate the issues affecting its quality and efficiency.

In conclusion, any changes required in the self-assessment of a Translation Agency will be suggested.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A.I.I.C.	:	International Association of Conference Interpreting
B.S.	:	British Standards
B.S.I.	:	British Standards Institution
I.T.T.	:	Institute of Translation and Interpreting
S.L.	:	Source Language
T.L.	:	Target Language
S.V.O.	:	Subject Verb Object
V.S.O.	:	Verb Subject Object
O.S.V.	:	Object Subect Verb
V.O.S.	:	Verb Object Subject
S.O.V.	:	Subject Object Verb
O.V.S.	:	Object Verb Subject

CHAPTER ONE

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

1.1 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Translation has been of great importance since the earliest ages of human civilisation. From as far back in time as ancient Egypt there is evidence that translation was used to overcome the 'language barrier':

"The first traces of translation date from 3000 BC, during the Egyptian Old Kingdom, in the area of First Cataract, Elephantine, where inscriptions in two languages have been found" (1).

However translation is not only a remedy for communications problems, it also has a more positive role. It is noteworthy that significant periods of translation preceded important developments in Western civilisation, as Newmark (1982) states:

"When the Moorish supremacy collapsed in Spain, the Toledo School of translators translated Arabic versions of Greek scientific and philosophical classics. Luther's Bible translation in 1522 laid the foundation of modern German and King James's Bible (1611) had a seminal influence on English language and literature" (2).

Though history suggests a link between translation activity and social or cultural development, this significance of translation has not been the subject of academic study nor received proper recognition until recently. Jumpelt (1961) has called the twentieth century the "age of translation" (3), responding to the fact that professional translation has now become an established feature of international relations.

Throughout this century, developing technology has promoted the need for communication of information between peoples with widely differing languages and cultures. The demand for translation has therefore increased considerably. UNESCO, which up until 1970 published the journal Index Translation, recorded a 4.5 fold increase in the number of translated publications since 1948(4). Another UNESCO study (1977) estimated that approximately two million scientific articles, technical reports, patents and books were translated annually (5). Of course, UNESCO itself is an example of the increased international communication which has arisen in this century in the face of technological developments (especially military technology and the political initiatives which this technology has made necessary, the existence of the United Nations Organisation being due in part to the threat posed by nuclear armament and the Cold War).

Contemporary demand for translation is greater than ever, making professional translation a small-scale but rapidly growing industry. Evidence of this growth of the translation industry is provided by the following developments:

(a) Creation of services staffed by several hundreds of translators in international organisations (e.g., the United Nations and the European Community) and national organisations (e.g., in Germany and Canada).

(b) Growth in the number of small and medium sized translation services in public administration and private undertakings.

(c) The relatively recent creation of the first translators' and interpreters' schools.

(d) The establishment of national and international systems of information.

(e) The similarly recent creation of national translators' and interpreters' associations and international federations. (6)

It has been estimated (Van Dijk, 1983) that the world written translation market, "Is around 150 million pages per annum and probably occupies 175,000 persons full time, for a turn over of about $3,000 million. This market is expanding by 9% - 10% per annum with a potential of about a 30% increase if there was a fall in prices" (7).

In face of this demand, which is mainly from large, multinational companies, there has been a drive since the second World War to use technology to resolve some of the problems of translation production costs. One of the features of the modern translation industry therefore, is the competition between human and machine aided translation.

Associated with the rise in demand for translation and the development of new translation technologies is a rise in academic interest in translation. Theorists have addressed the issues of translation as an historical force, of translation as an economic force and of translation as a specialist field of linguistics.

1.2 OBJECTIVES OF THIS STUDY

In this "age of translation" the economic and socio-political importance of professional translation cannot be over-estimated.But, while it is true that translation services are in daily use throughout the globe, regrettably it is not the case that translation practice is always of the highest standard. The central problem for this 'Age' is therefore to overcome the limitations of quality and to increase the supply of reliable translation services to the existing market, and even more importantly, to the potential market which waits to be developed (by as much as 30%, according to Van Dijk).

Others have already addressed this problem: the multi-national companies have financed the development of technology in order to meet the need for higher quality and productivity; academics have also addressed these issues producing theoretical texts and surveys designed to analyse the process of translation and thus to identify its failings and so suggest the ways in which translation practice can be improved.

However no-one has addressed this issue from the point of view of the medium-scale translation agency, or individual professional translator. This dissertation is based on a survey of such translation agencies and translators in both the U.K. and Kuwait. It thus provides a new perspective on these problems.

Analysing the process of translation in order to find its limitations, and to find the means of overcoming these limitations from this new perspective raises new and critical insights into this field. In the first place, while theorists have identified the basic problem in translation as the search for 'equivalence' and have proposed methods for overcoming this problem they have done so without a sufficient appreciation of the practical application of these theories. There is a break-down in communication between theory and practice which makes much of the theoretical work irrelevant or less helpful than it might be to the professional translator.

As Bassnett-McGuire has suggested,

> "There is a need for studying the problems encountered during the actual translation process and it is essential for those working in the field to bring their practical experience to theoretical discussion" (8).

In this she is supported by Kandler (1963) (9) and Gorjan (1963) (10).

It is the intention of this dissertation to bring together theoretical and practical insights into the process of translation and to use these insights to define a process which is more efficient and generates translation products of high quality. In doing this it will become apparent that there are consequences for the academic world in this study, because the intellectual skills which are utilised in this process are discovered to be unique to the profession.

Since it is pointless to describe a new method for quality control in translation without making provision for the training of professional translators in quality control methods, this dissertation will describe the training which is necessary thus describing the new educational field of 'practical translation studies'.

Too often in the past models and methods have been applied to professional translation which are inadequate and irrelevant. For example, in the definition of quality control, models have been adopted from manufacturing industry or from education and applied to translation. This has been done quite uncritically, simply on the assumption that there is a parallel between industry or education and translation.

This study will give a critique of such models and show how they can be modified to give a relevant and reliable definition of the process of quality control in translation.

The second major line of criticism in this thesis addresses the problem of inadequate quality control practices in commercial translation agencies. The attempt to resolve the problems of translation efficiency by a large-scale investment in translation technology, which has been the response of large businesses, has failed to supply high quality at low cost. The move towards automation (a development which has served other industries well) is revealed as an error of judgment when tested from the professional translator's point of view.

Just as with academic ideas about translation, where false analogies were drawn between translation and education etc., so here multi-national companies have failed to appreciate the nature of the translation process and thus to devise company strategies which are economically efficient. The technology gives only a limited return for the capital investment, it will be argued that investment in professionalism (quality control, efficiency, specialised training) would ensure a better return.

The purpose of this dissertation is to describe the professionalism which is essential to high quality and to economic efficiency. Thus it will argue that the great potential market for translation can only be tapped through increased professionalism. A critical issue for this research will be to prove that professionalism and high quality production are commercially advantageous, contrary to the commonly held view that professionalism is an unaffordable luxury in a service industry.

Thus by using the results of an empirical study in Britain and Kuwait to give objective weight to the assertions of this dissertation in its critiques of academic ideas and of certain professional practices in the translation industry, we shall:

(a) define the process of translation as it occurs in practice

(b) define appropriate methods of quality and efficiency control using proper analogies with other professions and industries, and assigning the correct status to translation technologies in pursuit of quality and efficiency

(c) describe the new field of practical translation studies, and the training of professional translators in their unique professional skills

(d) show how this quality control, efficiency and professional training increases commercial viability.

1.3 THE NEED FOR AN ANALYTICAL EMPIRICAL STUDY

Bureau Marcel Van Dijk Brussels conducted a broad survey of translation agencies in 1983. The survey was based on the responses to a questionnaire sent to agencies in a large number of European countries. The main value of this survey lay in the fact that it provided statistical analyses which defined the size of the translation market. Its broad scope was its limitation since it dealt with issues in a general rather than detailed fashion.

One of its omissions was the issue of quality control in a translation agency; insufficient data was collected on the subject of the errors and problems which affected quality. This oversight seems to reflect the conditions which are found in the agencies themselves i.e. they do not take systematic note of errors, problems etc. or implement systematic quality controls. In light of this it is virtually impossible to determine how efficient a given agency is, or to determine what factors are important in determining efficiency.

The results of a later survey, commissioned by ITI, were published in 1987. The main concern of this survey was to discover the rates charged by freelance translators and interpreters in order to compare the income levels of professional translators with that of other graduate employees. The survey sampled income levels for translators and interpreters working in Great Britain and abroad. It concluded that staff translators in Great Britain were relatively poorly paid in comparison with other graduates in Great Britain. The ITI survey did not address questions of quality control and efficiency specifically however it did report that staff translation posts attracted people with very high academic abilities and that translators were usually highly qualified. Unfortunately, this information offers no assistance in resolving the problem of the relationship between quality and efficiency (11).

The failure of these two surveys reveals a 'catch 22' situation where there is no data on quality control, and because there is no data it is difficult to know what data would be needed in order to measure quality control. In this context it is evident that some starting point must be set, that there has to be an attempt to collect empirical data however difficult or limited such a survey may be. For example, any survey by questionnaire is only as good as its questions, and the questions are only as good as the information they succeed in eliciting.

While having in mind these unavoidable difficulties and the in-built limitations of the method, a new survey was initiated which also used a questionnaire to collect information for this dissertation. This survey was the first of its kind in that it was initiated from the commercial and professional side of translation and thus reflects the interests and insights of this experience and in that it was the first survey of translation agencies ever undertaken in Kuwait.

Since the information gathered was supplied by translation agencies in two very different contexts (of language and of culture: English and Arabic) it was hoped that this survey would be of sufficiently wide scope to be relevant to the broad issues of translation practice.

The conclusions of this survey are based on a sample of translation agencies, twenty-six out of a potential forty-two in Kuwait and a statistically random sample of 20-25% of a total of 1009 agencies in the U.K.

On the basis of the survey information this dissertation will:

(a) provide an overview of contemporary professional practice in translation in Britain and Kuwait which is of interest in its own right

(b) support the various assertions of the thesis as described above (Section 1.2).

1.4 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

Following this brief introduction, there will be five chapters:

Chapter Two gives definitions of terminology: translation, equivalence and meaning. In this chapter the process of translation will be described and analysed, relating theory and practice in this description/analysis and thus giving an initial definition of the educational field of 'practical translation studies'. On the basis of this discussion of the translation process, models of quality control derived from education and manufacturing industry will be critically evaluated. The role of machine translation in pursuit of quality and efficiency in translation will be examined. Finally 'practical translation studies', quality control, efficiency and translation technology will be related to the future of professional translation.

Chapter Three will describe the process of quality control and efficiency assessment which this dissertation identifies as the most effective. It will do this by a critical review of the problems of 'equivalence'. Academic study has identified these problems but as yet has not developed sufficiently practical methods to overcome these problems (however research seems to be moving towards this field, as academics reorientate their work to meet critiques of theory made from the practical perspective (12)). Existing professional practice is unsystematic in its treatment of 'equivalence' and quality control. In contrast this chapter will show how the problems of 'equivalence' can be overcome by a systematic application of specialist knowledge through the exercise of unique professional reading/writing/translation skills. This system not only ensures high product quality but, by a feedback mechanism, endorses good professional practices and thus trains the translator. Since professional practice is related to quality control it is also related to the commercial viability of translation. The chapter will therefore conclude with a discussion of the relationship between professionalism and the translation market.

Chapter Four will review contemporary practice in British and Kuwaiti translation agencies on the basis of the research survey results. In this chapter the methodological issues raised by the study and its application to this thesis will be discussed.

Chapter Five will use the results of the survey to make a critical comparison between translation theory and translation practice. This pragmatic evaluation of existing theory and practice will be the empirical basis for the conclusion that'practical translation studies' (which will occupy the common intellectual ground of 'theory' and 'practice', artificially divided in traditional academic and commercial life) are the best basis for ensuring high quality and efficiency in translation practice.

Chapter Six will bring together all the issues and arguments raised in the earlier chapters and finally present them in summary together with an account of (a) the areas of further study which this dissertation has opened-out and (b) the list of practical consequences for professional translation, quality control and training for which this thesis is the formal preparation.

NOTES

CHAPTER ONE

1 NEWMARK (1982) p3

2 NEWMARK (1982) p3

3 JUMPELT (1961)

4 as quoted by NEWMARK (1982) p3

5 PINCHUCK (1977) p16

6 AIIC (1979) p11

7 VAN DIJK (1983) p.v

8 BASSNETT-MCGUIRE (1991) p10

9 KANDLER (1963) p295

10 GORJAN (1963) p255

11 GARDAM May 1987 p151

12 HATIM & MASON (1990) passim.

CHAPTER TWO

CHAPTER TWO DEFINITION OF TERMS AND RELATED TERMINOLOGY

Until there is a universal spoken language utilised for all the world's documents and significant research the demand for translation will endure. Taking the sustained and increasing importance of translation as axiomatic, the present chapter will commence with the definition of translation and related terminology. This will involve a general review and critique of both theoretical and unreflective assumptions about translation, testing these against the insights derived from professional practice.

Moving on from definitions, a discussion of the relationship between theory and practice in translation will follow. This in turn will lead into a definition of the problem of quality control and efficiency in professional translation which will include a critique of models of quality control and productivity derived from industrial processes.

The chapter will conclude with a discussion of new technology and its impact on translation practices, comparing human and Machine (Aided) Translation against the standards of quality control and efficiency defined previously in the chapter. This leads into a discussion of the future of translation, and a definition of the training and practice which will be needed in this challenging context (issues which will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter Three).

2.1 DEFINITION OF TRANSLATION

The art of translation is not a recently discovered activity (as stated earlier in Chapter One). What is recent is its considerable development, which has been particularly marked since the middle of the twentieth century. The International Association of Interpreters, a product of this development, proposed the following definition of interpretation (i.e. oral translation):

"To interpret is not simply to translate a speech word for word: it is to transpose it with its entire semantic, aesthetic, and emotional baggage into a language using completely different means of expression. To interpret is initially to comprehend perfectly the message so as to be able to detach it from its verbal support and to reconstitute it subsequently with all its nuances in another language" (1).

In its demand for the 'entire' transposition of semantic, aesthetic, and emotional baggage and for 'perfect' comprehension this is less a definition of actual practice than a statement of aspirations. This 'ideal' does not reflect the practical realities of the translation process. Since it is the object of this dissertation to consider 'translation' from the perspective of the professional translator such a definition of an 'unattainable ideal' is unacceptable.

Despite a great number of differences between languages regarding their linguistic structures and cultural features effective inter-lingual communication can be achieved. But on occasion unprofessional practice may result in loss of meaning in translation. Overtranslation (increased details) and/or undertranslation (increased generalisation), due to different factors present in the translation process (of which more below), are probably the basic causes of meaning loss. In discounting these problematic areas in translation the International Association of Interpreters' definition becomes irrelevant to the issue; it is less a definition of what translation is than what it should be. But even as a 'goal' this definition is persuasive, since it deflects attention from the context of professional translation where the 'goals' (e.g., high quality) must also be defined in terms of what can be achieved under the constraints of business efficiency.

Brislin (1976) proposed a different definition of translation:

"Translation is a term referring to the transfer of thoughts and ideas from one language (source) to another (target), whether the languages are in written or oral form. Interpretation is a type of translation that refers to oral communication situations in which the person speaks in the source language, an interpreter processes this input and produces the output in second language, and a third person listens to the source language version". (2)

Briefly, translation is the neutral term used for all tasks where the meaning of expressions in one language (source language) is reproduced in another (target language) whether the medium is spoken, written or signed (as with sign language for the deaf). This definition suggests that translation is the transfer of thoughts and ideas from one language to another.

These inadequate attempts at defining translation confirm what in this context is the rather rueful assertion of Richards (1953) that translation, "is probably the most complex type of event yet produced in the evolution of the cosmos" (3).

Newmark (1981) offers the most useful definition of translation as a craft that consists in the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language with the same message and/or statement in another language. Translation, the professional activity of translators, is one of the areas studied by linguists. Many translators agree with Newmark that translation may be essentially a semantic affair. Therefore it might be argued that a translated sentence in the target language is the same sentence (as a semantic unit) in the source language, both having similar meaning. Accordingly, the translator identifies the semantic structure of sentences in the source language and constructs equivalent sentences using the semantic devices of the target language. Thus semantic theory, which takes into account environmental and cultural factors, provides a definition and theory of translation.

Bearing in mind Newmark's definition, Large (1983) raises a related issue. He defines translation as:

> "The replacement of textual material in one language, the source language, by equivalent material in a second language. The keystone of this definition is the word 'equivalent', and it is around the meaning of equivalence that battle is waged in the somewhat neglected sphere of translation theory".(4)

This echoes Nida (1969) who defines translation as the process of, "reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the message of the source language" (5).

An even earlier version of this definition is offered by Catford (1965) who defines translation as, "the replacement of textual material in one language (source language) by equivalent textual material in another language (target language)" (6).

There are thus two aspects to the definition of the term 'translation'. The 'traditional' definition gives translation as the process of replacement of a text written in a source language by a text written in a target language, the objective being a maximum equivalence of meaning. The 'modern' definition gives translation as the process of replacing a message expressed in a source language with a message expressed in a target language with the emphasis on the equivalence of content.

In conclusion, translation may be defined as the replacement of textual material in one language (source language) by equivalent textual material in another language (target language). It is this definition which will be used in the present work. Clearly 'equivalence' is the key issue.

2.1.1 DEFINITION OF EQUIVALENCE

The translation process involves a decisive choice in the replacement of a word or phrase in the source language with a word or phrase in the target language. This choice is made all the more difficult by the fact that there may be no obvious equivalent in the target language (especially when translating metaphors or idioms) or there may be numerous potential choices distinguished from each other only by the subtlest nuances of meaning.

These practical difficulties are reflected in the complex problems of defining 'equivalence'. Not only is it difficult in practice to find an 'equivalent term', it is also difficult in theory to state precisely what is being sought by 'equivalence'.

The linguist Popovic, who set out the basis of a methodology for studying translation, maintained that the process of translation centres on understanding 'equivalence' and distinguished four 'levels' at which equivalence may be said to operate:

(a) Linguistic Equivalence, where there is homogeneity on the linguistic level of both the second language and the target language texts, i.e. word for word translation.

(b) Pragmatic Equivalence, where there is equivalence of the elements of a paradigmatic expressive axis, i.e. elements of grammar, which Popovic sees as being a higher category than lexical equivalence.

(c) Stylistic (transitional) Equivalence, where there is functional equivalence of elements in both the original and translated texts aiming at an expressive identity with an invariant of identical meaning.

(d) Textual (syntagmatic) Equivalence, where there is equivalence of the syntagmatic structuring of a text, i.e. equivalence of form and shape. (7)

From the perspective of professional practice these formal definitions of types of equivalence are open to criticism. With respect to 'Linguistic Equivalence', the precision of scientific and technical language leads one to doubt whether an equivalent term would always be available in the target language. For example, this may be due to the fact that in certain rapidly developing fields new terminology is appearing in some languages before others.

In the case of 'Stylistic' and 'Textual Equivalence', it is in practice impossible to give an exact equivalence. No translator can provide a translation which is an exact parallel image of the source text because of differences in linguistic devices such as rhythm, sound symbolism, puns and cultural allusions. Such an end product is not even possible when paraphrasing within a single language since there are no two identical perceptions amongst human beings, not even amongst members of the same culture or community.

One must take into account the fact that the words of any specific language do not necessarily have a one-to-one correspondence to the words of another language. An equivalent word in a foreign language is not always used in the same situations, nor does it necessarily cover the same semantic areas as the corresponding word in one's native language.

Perfect equivalence is a myth, and not a sensible aim for a translator. Equivalence is a composite of various factors. In any one language there may be several types of inexact equivalence, any of which can be successful at a certain level of practical functioning i.e. depending on the purposes of the translation.

The terms 'best translation' and 'perfect translation' are therefore totally misleading. The success of a translation may be determined by the purpose for which it is attempted. Such purposes reflect the needs of the individuals for whom the translation is produced. A rapidly drafted translation of a letter can be adequate to inform a firm of the nature of an enquiry. On the other hand, a translation of a scientific document would require precise word by word concentration while literary work would require consideration of form as well as content. We shall return to a fuller treatment of the problems associated with 'equivalence' in Chapter Three.

2.1.2 DEFINITION OF MEANING

Authors are agreed that meaning and style in translation are of paramount importance. Style is generally considered to be secondary to meaning though it is also significant for fully efficient translation. Meaning must be given priority as it is the content of the message or the image evoked by the message in the mind of the listener or reader. Translation of meaning requires that the translator reproduce the correct image in the mind of the recipient.

Newmark 1983 (8) distinguishes between several categories of 'meaning' which are related to different aspects of the mental processes of memory:

(a) Cognitive Meaning: This type of meaning refers to the direct, specific understanding of a word within its context. This understanding is analogous to that which applies in viewing (recognising, understanding) a photograph or diagram.

(b) Communicative Meaning: This type of meaning is illustrated by the following example: the Arabic phrase, 'anta tadri' ('you know') would, as in English, be considered an empty (phatic) utterance. It is used to show that the speaker is asking for agreement, and offers the listener the opportunity to demonstrate by their response that they are (or are not) still attentive and involved in the exchange. The 'meaning' of the phrase is bound up with the relationship between the communicators.

(c) Associatative Meaning: This is established in a series of collocations. The 'meaning' of a word in this category is its ability to prompt the recall of an associated mental pattern.

This last category of meaning is similar to that described by Seleskovitch (9). For this author, such 'meaning' is only indirectly related to sensory perception. In the mental processes of memory it corresponds to the process which provides the ability to remember terms (through acquisition, storage, retrieval) by understanding them. Thus, for example, the term 'engine' is remembered by being understood as relating to automobiles, aeroplanes, trains etc. Its 'meaning' reflects the understanding, thus 'engine' means something to do with automobiles, aeroplanes, trains etc.

From a purely practical standpoint these theoretical categories of meaning have limited usefulness. The translator cannot rely on them when faced with translation of such terms as e.g., 'the Bill' which may signify, 'the police'. Unless one already knows that the phrase has this meaning there is no way that one could discover it simply by using the theoretical categories of meaning: clearly 'Cognitive', 'Communicative', 'Associative' meanings have limited relevance to this example.

With regard to all theorising about 'meaning': it is crucial to note that in any kind of semantics, whether verbal or written, three major aspects to interpretation must be taken into account: the speaker/writer relationship; the significations of words; the possible interpretation of sentences (10). Each of these aspects has potential for ambiguity making it difficult to reproduce meaning in a target language; the meaning or image intended by the author is not necessarily the same as the image suggested by individual words or sentences. Furthermore the association of mental images and linguistic images is a matter of experience: the translator must compensate for the fact that the source and target languages (cultures and people) do not necessarily have the same underlying experience and therefore cannot readily share the same mental imagery. Thus, the translation act involves creation and invention on the basis of experience in bilingual communication and this implies a significant role for the exercise of human judgement in translation.

In face of these practical problems and the limitations of existing theory a compromise is necessary. The most useful of Newmark's categories of meaning is 'Cognitive Meaning'. Goshawk & Kelly (11) define several sub-varieties within this category:

(a) <u>Linguistic Meaning</u>: An example illustrates this type 'Nixon tampered with the tapes', has the linguistic meaning that a person called by the proper noun, 'Nixon' modified certain tapes without authorisation.

(b) <u>Referential Meaning</u>: Taking the above example, 'Nixon tampered with the tapes', gives the referential meaning, the ex-President of the United States, Nixon, was involved in the Watergate Scandal.

(c) <u>Contextual Meaning</u>: This may be defined as the 'actual determined meaning' i.e. the intention of the speaker or author. Determining the intention of the speaker/author can only arise through a thorough knowledge and understanding of the context. Using the same example, only someone familiar with the history, politics, ideology etc of the United States and of the individuals concerned can determine the contextual meaning of e.g. a Senator's statement, 'Nixon tampered with the tapes'.

In conclusion, meaning signifies the conceptual component communicated through context. Thus words, phrases, sentences detached from context or treated in isolation cannot be usefully translated. By the same token, it is absolutely unacceptable for lengthier texts or statements to be treated as strings of individual words for a one-to-one, word-for-word translation. The translation of a text (or speech) must always refer the word, sentence, or any sub-division to its greater context since only this contextualisation gives meaning.

The translation of texts is not arbitrary; consideration of context is part of the process of understanding how the text was constructed and therefore potentially of recovering the original intentions or 'actual intended meaning' of the author. A translation focused on meaning seeks to identify the truth signified by the context of the original source and to represent this truth in the different context of the target. It is an active and deliberative process on the part of the translator, instigated by respect for the original author and for truth and fulfilled by the production of a translated text which has the same meaning and creates the same effect upon a new audience in a new context as was created by the original in its context.

Hatim & Mason (1990) point towards identifying and imitating the 'actual intended meaning' or authorial intention as the crux of the translation process,

> "The resulting translated text is to be seen as evidence of a transaction, a means of retracing the pathways of the translator's decision-making procedures. In the same way, the Source Text itself is an end-product and again should be treated as evidence of the writer's intended meaning rather than as the embodiment of the meaning itself". (12)

2.2 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THEORY AND PRACTICE

In many professional fields scholars have been concerned to link theory with practice, a relevant example of this being the work of the linguist Michael Halliday whose contribution to linguistics is extensive. His major interest lies in building bridges between linguistic theory and professional practice. Unfortunately many professional practitioners, such as educators and translators, show no concern for linguistic theory. Similarly many linguists may have no interest in practice. In the field of translation the division between theory and practice is all too evident.

One must reject the common assumption that the knowledge of two languages is itself an adequate qualification for a 'competent translator'. This assumption implies that translators are not required to have specialised training. It also implies that translation is an instinctive procedure which requires no theoretical understanding. But, on the other hand, theorists cannot merely assert that theoretical analysis and understanding are essential preparation for translation. Theoreticians have to acknowledge that there are translators, without formal training or interest in theory, who have produced excellent translated texts. Therefore a proper balance between theory and practical skills are required.

It is important to recognise that there is a distinction between the two kinds of knowledge: one is practised in a spontaneous manner while the other is analytical, fundamentally calculated and deliberate. One example which illustrates this difference is provided by the contrast between an electrician's practical knowledge and the theoretical knowledge of an electrical engineer. There is an analogy in this to the contrast between the 'spontaneous translator's' practical comprehension of language and the linguist's theoretical and analytical knowledge.

Authors on the subject of translation reveal different views about the relationship between theory and practice. For instance, Nida and Taber (1969) have produced several texts aimed specifically at translators. These texts have attempted to provide translators with specialist techniques, methods and procedures. However the authors offer no sufficient argument that demonstrates the relevance of their techniques etc to the practice of translation, the authors apparently assuming their advice is relevant (even when the advice is relevent it is not up-dated). Implicit in this is the presupposition that progress comes through academic theorising and not through the development of professional skills.

The gap between theory and practice illustrated by the above example must be eliminated. A closer link between theory and practice can only be brought about by respecting the contribution of both academics and professionals. When redefining the relationship between theory and practice it is essential to respect the principle that one should begin by observing and analysing the practical problems experienced by translators then develop theory accordingly.

Newmark, in contrast to Nida and Taber, emphasises translation issues and techniques which are basically practical. He therefore tackles the fundamental issues of translation theory and relates theory to practical skills. Newmark believes that 'translation theory' can neither be considered a theory nor a science, it is a body of knowledge accumulated over the years on a pragmatic basis in a persistent effort to facilitate translation.

> "In fact translation theory is neither a theory nor a science, but a body of knowledge that we have and have still to have about the process of translating". (13)

Newmark's 'body of knowledge' illustrates the balance of practical and theoretical knowledge necessary for truly successful translation.

Bassnett-McGuire (1991) describes the purpose of translation theory thus:

> "The purpose of translation theory, then, is to reach an understanding of the process undertaken in the act of translation and not, as is so commonly misunderstood, to provide a set of instructions for effecting the perfect translation .... Theory and practice are indissolubly linked and are not in conflict". (14)

This statement clearly sets out the principle: that theory follows practice, it does not impose its rules or 'set of instructions' on practice. Bassnett-McGuire implicitly recognises the role of both the experiential knowledge of the translator (the 'know-how' which enables him to produce a 'good' translation) and the more theoretical knowledge of the academic (whose analysis and understanding of the experiential process is crucial to recognising what makes a 'good' translation and therefore to facilitating quality control).

In summary, translation is not a simple activity and should never be regarded as either a totally spontaneous or a mechanical activity. Translation is a diversified professional activity with its own unique rationale. The spectrum of activities in translation ranges from intuitive (possibly oral) translation in informal situations to deliberative, precise translation of complex written texts in more formal, theory-guided situations. One should note that a perfectly fluent grasp of spoken language does not guarantee equal ability to write in that language. Therefore the bi-linguist with speaking knowledge of two languages is not necessarily automatically qualified to translate between the two written languages. Thus spoken fluency alone is insufficient qualification for translation competence: knowledge of the written langauge and of theory is just as essential.

Effectively theory is the analysis of translation processes whereas professional practice is the application of theory in translation processes. The practitioner has a professional responsibility to respond to theory, while the theoretician is equally obliged to respond to problematic areas in practice. As Yallop (1987) state:

> "A legitimate distinction between a translator's practical knowledge and a linguist's theoretical knowledge is no barrier to respectful interaction and discussion between translators and linguists. Nor does it prevent an individual human being from following Halliday's example and taking interest in both kinds of knowledge". (15)

One can go further than this and claim that it is possible to legitimately define a new educational field of 'practical translation studies'. As the name suggests this addresses practical issues yet through a certain degree of systemic thinking. In such a field translators would be qualified both through academic study and by the acquired experience of an apprenticeship and professional activity. It is one of the aims of this dissertation to propose and defend just such a departure from the usual separation of professional and academic activities.

The primary objective of this new field would be to increase the quality of translation produced by professionals (and to turn theoretical thinking to this end). However, before going on to consider the definition of quality control and the issue of what criteria to use to measure success in professionalism in more detail it is appropriate to first review the different methods and types of translation which are in common use.

2.3 TRANSLATION METHODS

The specific translation method used by a professional translator tends to be chosen according to various criteria (usually including reference to the purpose of the translation on one hand, and the economics of translation production on the other). These different criteria define different types of translation. These translation types can be further categorised under one of two specialist translation headings: literary and scientific.

The typologies of the professional translator and the typologies defined by theoreticians are not entirely congruent. The theoretical types are abstract but the professional typology is more pragmatic. Professional translators can make use of theoretical typologies only by subjecting them to a critique which divorces the types from their formal context. Implicit in this exercise is a criticism of theorising which we here intend to make more explicit thus bringing together theory and practice and illustrating the range of 'practical translation studies'.

The next three sections of this chapter will deal with translation method, translation types and specialist translation in turn, building up a picture of the integration of theory and practice before moving on to discuss quality control and efficiency in professional translation. This will indicate the context within which this quality control and efficiency are to be achieved: the emphasis, as always, is upon a pragmatic and realistic understanding of translation in its professional aspects.

According to Nida & Taber (1974) and Newmark (1982) the concepts of 'communication' and 'semantic translation' which they distinguish from one another are related to the general theory of translation. Their concepts were formed in opposition to the monistic view which assumes translation is basically a means of communication or a mode of addressing one or more persons. Translation, like language, is a deeply social phenomenon. Newmark asserts that "translation rests on at least three dichotomies: the foreign and native cultures, the two languages, the writer and the translator respectively". (16)

The age that we live in is the age of productivity, of the media, of mass communication. Thus translation is, to some degree, both communicative and semantic, social and individual. The only matter that differs is the emphasis.

Newmark states that the basic aim of communicative translation is to produce the same specific effect on the reader of the translation as was achieved by the original. Semantic translation, on the other hand, is closer to the formal process of creating semantic and syntactic structures in the second language which correspond as closely as possible to the exact meaning of words in the context of the original.

According to translation theory here is a great difference between communicative and semantic translation. Communicative translation presents itself to the reader as a text without ambiguities or difficulties. Such a text provides the reader with an abundant transfer of foreign elements into his native culture and language. Basically, a communicative translation tends to be more fluent, simple, distinct, direct, conventional and conforming to a particular register of language.

Semantic translation tends to be more complex, detailed, intensive, prolonged and emphasises the processes of thought rather than the intention of the transmitter. As far as the semantic and syntactic structures of the target language will allow, the aim of the semantic translation is to render the exact device which is applicable to the context and to the semantic devices built into the original.

A further distinction may be made between semantic and literal translation. Semantic and literal translation differ basically in the fact that the former emphasises context whereas the latter does not. In semantic translation the translator's paramount consideration is the author of the original text. In literal translation the translator must adhere to the norms of the source language.

Newmark makes the pertinent observation that a semantic translation is always inferior to its original since it involves loss of meaning but communicative translation may be considered more successful since it may gain in clarity what it loses in semantic content. In communicative translation the translator may attempt through his lexical choice to provide a translated text that is more effective than the original. In communicative translation the translator has the choice of:

(1) correcting or improving the logic

(2) replacing unsuitable words with others

(3) clarifying obscurities

(4) eliminating repetition and excluding the less likely interpretations of an ambiguity

(5) modifying and clarifying jargon and rectifying wayward uses of language.

Furthermore, the translator is free to correct any mistakes in matters of fact or verbal slips (usually indicating these corrections in a footnote). By contrast corrections and improvements are very probably inadmissible in semantic translation.

In summary, Newmark distinguishes the following methods (the first two of these being the most usual in practice they have been discussed in detail above):

(a) Communicative Translation: This seeks to achieve the same effect on the readers of the source and target languages. Its quality can sometimes be better than that of the original.

(b) Semantic Translation: This seeks to maintain the exact meaning of the original. It follows the syntax and vocabulary of the source to the point that they slightly distort without violating the standards of the target language.

(c) Formal Translation: This gives priority to reproducing the form of the source text.

(d) Interlineal Translation: This is word-for-word translation which takes no account of the context and preserves the word sequence of the source language.

(e) Literal Translation: This is the translation of all the words of the source language taking account of the context, but respecting the syntactic structure of the target language.

(f) Stylistic Translation: This is the rendering of the original language which involves wortking at a high level of elegance in the target language. (17)

Translation methods having been described it is now necessary to relate the method to purpose and economics (i.e. the 'ends' of translation defined from the point of view of the client and from the point of view of the translation agency), or to types of translation.

2.3.1 TRANSLATION TYPOLOGIES

Nida (1964) suggests the following typology of translation categories:

(a) The Philological Linguistic

(b) The Socio-Linguistic

Nida's 'Socio-Linguistic' type appears to be identical with the more recent approach to translation known as 'Ethnographic Translation'.

While using different labels for the categories, Casagrande (1954), follows a similar typology. Casagrande's categories of translation are defined by the 'four ends of translation':

(a) Pragmatic Translation, referring to the translation of a message with an interest in accuracy of the information that was meant to be conveyed in the source language form. The clearest example of pragmatic translation is in the treatment of technical documents in which information about say, repairing a machine, is translated into another language. A mechanic should be able to repair the machine by using the translated materials. Translators would have no concern other than getting the information through the second language.

(b) Aesthetic-Poetic Translation, in which the translator takes account of the effect, emotion and feelings of an original language version. The aesthetic form (e.g., sonnet, heroic couplet, dramatic dialogue) used by the original author; as well as any information in the message. The clearest examples are in the translation of literature.

(c) Ethnographic Translation, its purpose is to explicate the cultural context of the source and second language versions. With this as their goal translators have to be sensitive to the way words are used (e.g., 'yes' versus 'yea' in American English), and must know how the words fit into the cultures that use the source and target languages. Ethnographic translation is concerned with use in a social situation and therefore emphasises the importance of context in translation.

(d) Linguistic Translation, similar to the type defined by Nida using the same title, this category is concerned with equivalent meanings of the constituent morphemes of the second language and with the grammatical form. (18)

It is crucial to realise that any given translation can never be categorised into only one of the four types mentioned above. According to Brislin (1976), "any criterion of good translation centres around the amount of knowledge and information conveyed" (19). But specific information that is essential in 'Pragmatic Translation' can only be conveyed by following the way certain words are used in a cultural context. Thus the 'Pragmatic' and 'Ethnographic' types of translation are both involved in any given translation. Similarly, problems exist in translating certain aesthetic-poetic forms (e.g., heroic couplets) where the forms have no analogue in the target cultures. Here 'Aesthetic-Poetic' and 'Ethnographic' aims must be combined in translation. With respect to the fourth type of translation, 'Linguistic Translation', one may note the observation of Lefevre (1975) that some 'version-writers' would only render the content while altering the form, thus raising the question whether this fourth type is indeed 'translation'. A point well made by Abdulbaqi:

"They substitute their own variants rather than the equivalent ones on the assumption that this may make their versions more reasonable in the target text. This can be called imitation rather than translation, and the imitator here writes a different work, using the source text merely as a source of inspiration". (20)

Typology is of use to the professional since it provides a method for determining goals in translation; a translator may systematically chose to emphasise a particular aim and type of translation. At the same time the demands of the alternative aims of translation can be recognised and a compromise found between the 'four ends of translation'. Typology in a professional context proves its usefulness by setting out criteria against which to measure quality in translation.

It is important that translators know typologies and the value frameworks with which they operate. It is not necessary for translators to adhere to only one typology; they may use an eclectic approach and take criteria from different sources.

2.3.2 SPECIALISED TRANSLATION

Specialist translations fall under two headings: scientific and literary.According to Large, scientific translation can be considered a specialised sub-species of the translator's art (falling into Casagrande's broad category of pragmatic translations) for three reasons:

> "Scientific documents are intended primarily to convey information; they employ the specialist language of science; they arise from a scientific community which shares methodology and a body of knowledge regardless of language. These specific features of scientific writing help to smooth the translator's course and ensure that translations in many instances can provide a satisfactory alternative to the original text" (21).

Because scientific translation concentrates on the content rather than the form of a text it differs from literary translation where aesthetic considerations are as important as the content.

The translator of scientific documents must reproduce the source text concisely but with precision; the pragmatic aim of this type of translation is facilitated by the omission of literary devices (literary flourishes would be as inappropriate in this context as statistical equations in romantic fiction).

In literary translation the aim is to reflect the full range of complexities in source and target languages, thus the literary translator (as with the scientific translator) must have extensive competence in both languages but considerations of style, rhythm, metaphor and such are as important as the content. The translator of a literary work, especially poetry, must grapple with the dual challenges of meaning and form which are often inseparable.

In summary, scientific and literary translation differ from one another in that for the former the translator works within a narrowly defined specialist field (e.g., computer engineering or nuclear physics), great expertise is required in this field but at the same time the narrowness of the field eases the translator's task, vocabulary is closely defined and aesthetic considerations may be put to one side. With respect to literary translation, specialist knowledge (e.g., of genre or poetic forms) is no more important than complete understanding of questions of style and taste i.e. aesthetics in both source and target cultures, a broader based knowledge is required and the translator must exercise more personal judgment in constructing meaning through form.

Where scientific and literary translation are similar to each other is in their utilisation of combinations of the following types of translation processes (as mentioned earlier in Section 2.3.2):

Pragmatic translation is required for instructional manuals and much scientific research.

Aesthetic translation is important for literary material.

Ethnographic or Socio-linguistic translations aim to pay full attention to cultural backgrounds of authors and recipients.

Linguistic translations convey the structural flavour of the original text and are often in a quite literal manner emphasising levels of formality. (22)

Most translations, reflecting the complex realities of language use, involve combinations of several of these types (incidentally, one should note the similarity of this typology to Casagrande's). Thus the processes of scientific and literary translation may be very similar though the intended purposes of these two sub-species of translation differ. In a sense both scientific and literary translation shape the expressiveness of the source and target languages.

Both similarities and differences between the two sub-species of translation should be borne in mind when defining the criteria of quality control. The translator has a responsibility to be selective in choosing translation processes so that the translation shapes the expressions of the source and target languages but only to reflect the style, allusions and spirit of the original and to meet the requirements of the client:

> "The translator, having received the client's instructions and in consultation with him, has discretion to decide the manner of presentation, the matter included, and the depth of coverage of each point". (23)

The specialist and general knowledge of the translator are not sufficient in themselves to ensure an excellent translation; these may be enough for 'good' translation but not for a translation which takes into account not only content and form but also these responsibilities to the client and the original work. 'Excellence' is achieved by maintaining high quality and efficiency in translation. The criteria of quality control define 'high quality' and 'efficiency' (for further discussion of specialist translation and quality control see Section 3.5).

2.4 DEFINITION OF QUALITY CONTROL AND EFFICIENCY

'Quality' has many definitions. As an abstract term it denotes something of high value or worth. However, it is not an absolute term since it is purely relative to the observer. The author Alan Cowan states "quality is a jewel with many facets, and it is important when using the term to define, explicitly or implicitly, with which facet one is concerned" (24). Certainly one knows 'quality' is valuable yet difficult to measure; hard to attain yet impossible to ignore. A naive definition, in the context of translation work, would associate quality with 'freedom from error' or with 'guaranteed excellence', and one may easily move from thinking of quality as 'freedom from error' to 'guaranteed excellence' to 'perfection'.

One should note that advances in research, study and technology are continually redefining 'perfection'. This is an age of great change; the concept of 'perfection' is constantly evolving and can only be usefully applied in discussions on 'quality control' when taken as a dynamic, continually renewed and redefined goal.

However one must resist too much idealism. 'Quality' has to relate to "a condition or set of values which has been achieved in practice: it relates to something which exists" (25).

'Control', in the phrase 'quality control', relates to this realism which is concerned only with that quality which is an 'achievable perfection'.

Quality control is of concern to many enterprises (apart from professional translation) such as education and commercial marketing. In education there is quality control which follows a system described by Black (1989) thus:

> "Quality control involves subject assessors whose role is to ensure that appropriate assessment procedures are in use and that standards are maintained ...." (26).

This may offer a model on which to base quality control in translation since there is a possible analogy in that in translation agencies one may find people who have responsibility for quality control acting as "subject assessors". However, this educational model does not go far enough in defining quality control for translation.

In Great Britain major organisations and enterprises have adopted the B.S. 5750. This documents sets standards and provides guidance on quality control in production and marketing. B.S. 5750 was first published in 1979 and since then the national base of quality product enterprises has increased. Currently, in the year 1992, 12,500 firms have been assessed and registered against B.S. 5750 or to other standards fulfilling an equivalent purpose concerning 'quality' such as the Defence AQAP Series standards.

Adopting specific methods to achieve and assess quality results are necessary in firms in order to upgrade their quality management, organisation and reputation. The Director General of CBI, Dunstan comments:

"Recognition of these registered firms has been reinforced by the accreditation of certification bodies such as BSI under the scheme operated by the National Accreditation Council for Certification Bodies. This development of the accreditation scheme matches the worldwide trend towards stringent customer expectation of quality. This trend in the UK is in the forefront of the growing realisation that continual improvements in quality are necessary" (27).

Obviously, if there is a true analogy between marketing of components and other manufacturing goods and the marketing of translation services then it would be greatly to the advantage of the translation profession for there to be a standards setting body like the BSI, for translation quality control. The crucial question is, 'is there a true analogy?' Companies nowadays acknowledge that a product must be related not only to the target market as a whole but also to specialist markets within the whole. Specialist markets create the demand for high quality goods or services and thus for quality control which guarantees their supply. Daniel Desmond, who published a workbook on quality control, comments, "the demand for larger quantities of better quality goods has increased at a greater rate than the technological knowledge that creates the goods" (28). This is objective proof of the commercial value of 'quality control'. Of course, "translation is a commercial product of the information market, to which a certain price can be attached" (29) therefore quality control in translation relates directly to its commercial viability.

In marketing all companies and concerned parties attempt to improve the quality standard of their product in order to maintain their reputation and/or their share of the market.

Quality control is important where it is necessary to distinguish a product from its competitor when both are offered to the customer in satisfaction of the same or similar need. Davis (1985) defines quality control as, "a standard which the product would reach to satiate the customers need" (30). Thus, "there exists in every business some method of supervising quality even if it be only a careful watch on the customers reaction and behaviour" (31).

In translation there is probably less demand from the customer for high quality than in other fields since the client rarely understands the processes of translation or has the criteria for making sophisticated judgments about the quality of translation supplied. It is for the professional translator to take into account any customer comments on the services supplied and for him to take the initiative in maintaining and improving standards.

In this context it is relevant to note that a professional translator may pursue other priorities beyond simply satisfying their customers' demands. If, for example, a customer requires translation work which takes the translator into special areas of interest they may follow the research leads offered by this context. This is genuine research which may be of more immediate interest to the translator than work done following the linguists' preoccupations in the study of language. Thus the relationship between professional and academic interests in translation (discussed in Section 2.2) is reflected in the practical efforts to maintain quality control: a high quality product is linked to professional research which in turn is in critical interaction with academic work.

With respect to this subject, there have been many theoretical descriptions of 'good translation' which imply relevance to the quality control question (since the end product of quality control is the 'good translation'). Theodor Savory (1968) maintains that various methods for achieving 'good translations' have been the same at all times and in all places and that therefore high quality is to be achieved by following all these methods. Together with similar-minded theorists he has drawn up a table of the principles that must be followed in translation to ensure an acceptable quality. A 'good translation' should:

1) give the meaning of the original

2) give the ideas of the original

3) read like an original work

4) reflect the style of the original

5) read as a contemporary of the original

6) be an exact and faithful version of the original

7) a translation of verse should be in verse (32).

Such abstract principles are quite inadequate in practical translation. They do not reflect a clear understanding of the actual process of translation and are too general, imprecise and ambiguous to guide the professional translator. They do not form the basis of a definition of an achievable quality. This is the sort of 'misguided' academic work which the professional translator must correct through his practical experience. Such cases illustrate the need for 'practical translation studies': to give the professional the confidence to use and criticise theory and to give theoreticians insights into practical experience.

Cowan's remarks on industrial quality control could be applied to translation, "industry should be able to produce quality [goods] ... that are ... to the greatest possible extent free from fault. They must look good and be good" (33). While accepting the sentiment it must be noted that in industry quality control e.g. in the case of assembly products, relies on comparing a finished article with a standard specimen which is designed for that purpose. This may be done either visually or mechanically (34). Clearly no such 'objective standard' exists in translation: a translated text has no 'specimen' against which it can be checked for faults. An alternative check for quality control in translation involves an art of recognising different variables which must be present for good quality. These variables include: intelligibility; accuracy; functional adequacy and formal presentation (35). Expertise in recognising the presence or absence of these variables would be the first stage in quality control.

The different typologies of translation (see Section 2.3.1) are all related to the two specialist sub-species of translation, scientific and literary translations, at one level or another. A discussion of quality control for specialist translation therefore illustrates the principles that would apply for quality control in all typologies of translation.

As previously stated, scientific and literary translation differ from each other in their aims (though they are similar to each other in their procedures) thus quality control involves different variables for scientific and literary translation. In literary translation the quality control variables: intelligibility; accuracy etc are the standards against which to test the translator's ability to display creative editorial skills as well as technical competence in the target language; to clarify ambiguities and to improve the standard of presentation without altering the message of the original text (an inspired art which makes the translator truly a co-author).

In scientific translation the quality control variables: intelligibility; accuracy etc are the standards against which to test the translator's ability to display expert knowledge of abstruse subject matter through accurate use of specialised terminology; to make concise precis of texts without loss of information and to overcome the problem of neologisms, jargon etc without loss or distortion of meaning.

A further consideration for quality control is the efficient use of time and resources in translation. High quality translation requires a high investment of time and effort, clearly there must be criteria for determining the balance between effort and quality i.e. to eliminate time-wastage e.g. producing highly polished translations when rough drafts would do. Financial responsibility must balance quality control considerations to ensure the most desirable professional product: a translation of the highest possible quality compatible with cost efficiency.

> "The ability to produce a certain amount of work in a given period of time is therefore an important criterion .... and confirms the importance of economic considerations" such as 'productivity' to professionalism in translation (36).

Quality control and efficiency are related to one another through productivity. The productivity of a translator (how long it takes, and therefore costs, to produce a translation of a specific quality) varies with different factors associated either with the translator or with the text itself:

Factors related to the translator:

- Personal factors (this relates to the translator's sense of responsibility and promptness to his task)

- Skill (this relates to the translator's command of the source and target languages and his ability to apply this knowledge to the process of translation)

- Experience and Training (this relates to the translators grasp of practical knowledge (acquired in professional practice) and of theoretical knowledge (acquired through formal training)

Factors related to the text:

- Quality of original text (this relates to the state of the original text, whether it was clearly legible, fluent, unambiguous, error-free or not)

- Subject matter (a translation that involves specialist terminology may take more time to translate)

- Difficulties caused by the languages involved (translation will be slower between dissimilar languages e.g., Arabic and English than between similar languages e.g., French and Italian)

Factors related to the work environment:

- Deadline (there must be a sufficient length of time allowed between receiving a translation assignment and the deadline for presenting a finished translation of high quality. The lapse of time required would vary with the translation purpose)

- The availability of translation facilities and modern equipment such as lexicons, terminological data, word processors with on-line dictionaries, computer-assisted translation terminals (all of these increase productivity: word processors without doubt save enormously on time and effort in the creation of draft translations. Even more savings are possible if there in on-line access to a term bank for finding the most appropriate equivalent of a particular word in the source language (thus eliminating the need to make a physical check of dictionaries for such words). ALPS, Automatic Language Processing Systems, are machine systems used as translation aids. These can produce a large number of scientific texts in particular fields, at very high speed in comparison with unaided human translation. In addition there is Machine-Aided Translation which uses computer-organised data banks. Such technology can assist human efforts thus providing greater productivity and releasing time and effort for higher quality work)

For scientific translation (it is less crucial for literary translation) the most important factor in productivity is speed of translation. Rapid technological development and scientific advances ensure that there is a substantial number of people who need and want to be reliably informed and up-dated about these changes. Because there is a language barrier, the demand for scientific translation of high quality and efficiency is great and increasing, keeping pace with the technological evolution. In light of this demand, professional translators would be expected to appreciate any aid that can enable them to produce a translation of better quality in less time. The technology which has generated this demand for translation has also offered some aid in meeting it: Machine Aided Translation systems have emerged in the late Twentieth Century and are making a significant entry into the translation market. The pace of this technological development and its impact on translation is evident in this quotation from Brislin:

> "Translation is one of the most fascinating, complicated and intellectual tasks man performs. This type of communication is so complex, perhaps it is the complexity that lends such fascination to the job of automatising the human process in today's fastest and largest computers". (37)

Since machine translation is so important for the definition of present professional practice and will continue to exert this influence in future, it is necessary to examine machine aided translation in more detail.

2.5 TRANSLATION MEDIA: MACHINE AND HUMAN TRANSLATION

The evolution of information technology has dramatically affected human life. Electronic machines or computers have become essential to science and society because they form the basis of control systems for a diverse range of operations including electricity supply, security systems, exchange of information (banking, statistical data etc). Electronic machines are involved in producing products and services which exist to provide greater business efficiency and profitability. These machines have become so widely used and efficient that they are now enjoying significant recognition in the translation market,

> "Although machine translation is a concept almost as old as computers, it has often been regarded as a discipline unworthy of scientific or academic attention. Only over the past decade has it started to receive the type of recognition it deserves, mainly as a result of its proven performance in a handful of successful applications". (38)

Machine translation is still undergoing substantial development.

In 1933, in Moscow, Smirnov Troyanski was the first to mention the possibility of translation by machine. In 1947, two Britons, Donald Booth and Richard Richens, produced the first word-for-word translation programme based on a simple bilingual dictionary. It was soon after World War II, in 1949, when Warren Weaver, an American Communications philosopher, advocated the idea of machine translation. He proposed that the same mathematical techniques that had been used during the war to break codes could be applied to translating another language.

Weaver addressed a report to the scientific community concerning the issue. His report created considerable and significant enthusiasm among a number of research workers in different universities. These universities included the University of Washington, the University of California and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. This phase culminated in the organisation of the first symposium on machine translation held at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1952. Present at this important event for machine translation were nineteen American research workers and one British researcher, Booth, who had produced the first word-for-word translation programme. From 1974 and onwards, the Massachusetts Institute has published the first scientific review devoted to machine translation.

The recent upsurge in demand for machine translation has increased the overall requirement for translation by approximately 15% per annum (39). Machine translations include the European languages as well as Arabic, Chinese, Japanese and Korean. In addition:

> "There has been an evolution in translation types required. In the fifties and sixties literary translations were dominating while our increasingly technological societies of the seventies and eighties regards technical information as the top priority. And finally, world politics in particular, European politics have led to new markets for an increasingly wide variety of goods and services requiring multilingual documentation and communication". (40)

It was in the sixties and seventies in the United States that actual machine translation systems first appeared. The quality of the translation product depended significantly on various factors. These factors included the language pairs involved, the type of document (translation purpose) and the scientific or technical terminology concerned.

For example, there were cases where the translated product was of reasonable quality for one language pair but not of comparable quality for another pair.

ESPRIT (41) published a special issue on machine translation in which it stated that language coverage in machine translation systems had recently become very valuable. These operational systems cover several language pairs such as, French and English; German and Spanish. Among the most highly developed source language facilities is English, for which the operational systems provide various target languages including Arabic, Danish, Dutch, Japanese, Portuguese, Spanish and Swedish.

Machine translation is currently used by various individuals who may be subsumed under two main categories: those who are interested in scanning foreign language texts for information purposes and those who are concerned to translate texts from a source language into diverse target languages for dissemination. A further division of those who use machine translation may be made between users in the Public Sector and users in the Private Sector.

Users in the Public Sector: the United States Air Force can be considered the pioneer amongst information scanners. Since 1970 they have used the Systran system (a commercial translation system) to translate scientific and technical documents from Russian into English (42). A later development of this system included the translation of a wide range of technical documents from French and German into English. In Europe, similar systems and applications have been adopted by the Nuclear Research Centre in Karlshe. Here the task was the translation of French language texts into English. In the same way the Euratom Scientific Information Processing Centre at Ispera, Italy carried out translations of articles into English. Other institutions such as NATO, United Nations agencies and the European Commission communities are making use of machine translation for scientific documents, administrative reports and minutes of meetings. It should be noted however that in all of these applications human post-editing is required for achieving satisfactory translation.

Users in the Private Sector: companies like IBM and Simpson with vast multinational requirements formerly employed outside translation agencies but have recently turned to in-house machine translation to reduce the cost of translation. This has encouraged or possibly even forced freelance translators and translation agencies to make use of machine translation in order to reduce their costs, increase their productivity and thus enable them to compete in the new market. Machine translation technology is thus beginning to influence translation practice in the Private Sector. However, there are disadvantages. Small businesses may find technical difficulties in using machine translation which would outweigh the advantages inherent in the technology, e.g. insufficient training to use the translation software. There are also insufficiencies in the software itself which may lead to spelling errors, non-standard forms, missing punctuation etc being produced in the machine translation. Such errors would have to be corrected by human editing thus increasing costs and reducing productivity. The defenders of machine translation believe that such problems can be solved:

> "Spelling correction technology can be integrated in the automatic interface to the machine translation while a degree of on-line screen editing can be introduced to draw the user's attention to syntactic and even semantic problems in his draft". (43)

Such an integration of human and machine effort would be essential to the production of efficient and high quality translation. The fundamental problem remains, however, as the technology increases so the sophistication of the translator's art (particularly the skillful use of the software) must increase. The costs of translation recovered by using machine translation are thus simply re-expended in training and equipment costs.

Users of machine translation in the Public Sector who employ the technology to make translations for dissemination are in similar circumstances to Private sector users. A typical example of such translation is the maintenance manual. This type of translation must achieve high 'quality'. This quality will be affected by the sort of factors outlined earlier in this chapter including the need to ensure precise groundwork to understand the context of the source language text and a thorough grasp of the technical terminology involved. Although machine translation can meet the latter requirement to a high standard, it is less effective in 'understanding' context. This means that there is always a necessity for human post-editing to compensate for this failing in machine translation.

Using machine translation can increase the speed of translation by reducing the need for human input. This increases productivity and profitability, in the Private Sector (since translated materials can be released to foreign markets ahead of the competition) but possibly at the risk of reduced quality. Given these problems, whether machine translation and human post-editing is as efficient in high quality production as a completely human process of translation remains to be seen.

Whatever the disadvantages, machine translation is making great advances in many regions, such as North America. The impetus for this development comes from the large multinational companies for which translation is essential to business (particularly for technical maintenance manuals and job descriptions). Their control of the market determines the quality of translation services which can realistically be provided. There is evidence of concern with increasing the quality of service provided through machine translation, recently various target languages have been added, such as Greek.

Since the late eighties and up to the present a steady, significant increase in the machine research sector has become apparent. In Japan, the world's major computer manufacturer, progress and development in machine translation has occurred on the application side. Several systems are now operational for English/Japanese translation and vice versa, in addition to other language combinations.

In Europe, the prime research project remains the EUROTA system which is co-financed by the Commission of the European Communities and the individual Member States. The first objective of this project is that pilot schemes become operational for all the European languages. The sum of five million Belgian francs was set aside for this project (44). This highly sophisticated system differs from other translation systems in that it is not exclusively dictionary-based. An alternative approach is being adopted using a linguistic analysis, synthesis and transfer of the source text which involves a single procedure for each language; this is to enable a direct translation into any of the Community languages. This system is based on a genuinely 'multilingual' concept.

In the United States, the large corporation IBM has proceeded towards an advanced stage in the development of machine translation. IBM has been designing systems mainly for the translation of its own technical documentation and maintenance manuals, from English into a combination of languages such as Finnish, Hebrew and Spanish.

According to ESPRIT, research has shown that these new translation systems are actually less efficient than the older, more conventional approaches (dictionary-based) to machine translation programming (45). It therefore appears as if the expensive and resource-consuming efforts made in developing machine translation are not producing the increase in efficiency and productivity and high quality in translation which the world requires.

So far the discussion has concentrated upon the impact of machine translation technology on the international market and thus on professional practice amongst translators forced to compete in this market. The technology has been criticised for its failings, as has the preoccupation of multinationals and international bodies with machine translation. However there is another aspect to machine translation which is the impact of this technology on the 'layman'. Small 'pocket-translators' were introduced into the market in the hope that they would allow individuals to overcome language barriers without having to possess either great technical skills or linguistic skills. A review of this technology is of interest for the insights it provides into a theoretical understanding of translation.

From the many types of machine translation devices in this area of the market two examples will suffice to illustrate the issues raised by the technology,

(a) <u>VDU Translation (Assisted Terminal Translation)</u>: This technology is at the more professional end of the range of machine translation devices on sale. The VDU makes it possible to record, display, consult and handle several files in parallel, in accordance with the principle of splitting the screen into two or several sectors, on which appears:

a. the source text

b. the dictionary

c. the target text

The source text is typed by the translator who consults the dictionary by indicating the words which he wishes to translate. This appears on the screen; the translator then composes the target text on the keyboard, corrects it and prints it out on the printer.

(b) Pocket Machine Translation: Since 1978 a number of pocket machine translators have been put on the market. Their capacities are much too limited to interest professional translators. These machines sell well (e.g. in Kuwait), they may be of use to tourists, businessmen, students, participants in international congresses but they do not in practice provide the quality of translation their original inventors and marketers hoped they would. Probably they have a future as substitutes for dictionaries, particularly given their ability to:

- translate not only words, but also expressions and short sentences

- categorise vocabulary (clothing, food, entertainment etc.) for easy retrieval when needed. This particular cataloguing technique enables the user to scan rapidly for words and their translations.

- obtain, in addition to visual display of the translation, a guide to its pronunciation

- extend their uses by adding modules containing specialised dictionaries for given language pairs. (46)

While pocket machine translation is presently of limited importance there may be potential for increased usefulness. This is something which professional translators must bear in mind, as potential competition.

Like the machine translation favoured by the multinationals and international bodies these smaller machines follow a specific procedure which is based upon the theoretical analysis of the human activity of translation:

"All human languages follow rules. Any precisely formulated rule can be programmed. An entire set of programmed rules comprises a computer translation system. The feasibility of computer translation is determined by the extent to which the rules of human language can be defined". (47)

As mentioned previously, automatic translation of languages was one of the first applications suggested for computers. Thus machine translation has a history which begins with the invention of electronic computers. 'Artificial intelligence' is a phrase which indicates the underlying anthropomorphism and theintention to make computers perform the same type of operations that human beings master. Since the model for machine translation is human translation it may be helpful to recap earlier discussions on human translation before going on to describe machine translation.

The human procedure in translation begins by reading the source text. To understand this text the translator must:

(a) Identify and understand each individual word in the text. Obviously without building this first mental image of the text the translation cannot begin or proceed.

(b) Know the importance of every word within the context of a specific sentence of the text. The meaning of words grouped into phrases and other sub-sentence groups must be grasped, "The term Nuclear Magnetic Resonance may not, in a language other than English, be related to the words, 'the resonance of his magnetic personality sounded beyond his nuclear family'; a black bird may or may not be a blackbird, though a cloths horse is not any kind of horse". (48)

(c) Decide whether the denotation of any word(s) is(are) affected by context.

(d) Recognise the grammatical features and the way that the sentences are connected. This, without doubt, is what distinguishes language from a mere bundle of words."Somehow it seems to fill my head with ideas - only I don't exactly know what they are". Lewis Carroll, (49). Words put together would make no sense or understanding unless the structure of every sentence (such as verb-noun-object etc.) in the text is recognised and determined.

After these essential steps the translator transfers the information content into the target language; a translated text is produced. As far as machine translation is concerned, Peter Toma emphasises the essential importance of linguistic analysis of the source and target languages (50). The major element in a computer translation programme is the specific structures which make the correspondence between source language input and the machine's target language output. These structures reflect a linguistic analysis of the human translation process, "lack of such analysis has been a major reason for past failure in attempts for having machine translation" (51).

Basically, machine translation involves recording the original text on a machine-readable medium (e.g., magnetic tape) with the aid of a keyboard. The text is normally read onto high-speed magnetic disks. In this form the original text, in the source language, can be accessed by all the subsequent stages of machine translation:

(a) Morphological analysis of the source text is used to split the root and its affixes (prefix, suffix) in each word. Thus, for example, 'writing' is split into 'writ - ing'.

(b) Parsing or the analysis which recognises the grammatical function of each word in a sentence: subject, object etc. Thus parsing the French sentence, 'Je ferme la porte', enables 'porte' to be recognised as a direct object, ie a common noun, to be translated into English by the word, 'door' and not a verb, to be translated as 'carry'. (The French word 'porte' can be a verb or a noun).

(c) Semantic analysis is applied to discover corresponding words for the source language in the target language(s). A word may have several equivalent terms in the target language. Thus, for example, the English word, 'head' may be translated into French by the words, 'tête' or 'chef' depending on the context. If, by analysis of the context, the word is found in association with human, animal or animate being then the equivalent term would be 'tete'; if the context involves human groups or administrative bodies, the equivalent term is 'chef'.

(d) Transfer is the stage of machine translation in which the corresponding terms in the target language are substituted for the original terms in the source text. This construction of a target text involves the replacement of grammatical structures in the source text with the appropriate grammatical structures of the target language. (52)

Having outlined the process of translation for both humans and machines, and recognising their systematic similarity it only remains to compare human and machine performance in order to assess the value of the two media for efficient and high quality translation.

The first point to note is that comparison between machine and human translation efficiency is influenced by the fact that machine translation is based more on the 'traditional' model of translation ie where a source text is replaced by a target text through the recognition of 'abstract meaning'. Human translation is based on the 'modern' model of translation ie where the object is 'message transfer' through recognition and representation of 'actual determined meaning' or authorial intention (see Section 2.3). Differences in efficiency will therefore partly reflect the different theories of translation which inform machine and human translation and not solely the different media.

Bearing this in mind, the following criteria for comparative evaluation of human and machine translations may be adopted from Van Dijk:

(a) Intelligibility: Subjective evaluation of the degree of unambiguity and lucidity in each sentence as taken in context.

(b) Fidelity: Subjective evaluation of the extent to which the 'actual determined meaning' or message of the source text has been represented in the target text without substantial alteration.

(c) Grammatical Accuracy: Subjective evaluation of the accuracy of the grammar in each sentence.

(d) Reading Time: Objective measurement of time devoted to reading and understanding a text.

(e) Correction Time: Objective measurement of time devoted to familiarisation with the translation; to the whole or partial examination of the original text; to terminological research; the correction of the translated text; revision of a human translation or post-editing of a machine translation.

(f) Correction Rate: Objective measurement calculated by finding the number of words corrected while revising or post-editing in relation to the number of words appearing the translated text. (53)

Applying these criteria the following comparison may be made:

Intelligibility and Fidelity:

Human Translation	Machine Translation
Quality and productivity varies relative to the translator's skills, given the subject matter of the source text.	Quality and productivity varies depending on the difficulty of the source text & with respect to the degree of human correction and post-editing required (substantial where style is important).

Coherence and Uniformity of Terminology

Human Translation	Machine Translation
Uniformity of Terminology is rather difficult to maintain in some cases.	Uniformity of terminology would always be assured, a matter of great importance in most scientific and technical translations.

Quality and Up-grading of Service Over Time

Human Translation	Machine Translation
Quality advances with the translator's professional experience which depends on his personal aptitude.	Quality is constant and subject to continuous improvement through human input e.g., as dictionaries are up-dated.

Speed in Translation

Human Translation	Machine Translation
The speed of translation is reasonable in most cases, reflecting the translator's skill and experience.	The speed of translation is unrivalled.

In light of this comparison it is evident that computerised translation offers the following advantages:

(a) Increased productivity through accelerated dictionary referencing, rapid and convenient revision of successive translation drafts, high-speed lay-out and printing.

(b) Terminological consistency is promoted by easily accessed text-related glossaries with statistical information and concordances.

(c) Reduced handling and consumption of paper through emphasis on visual display through all but the final phase of translation. (54)

Impressive though these services are, more than equal to similar services performed by computer systems in many aspects of modern life (such as in banking, medicine, teaching etc.), it should not be forgotten that translation involves intellectual processes too complex as yet (if ever) for human-created machines to handle. The theoretical work of Noam Chomsky and the Transformational Grammarians (1965) supports this view of the inherent limitation of machine translation. These linguists model human language by syntactical analysis and in terms of deep structures which represent the semantic or equivalent meaning content of language. This deep level meaning is subjected to various transformations to produce the surface meaning of a message in a specific language. Deep structure gives, "a componential representation of the meaning of each item in the sentence (together with syntactic and phonological features) and a (partial) syntactic analysis of that sentence". (55) To comprehend and analyse the deep structure in a given language is to grasp the 'actual determined meaning' of a text and this is only a human capability.

Certain translations require initiative, creativity and detailed general knowledge which no machine can possess. In literary translation, the translation of a poem for example, the analysis of a poem requires the translator to have sensitive creativity and to appreciate the deep layers of meaning beneath the surface meaning. This intelligent creativity is beyond the capacity of a machine. In such cases machines may at best assist the human translator in discerning the deeper structures of a text. In these cases it would be more appropriate to use the term, 'Machine Aided Translation'.

"The human translator can rely on the power of his mind which enables him to produce logically compatible utterances. Translation speed depends on the translator's expertise.

"The computer, on the other hand, lacks those two qualifications which together guarantee a coherent link between recognition and application of what has been recognised in the translation procedure. Since the computer does not possess self-supporting creative intelligence, it cannot develop the cognitive strategies required for the type of translation process which has been labelled 'indirect transfer', ie going from the Source Language surface structure to the Source Language deep structure, then to the Target Language surface and deep structures". (56)

2.6 THE FUTURE OF TRANSLATION

Europe is considered the least linguistically diversified area in the world yet no one language is spoken by more than 20% of the population (57). This fact as well as the great multitude of languages in living use throughout the globe will ensure a continuing need for translation. As already noted, the increased rate of technological development and international exchange of information has also inflated the demand for translation of high quality and rapid production. This expensive translation traffic has led some, particularly the multinational companies and national or international bodies to seek new, more cost effective means to supply the required volume of translation. Hence the increased interest in machine translation.

According to ESPRIT, the major source materials for translation are technical documents and maintenance manuals. For such source materials machine translation is only moderately effective. The high quality required for such translation implies that the multinationals and other market leaders will have to settle for a compromise between the lower costs of machine translation and the higher quality of human translation: they are therefore probably looking towards Machine Aided Translation as the production process for the majority of translations in future.

> "It is unlikely that machines will ever replace human translators; but they can undoubtedly help to take some of the drudgery out of routine translation work, and enable far more material to be processed than would otherwise be the case". (58)

Multinationals and other interested bodies have supported the development of revolutionary departures in machine translation systems in the past. However these have not been particularly successful experiments. It is unlikely that similar expensive 'mistakes' will occur in future. Some technological advances can be anticipated, these will probably concentrate on the in-put mechanisms of translation machines rather than on radical revisions of the system software.

By the year 2000, for example, it is likely that voice analysis techniques will be sufficiently far advanced to allow direct voice in-put, with machine interpretation possible between different languages. Another likely development involves international conversation calls which may be processed through computers offering automatic translation. The development of telephone translation was actually suggested by the Japanese Ministry of Posts and Telecommunications as a joint effort between several countries. If such development was to be undertaken by Japan alone it was estimated that the project would take around fifteen years and cost 400 million dollars. The first agreement for the production of a telephone translation system was reached with France in 1985.

Projects on this scale indicate the importance of translation and the amount of faith placed upon machine translation processes. If these developments respect the necessity for human and machine joint efforts in translation (Machine Aided Translation) and do not expect to entirely replace the human translator then this faith will not be misplaced and the future for translation promises an ever improving quality of translation product at increasing levels of efficiency and productivity (The relationship between this increased professionalism and increased command of the translation market will be discussed in Chapter Three (see Section 3.7)). It is for such a future that the new field of 'practical translation studies' (see section 2.4) is designed: training professional translators to face the ever increasing challenges of the technological age without sacrificing any of the high values and professional integrity they inherit from the past.

In conclusion, this chapter has discussed and defined those factors involved in the process of translation which have a significant effect upon the quality of the translation and the commercial efficiency of the translation process (e.g., meaning, translation typologies, machine translation and the impact of technology on development of the translation industry etc.). In the discussion on the different definitions of translation it emerged that high quality translations retain the "actual intended meaning" of the source text. This conservation of meaning is the achievement of "equivalence". Equivalence is a term defined by theories of translation but in this chapter's discussion of the relationship between theory and practice in translation it emerged that "equivalence" is also the key factor for achieving practical quality control and commercial efficiency in translation. In the discussion on quality control and efficiency it further emerged that equivalence would also be central to the definition of any quality standard, to the "BS5750 of translation". Equivalence is therefore central to the issues of quality control and commercial efficiency and the relationship of the theory of translation to these practical concerns. Chapter Three will continue the discussion of this relationship and demonstrate the relationship of equivalence to the development of professionalism amongst translators and to the continuing development of the translation market.

NOTES

CHAPTER TWO

1 VAN DIJK (1983) p32

2 BRISLIN (1976) p1

3 RICHARDS (1953) p250

4 LARGE (1983) p58

5 NIDA (1969) p945

6 CATFORD (1965) p20

7 POPOVIC (1976) as quoted by Bassnett-McGuire, 1991 p25

8 NEWMARK (1983)

9 SELESKOVITCH (1976) p110

10 KEMPSON (1977) p110

11 GOSHAWK & KELLY (1987) p15

12 HATIM & MASON (1990) p3-4

13 NEWMARK (1981) p19

14 BASSNETT-MCGUIRE (1991) p37, 38

15 YALLOP (1987) p350

16 NEWMARK (1982) p62

17 NEWMARK (1981) as quoted by Van Dijk, 1983, p35-36

18 CASAGRANDE (1954) p337

19 BRISLIN (1976) p36

20 ABDULBAQI (1981) p6

21 LARGE (1983) p60, 61

22 CRYSTAL (1987) p345

23 SIMPKIN (1983) p136

24 COWAN (1964) p.ix

25 COWAN (1964) p7

26 BLACK (1989) p1

27 DUNSTAN (January, 1992) p1

28 DESMOND (1971) p1

29 SAGER (1983) p121

30 DAVIS (1985) p2

31 COWAN (1964) p1

32 SAVORY (1968) p49

33 COWAN (1964) p.ix

34 DAVIS (1985) Passim

35 SAGER (1983) p126

36 Ibid p126

37 TOMA (1976) p247

38 ESPRIT (1989) no. 21, p3

39 ESPRIT (1989) no. 21

40 ESPRIT (1989) no. 21, p3

41 ESPRIT (1989) No. 21

42 TOMA (1959) passim

43 PIGOTT (1989) no. 21, p4

44 VAN DIJK (1983) p94

45 ESPRIT No. 21, (1989) p5

46 VAN DIJK (1983) p3, 4

47 TOMA (1976) p247

48 GOSHAWK & KELLY (1987) p12

49 CARROLL (1872)

50 TOMA (1959)

51 TOMA (1976) p247

52 VAN DIJK (1983) p113-114

53 VAN DIJK (1983) p43

54 GRAHS & KORLEN eds. (1978) p35

55 KEMPSON (1977) p109

56 WILSE (1977) p244-245

57 GOSHAWKE & KELLY (1987) p39

58 CRYSTAL (1987) p351

CHAPTER THREE

CHAPTER THREE

ISSUES AFFECTING THE QUALITY AND EFFICIENCY IN TRANSLATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter began with the definition of terms in the field of quality control and efficiency in professional translation, focusing on the key term 'equivalence'. This was followed by a discussion of the relationship between theory and practice in the achievement of quality control and efficiency in translation. This chapter will now deal in greater detail with specific difficulties, problems, errors etc. relating to the notion of 'equivalence' and also affecting quality control. Since choice of the best-fitting equivalence requires an adequate understanding of culture this chapter will commence with a discussion of the arguments for including an understanding of cultures in professional training for translators. Only such practical training will overcome the problem of 'equivalence' as identified by theory.

Clearly there are factors other than 'equivalence' which cause problems in practical quality control and the latter part of this chapter will address these and the general point which they raise i.e. that an adequate assessment of quality control must always involve the judging of various inter-connected factors in the source and target texts. Quality control is thus a highly challenging task, the balancing of nuances, which while difficult is nevertheless necessary to professionalism. This chapter will compare professional practice with, as representatives of the theoretical approach, the accounts of several academic authors on the subject of quality control. Finally, this chapter will conclude with a review of quality and efficiency as they affect the present translation market.

3.2 EARLY TECHNIQUES FOR TRANSLATION QUALITY CONTROL

There have been a number of attempts to propose procedures for imposing quality control on translation production. Brislin (1976) mentions certain techniques for assessing translation quality. Let us assume that the two languages involved in this process are English and Arabic.

1. The Back Translation

This is based on the technique in which one translator translates a certain document from, for example, English into Arabic. Another translator translates from that Arabic into English (neither translator knows of the other's work). Then a third person, who knows no Arabic, compares the two English texts. On this basis, the quality of the Arabic translation in the middle of this process is implicitly assessed.

The problem with this technique is that it is incapable of ensuring the fidelity of the target text to the source. It is too 'remote' from the translation activity and cannot serve to pin-point errors and their causes in the process of translation. In addition, this method does not take any account of the different styles of translators and the effect of style on productivity and quality. It is also a time consuming technique, thus commercially unacceptable when 'time is money'. In practice this technique cannot be applied to every translation assignment and therefore can never be a complete quality control system in itself. It does not measure productivity and efficiency, and is itself an example of inefficiency. It does not enhance the translation process.

2. The Committee Approach

"This technique requires a group of translators to translate from the source language to the target language. The mistakes of one member can be caught by others on the committee" (Brislin, 1976 (1).

The limitation of this approach is basically that of the Back Translation method i.e. it is unsystematic and time consuming and is therefore neither efficient nor capable of precision quality control. Depending on the scale of the "committee", this method is potentially even worse than the previous one, given the number of staff tied-up in one translation. One other drawback is the fact that the members of a committee are unlikely to pinpoint colleagues' errors or to criticise one another in a totally reliable fashion, given the psycho-social dynamics of a group.

3. The Cloze Technique

Nida and Taber (1969) proposed this technique for testing the standard of translated material. In this method every fifth word of a translated text is deleted, leaving a space. The test-reader is then asked to fill in the blanks with the words which seem to fit the context best. The greater the number of correct guesses, the easier the text is to comprehend, the greater its success as a translation. This technique therefore attempts to measure the equivalences of information, meaning, style etc. that the translation has achieved. While this is a step in the right direction, there are limitations to this method:

1) a precise judgment cannot be achieved since the predictability of sentence formation is as much a measure of the individual reader as the text, nor are all texts equally predictable and thus equally well assessed by this technique.

2) the method measures intelligibility fairly well but fails to measure other aspects of translation quality such as fidelity

3) translation agencies cannot use this technique because it is time consuming and therefore economically inefficient (2).

All three of the preceeding techniques are limited by the fact that they impose quality control as an 'extra' to the production process. Since the translation product cannot be checked easily given the subjective nature of translation the best approach is that quality control should be integrated with the production process and occur simultaneously with the act of translation. The method of quality control advocated here is just such an integrated technique; the description of 'quality control' is therefore simply a description of the translation method itself. This description is in part derived from existing practice amongst translation agencies in Kuwait and Britain (as revealed by the research survey) and is in part a recommendation of how professional translation should be done.

In order to develop this definition of quality control/professionalism it is necessary to examine the problems which affect translation quality. The single most important problem area surrounds the notion of 'equivalence'.

3.3 FACTORS RELATING TO QUALITY & EFFICIENCY IN TRANSLATION

3.3.1 Cultural Equivalence

As previously defined, the task of translation may be considered an "operation performed on languages" (3). Thus, the task of translation would be to produce a text in one language that has the effect on its receivers which is close to that experienced by the original audience (4). Translation is one of the principal activities used to surmount the 'language barrier'. Nida describes translation as the "complex use of language" (5). This complexity refers not only to the purely linguistic manipulation involved in translation but also to the complexity of culture which underlies and gives context to translation. Nida recognises that in translation a cultural knowledge of both source and target languages is required.

The Whorfian hypothesis (1956) also shows appreciation of the importance of culture to translation, in the sense that the language of native speakers does reflect native culture. Whorf states that "every language is a vast pattern system different from others, in which are culturally ordained the form and categories" (6). More recently, Watkins (1985) has highlighted the inter-relationship of culture and language:

> "Language is intimately linked to culture in complex fusion; it is at once the expression of culture and part of it. Language is a social fact; languages are not expressed in a vacuum, but by human beings living in a society" (7).

While endorsing the views of Whorf and Watkins that language and culture are linked, it is also necessary to reject the extreme implications of such theories, namely that an individual is entirely subject to culture, to what Whorf calls the "inexorable laws of pattern" (8). Paradoxically, from the perspective of translation, such a view would suggest, as Hatim & Mason (1990) state, that one would be a prisoner of the language one speaks and therefore incapable of thinking in any language but one's own (9). Apart from the extremes however, these theories do carry much weight since they reflect experience.

In those instances where ambiguities in a text cannot be resolved by linguistic knowledge, the 'text itself' giving no lucid clues as to the 'intended meaning' of the author, understanding the culture in which the text originates can offer a key to interpretation. This is particularly useful in literary translations where the author of a text is writing in a language other than his native tongue (perhaps because his culture has a 'literary language' a role played e.g. by Latin in Mediaeval Europe; Greek in the Hellenic world; English & French in Colonial Africa etc).

An obvious example of such a text is the Bible. The highly controversial process of translating the Bible reflects in part the profound ambiguities of the text. These ambiguities have been partly removed by consideration of the linguistic and cultural background of the (putative) authors. Translation of the New Testament in Greek relies on rediscovering the underlying context of the Semitic (Aramaic, Hebrew) language and culture of some of the original authors.

Nida (1975), Whorf (1956) and Watkins (1985) emphasise that the influence of culture cannot be eliminated from any part of language. It is present throughout the structure of any particular language and therefore affects both the mundane expressions of its average speaker and the highest achievements of its literature. Within any particular language, lexical distinctions are drawn to reflect the culturally significant features of objects, institutions and activities in the society in which the language operates (10). Every language is an integral part of the culture within which it operates and hence, to a certain extent, it follows that there will be certain culture-structure differences that identify a particular language and distinguish between languages. The importance of this for translation procedures is that it makes a thorough knowledge of both the original and target cultures as essential as a knowledge of the two languages. Indeed, one cannot possess the latter without the former. Thus McQuomin is led to assert:

> "Language is the principle tool through which man passes on his personal and social integration, his cultivated ways of behaving, to his offspring, and through which he induces his peers to share his culture and, with him, to form a larger social life" (11).

A language utilises words that have a cluster of possible meanings (i.e. 'cognitive', 'associative', 'communicative' etc.: See Section 2.1.2), meanings which are accumulated by a society and its culture through millennia from the birth of the language. It is impossible to grasp the meaning of a language unless one understands the culture and tradition which informs it.

There is significant scholarly consensus that language must be understood within its cultural context and that therefore translation is not only a linguistic/communicative act but also a cultural/social act which reflects language and the individuals concerned in translation (author, translator, client) as cultural phenomena. Such a definition of translation recalls the definition given above (Chapter 2) as 'communicative translation' i.e. the process of producing a text in a target language which expresses the 'actual intended meaning' of the author of the source text.

The key term is 'intended meaning' which, as McQuomin says, has its origin and purpose defined by social-cultural context. A language is primarily constructed by its social-cultural context. Since this is so, translation becomes a process of transfer of meaning which is only one of the many processes of transfer which construct both language and society. Translation is therefore not 'above' language or society but integrated with both. Perhaps the unique feature of translation lies in the fact that it is the focal point at which the total heritage of meaning in any two (or more) languages/societies is brought together for exchange.

Despite the fact that this connection between culture and language is well recognised by theorists, the practical problems of professional translation have rarely been studied from this perspective. The fact that words are fundamentally symbols for features of a culture in language is thus effectively suppressed and ignored and insufficient emphasis is placed on making the connection between theory and its practical consequences.

This omission needs to be reversed in professional training. Knowledge of cultures is at present not generally appreciated as a necessary (as opposed to a serendipitous) skill in translation practice. The most significant influence of the 'culture factor' in translation follows from the fact that:

> "In any translation one has to face the problem of the extent to which" [the work which the translator has to translate] "is culture-specific (emic) or universal (etic). It is easy to see that etic concepts, such as fire, moon, sun, produce fewer translation difficulties than emic concepts" (12).

The distinction between "emic" and "etic" concepts is of demonstrable value on a pragmatic basis, since from the point of view of translation the "universal" concept is that which presents few problems in 'equivalence' while the "emic" is the concept which it is impossible to translate without a thorough knowledge of the cultures between which the transfer of meaning is to occur. Obviously, there are concepts which are given verbal form in one culture but not in another and which therefore resist easy translation. This problem can only be overcome (if at all) by a knowledge of the general cultural context of such concepts and therefore, through a widening of the subject matter, a broader definition of the meaning that is to be transferred. Clearly, such an exercise offers the greater possibility of finding some 'equivalence' in the target language/culture by widening the spectrum of meaning/range of terms that are considered.

It is the professional responsibility of the translator to provide this service and to explain the basis for his translation of "emic" concepts i.e. to show how and why he chooses a particular 'equivalence', drawing on his expert knowledge of the cultures concerned to justify his decision. It is by such professional conduct that the otherwise intractable problems of translation can be overcome.

Nida (1964) recognises the fact that problems of equivalence are resolvable through cultural understanding and treats this area of translation practice under four headings:

1 - Ecology

2 - Material Culture

3 - Social Culture

4 - Religion (13)

Utilising Nida's four headings as a checklist it is possible to set out the proper method that should be adopted by a translator if he is to be able to ensure that his translation practice quickly identifies "emic" semantic problems and so increases his efficiency and quality in translation by focusing his use of 'cultural understanding' on those particular problem areas of his text which most require such treatment.

1) Ecology:

Thus, for example, it would be quite difficult to render the word 'desert' into the language used by natives of a tropical country such as Maya in India. There being no local experience of 'desert' in such a lush, tropical ecology there is no Maya term for 'desert'. A broadening of the search for equivalence presents the Maya term for 'land that is cleared in preparation for planting maize'. Though this offers the basic ecological meaning of 'a land without vegetation', it fails to reflect the further meanings of 'desert' i.e. as a place which is permanently inhospitable and not temporarily barren. A more appropriate Maya term, which also conveys the socio-economic meanings of 'desert', is that for 'an abandoned place' i.e. one without human life or capable of supporting human life or producing anything of value. Identifying the "emic" status of 'desert' for a translation into Maya enables the translator to reject inadequate equivalences and to press on for more appropriate terms. "Thus the culturally significant features must be substituted for the ecological ones" (14).

This is an efficient use of his skills and provides a translation of higher quality. To utilise broad equivalences is essential for overcoming such problems. This example serves to emphasise how essential the translator's own judgement and integrity are to effective translation practices.

2) Material Culture:

Similarly, dealing with texts that raise "emic" concepts related to material culture, the translator of the following must quickly identify the problem of translating terms for clothing (and their symbolic values) from Arabic to English:"fī albalda kāna yartadyī dishdashatahu al bayḍāʼwa ya tamwr kū.fiyya wa 'iqāl".

The problem in rendering, "dishdashatahu", "kū-fiyya" and " ʿiqāl", into English is that the native English speaker is unlikely to understand the meaning of these terms other than in a general sense as 'items of clothing'. Such translation loses the depth of meaning that these terms have to an Arabic speaker and is therefore inadequate; preserving the distinctive cultural meaning of these items is of absolute importance for maintaining the quality required in translation generally and in literary translation especially (15).

Anyone familiar with Arabic culture will realise that rendering these terms as 'items of clothing' is totally misleading, being too crude a translation for 'equivalence' to have been achieved. A translator who is ignorant of Arabic culture may render, "dishdashatahu" as 'a long gown or dress'; "kū-fiyya" as 'a scarf'; " 'iqal" as 'a type of scarf holder'. Such a translation would serve only to confuse the English reader, presenting an image of the person described as dressed in this fashion as someone who is outfitted for a costume party or wearing a ludicrous disguise, an image which these terms do not engender in the mind of the Arabic reader. Such a betrayal of meaning makes this translation a misinterpretation.

To the translator with knowledge of Arabic culture however, the term "kūwfiyya", for example, suggests (as it does to native Arabic speakers) a head-dress that symbolises great dignity and therefore ennobles the wearer. It is appropriate for the translator to convey this information to the English reader, if there is no English word which expresses these broad cultural allusions then it is reasonable for the translator to explain (in a note) the context of the term. Anything less than this deceives the reader.

3) Social Culture:

The same principle applies with respect to translations that involve "emic" terms and problems with equivalence in the area of social culture. The translator will most usually find such difficulties when dealing with terms related to political life or kinship. It is no easy task to find equivalences when the cultures between which meaning is to be transferred have no shared understanding of e.g. family relationships. This is not least because such terms often seem 'universal' or "etic" thus while it is relatively easy to accept that other languages and cultures have clothes or climates which differ from our own it is less easy to accept that other cultures have "etic" terms for kindred e.g. that the translator's native language/culture concepts and experiences implicit in 'father', 'mother', 'husband', wife' etc. are not universally shared by all peoples.

In translating from English to Arabic, for example, the terms 'nephew' and 'niece' present profound difficulties since there is no obvious equivalent in Arabic language/culture. In Arabic the 'son of a brother' and the 'son of a sister' are indicated by different words which symbolise different relationships. The same is true with respect to 'uncle' and 'aunt'. The English language/culture makes no distinction between maternal and paternal relatives but Arabic language/culture does. Thus, "khāla" and "khāl" for the maternal aunt and uncle and "ʿamma" and "ʿaam" for the paternal aunt and uncle.

While there is an ethnographic precision in the translation of "khāla" as 'maternal aunt' this still does not convey to the English reader the values implicit in the term "khala" to an Arabic reader. Further information is therefore required for true 'equivalence' in translation.

This example further confirms the principle in Joseph Greenberg's (1975) assertion that "language is one aspect of culture in which much of human culture is linguistics, taking fixed verbal forms, both spoken and written" (16). Thus Greenberg offered the example of native speakers of French who use the 'intimate' (tu) and 'polite' (vous) forms respectively to address the lower classes (tu) and the upper classes (vous). Only someone with an intimate knowledge of French society could be sure of knowing when to translate 'you' with either 'tu' or 'vous'.

While this class distinction has been demonstrated by a classic study of French culture, it is also true that socio-political distinctions apply in other languages, perhaps less formally indicated, e.g. English, Arabic, Japanese. Clearly, 'equivalence' must respect these formal and informal 'rules' and their evolving cultural context, because while some terms and their symbolism will persist with some stability through time, e.g. 'nephew' or 'tu', others may be subject to 'fashion' or more rapid change - a fact which requires the translator's knowledge of the cultures he serves to be currently maintained. It is therefore crucial that quality control proceedures are applied to the translation process to ensure that there is an adequate use of cultural knowledge to overcome these problems.

4) Religion:

Probably the most perplexing problems encountered by translators are those involving religion. The need for a thorough grasp of the religious cultures of the source and target languages is generated not only by the translator's own professional requirement to create a reliable translation but also by the fact that the other parties to the translation (original author/culture and target readership/culture) may be extremely sensitive to the religious issues raised by translation. It is not unusual for religious people to reject the very idea of a translation of a Holy text, the original text and language being 'sacred', as is the case to some extent for the Koran and Arabic, the Jewish or Hebrew Bible, and the Parsee's ritual texts. Of the world's major religions, Christianity is perhaps unique in its openness to translation, the Christian Bible having from the origins of that religion been continually re-presented in translation.

Even in the case of Christianity which concedes the principle of translation, controversy is continually raised by specific translations or specific aspects to any given translation. From the invention of the printing press (which was first put to use in the production of a Bible) there have been innumerable versions of the Biblical text in the original languages and in translations which reflect possibly every language and many dialects throughout the world. Rarily have these texts enjoyed universal acceptance either by scholars or by believers. Some of them have been the source of bitter controversy.

Bearing in mind the serious consequences of poor translation quality in such a field it is obviously essential to ensure high quality translation when texts touch upon religious issues. Unfortunately it is not always obvious to a non-native/non-believer when a particular text is concerned with religious issues. Not all religious texts present themselves as such, or in a way which is recognisable to non-natives. In some cultures there are terms which may occur in mundane language use but which are in certain circumstances "tabu" i.e. possess religious or ritual significance.

Then again there are places, monuments, things etc. which may have religious significance though these may be referred to in a text which is not itself overtly concerned with religious matters e.g. tourist guides. Thus, for example, an Arabic source text may refer in passing to a cube which is the object of pilgrimage for followers of Islam. This cube is at the centre of profoundly holy religious rituals, such as "Al Tawāf" which involves walking around the ka'ba (the cube-shaped building, in Mecca) seven times (17). A translator who does not appreciate the religious importance of this ritual and each of its physical elements may cause great offence, amounting to sacrilege, to Muslim readers. Thus instead of writing of the ritual Al Tawāf as 'the solemn and pious fulfilment of the ritual sevenfold circumambulation of the ka'ba, or cube-shaped building, in Mecca' (with additional notes of explanation), a translator may produce the inadequate non-equivalent, 'Al Tawāf is wandering about a cube building in the middle of Mecca, seven times repeated'.

In conclusion to this discussion of "emic" problems in translation, it must be clear thus far that knowledge of cultures is essential to high efficiency and quality in translation. Every translator must bear in mind that cultures and individuals do not necessarily have the same background experiences and that for translation, as for "semantic problems":

> "Words cannot be understood correctly apart from the local cultural phenomena for which they are symbols. This being the case, the most fruitful approach to the semantic problems of any language is the ethnological one. This involves investigating the significance of various culture items and words which are used to designate them". (18)

3.3.2 Lexical Equivalence

This last quotation conveniently brings together the two basic concerns for translation i.e., the essential importance of both cultural and lexical knowledge. Translation involves an appreciation of the entire spectrum of meanings that any given word may produce, but especially the 'actual intended meaning' of the author (see Section 2.1.2). These different meanings may be affected by problems which can only be resolved by the application of cultural and/or lexical knowledge. Cultural knowledge provides an understanding of the range of meaning in a culture, while lexical knowledge offers the appropriate verbal expression of this meaning in the target language. Thus the 'equivalence' operates at both the level of culture and lexis.

The cultural aspect of 'equivalence' has been discussed in detail since this is a controversial concept generally neglected by professional translators and, amongst academics, not fully appreciated in its practical aspects. However, it is also appropriate to consider the lexical aspect of 'equivalence' albeit more briefly since the importance of this subject is more generally appreciated by professionals and academics alike.

A common misapprehension of the translator's task is that translation is made simpler when there are several 'lexical equivalents' in the target language. If this was true then the methods of the bilingual dictionaries would be the most effective model on which to base translation practice. Those dictionaries which have English for the source language present target words e.g. in Arabic, organised into simple, complex and compound lexemes. Thus several 'lexical equivalents' are offered for a given source word. If this was an advantage then the translator would only have to chose one of these alternatives and slot it into his translation. Unfortunately in practice this is rarely possible.

With respect to simple lexemes, the common problem that occurs is the existence of synonyms. An example of this is the Arabic word, "Z̑ayada" which has several (quasi)-synonymous English 'lexical equivalents' i.e., "bid; outbid; overbid; offer more than; to bid up; to vie in quantity or number with" (19). The range of possible translations does not make the identification of the best equivalent any simpler. Similarly the Arabic

In instances involving complex lexemes, the problem is even greater. English, for example, has a way of modifying meaning which is not available to some other languages. Thus English adjectives and adverbs have no 'lexical equivalence' in other languages, such as Arabic. Accordingly, the English term, "conjointly", which has no 'lexical equivalent' in Arabic must be translated by a phrase, "alā nahwin muwahhadin" (in a united way) (21).

Compound lexemes also present problems but these are less intractable than those found with complex lexemes. Thus, English words such as, "black-market" or "highway" cannot be translated literally into other languages as, "a market which is black" or "a way which is high". In these cases such poor translations are misleading and of culpably poor quality, because it is possible to surmount these problems by using a general understanding of the culture to coin or identify a better equivalent. In this case the translator must use cultural knowledge to guide his lexical choice.

As these examples show 'equivalence' does not actually mean a one-for-one correspondence between words in different languages. This excludes the naive view that translation is made simpler by increasing the choice of alternative target terms. The nature of the serious problems in translation is not overcome or affected by increased vocabulary, these problems are more profound than that. For this reason the idea that 'equivalence' is 'sameness' (one-for-one substitution) must be rejected as it can only lead to an unacceptably low standard of quality in translation. As Bassnett-McGuire comments:

> "Equivalence in translation, then, should never be approached as a search for sameness, since sameness cannot exist even between two target language versions of the same text, let alone between the source language and target language version" (22).

It is a fact of life in translation that the words which are usually translated are words used in context, since words do not often appear in isolation. Nevertheless, it is also true that there are some words which can be translated quite acceptably out of context, e.g., proper nouns such as the names of countries, geographical features, towns etc; chronological terms, such as months, days of the week etc; numbers, mathematical and scientific terms (see Section 2.3.2). It must be noted that this is the case, as a matter of precision, but these examples of decontextualised translations are effectively irrelevant to the proper subject of this dissertation which is translation as 'entire translation' i.e., the translation of extended texts with a view to producing a comprehensive and reliable translated product. Translation in its 'entirety' is an integrated process which encompasses all the different elements affecting professional translation practice.

As the critique of the above 'bilingual dictionary model of translation' and this latter example of 'decontextualised translation' show, this dissertation is concerned to address these areas and not ignore them. They are important for the reason that they offer examples of processes which are not part of professional translation either as models or as resources for the profession. They serve to define the limit that distinguishes professional practice and its preoccupations from non-professional quasi-translation activities.

Newmark's definition (1983) of semantic translation as that, "attempt to render, as closely as the semantic and syntactic structures of the second language allow, the exact contextual meaning of the original" (23), can therefore be accepted, bringing together as it does both 'lexical' ("semantic and syntactic structures") and 'cultural equivalences' ("exact contextual meaning"). These are not the 'perfect equivalence' which was earlier dismissed as a myth (see Section 2.1.1) but the pragmatic equivalence which is achieved by the professional application of cultural understanding and lexical knowledge in translation.

3.3.3 Syntactic/Grammatical Equivalence

Apart from the issues of culture and lexical factors, in any discussion of problems in translation it is important to bear in mind that the translation must be constructed to reflect the original linguistic structure underlying the 'actual intended meaning' of the source text.

Broadly speaking, three principal concepts determine the form of a message's expression (24):

(1) - the intended content to be conveyed

(2) - the effect the writer wishes to produce on the receptor

(3) - the forms permitted by the structure of the language used.

The union of (1) and (2) gives rise to a particular message which in turn is modified by (3) to yield a series of specific sentences. It is such sentences which play a key role in language production.

Likewise in translation, being part of language reproduction, the specific area that determines the quality of the translated text addresses sentences within their context. "The pedagogically easiest-to-handle translations unite in the sentence, because it reveals a self-contained network of the often complicated interplay of lexis and syntax"

(25). If in certain cases, i.e. cultural differences between languages, no exact nor even close choice of lexically equivalent term is possible within the translation process the resolution of the problem would be selection of terms that correspond to the 'actual intended meaning' which is governed by the conceptual and syntactic factors.

As a general principle, any attempt to control the quality of a particular work begins by identifying the difficulties and problems in the process of that work and, having recognised them, continues through their analysis until a solution is found. Defining problems is the beginning of their solution and is therefore positive thinking in the face of difficulties.

In attempting to render the message in a particular context, no translator can perform adequately without a certain amount of knowledge of the lexical and grammatical features of both source and target languages. It is a well established fact that there are structural differences between languages therefore there will be particular difficulties for translation caused by syntax. An example of such difficulty is offered by a comparison of the syntactical structures of English and Arabic:

ENGLISH	ARABIC
The use of short sentences with only one 'and' that usually occurs at the end of the clause; a stronger tendency to nominal sentences; and derivations more limited than in Arabic	The use of long sentences that may reach one paragraph with the connector 'and' possibly occurring many times in a sentence; a great variety of derivations and inflections for one word.

The word order is generally fixed, especially the occurrences of place and time. The dominant word order is SVO, other word orders e.g. VSO, OSV are rarely used.	Frequent compound sentences with relative clauses; inflectional and derived word order. The basic word order is VSO, but SVO, VOS, OSV, SOV, OVS are possible.
Frequent use of passive constructions, and only one adjective is sufficient to describe a particular situation.	Strong tendency to verbal sentences and descriptive expressions. More frequent use of active constructions. The use of strings of adjectives to describe certain situations (26).

If these types of differences are not treated carefully the finished product will lack quality.

Other difficulties caused by the structure differences between source and target languages reflect grammatical features, e.g., translating the English personal pronoun, 'you' into a target language which has a wider range of personal pronouns, such as French or Arabic. Whereas in English, 'you' is used universally for masculine/feminine; singular/plural ('thou'/'ye' being obsolete in common usage, found only in dialects or reserved for poetic or liturgical uses), in Arabic different personal pronouns are used to denote each case, e.g., 'anta' (masculine singular); 'antum' (masculine plural); 'anti' (feminine singular); 'antunna' (feminine plural); 'antumaa' (dual).

The relative pronouns may also have different rules for usage in different languages presenting still further problems in translation. For example, the English relative pronoun, 'who', corresponds in Arabic to 'alladhī' (masculine singular); 'alladhanī' (masculine dual); 'alladhīna' (masculine plural); 'allati' (feminine singular); 'allatānī' (feminine dual); 'allati' (feminine plural).

Other similar difficulties may arise in the process of translation from further syntactical or grammatical differences between languages. Such difficulties affect the achievement of 'equivalence' in translation and, as described above in the discussion of 'cultural equivalence' and 'lexical equivalence', this affects the quality of translation which can be attained.

The resolution of this set of problems is achieved only by a translator who has sufficient grasp of both target and source languages that he is capable of the complex syntactical/grammatical paraphrasing which is required for successful translation, an operation which may involve the complete rearrangement of the structure of the original sentances. In doing this the translator is required to resolve complex problems by choosing among a multitude of options, where the guidance from the text/context is permissive rather than prescriptive.

The knowledge of the two languages between which the translator transfers information is two-fold and differs in each case, "for his knowledge of the foreign language must be critical, while that of his own must be practical" (27). Such a division reflects the pragmatic concerns of professional translation i.e. to find effective solutions to practical problems. Here that involves using 'critical knowledge' to analyse the foreign language/culture in order to open up its meanings and 'practical knowledge' of the native language/culture to narrow down the choices of 'equivalent' terms to a final 'best fit' which brings together the requirements of different aspects of equivalence (cultural, lexical, syntactical, grammatical) and attemps to balance their needs in the end product, which is the translated version of the original text.

The challenging task of translation begins only when there is a clear recognition of these structural differences between languages/cultures. Only such a realisation leads to the development of the types of knowledge required to resolve the problems of translation and to the understanding that ultimately the resolution of these problems must be through the translator's own subjective choices in seeking equivalences. This in turn implies that the quality of the translation hinges on these choices and that therefore the translator must show integrity in making those choices if quality is to be achieved (28).

3.3.4 Idiomatic Equivalence

While it is not the purpose of this dissertation to recount all the various types of problem which may arise in translation, it is important to establish those sets of problems which are most usual. One further area of translation problems is that of rendering images, metaphors, similies, idioms in different languages/cultures. Usually there are no similar images in the target language which may be used to guide translation, clearly word-for-word translations are out of the question.

An example serves to illustrate the problem of 'idiomatic equivalence': the Chinese literary convention which is used to describe female beauty literally translates as 'she had a face like a bowl of congealed lard' (i.e. smooth, white, soft). The impression this gives to the English reader is in no way equivalent to the impression gained by the Chinese reader. Such a translation, while accurate in some senses, fails to represent the 'actual intended meaning of the author' which this dissertation argues (see Section 2.1.2) is the proper and achievable aim of translation. A better equivalent may be, 'she was as beautiful as a lily'.

The resolution of the problem of equivalence involves cultural, lexical, syntactical, grammatical knowledge which together form another 'type of knowledge' which in its integrative function resembles the role which Western culture has traditionally assigned to the 'imagination',

> "Any resolution is both linguistic and cultural and carries within it the suggestion of a 'third language', which in no way should interfere with the basic structure and features of either language" (29).

This 'third language' echoes the quasi-Romantic 'imagination' but it is an imagination which is controlled, i.e., the translator mediating between the source and target language must entirely appreciate the integrity and specific demands of each and not subject these other languages to the dictates of the 'third language'. The integrity of the translator and his 'third language' or imagination is the origin of the integrity of the translated text. In literary translation such as poetry, drama, novels etc. the necessity of the imagination in the translation process is obvious.

Only a human being can appreciate the situations and experiences which inform the images, idioms, metaphors etc. of any given language. Thus the practical demand for a translation of a text and its images requires the practical solution of the translator exercising his 'third knowledge' or imagination with integrity to create responsible equivalences. Thus while the requirement for 'imagination' may seem 'self-indulgent' or irrelevant to commercial considerations it is in fact entirely a question of necessity and practicality.

The responsibility to find equivalent images which are equally strong, valid, evocative in both source and target language is a responsibility not only to the text and author and readership but also to the translator himself. The respect for 'self' and 'other' which informs this aspect of translation indicates the extent to which the concept of 'equivalence' relates not only to theories of translation (Academe) but also to practical considerations (Commerce) and even to morality and religion (the integrity of the imagination with respect to self and Other).

Difficulties in translation may be considered comparatively few when a source text contains straightforward, well known facts, i.e. things which are common to all mankind (thus minimising the problems of cultural equivalence). Nevertheless a translator dealing with such texts may face significant problems caused by attempting to meet specific criteria in translation. These criteria are:

1) Attempting to produce a translation that is an exact equivalent of the original

2) Attempting to strike a balance and 're-create' a text that reflects the original yet also reflects some of the translator's own 'creativity'

3) Striving to create a totally new text, which has little to do with the original, where the 'translator' is in fact a co-author

The criteria are now reviewed in turn:

(1) As discussed above there is no such thing as 'perfect equivalence'. The best one can attempt to achieve is a 'best fit' equivalence to the actual intended meaning. Thus the effort to create a 'perfect translation' is wasted effort, totally inefficient from a commercial point of view, indeed totally meaningless from such a perspective. The only solution to the translation problems created by following such a criterion is to give up the criterion. This is a criterion which has its origins in theoretical work which does not take into account any practical considerations.

The professional and commercial critique of such theoretical work is to dismiss it as irrelevant. From the point of view of the 'third language', one may say that this 'perfectionism' or 'idealism' is unattainable and therefore to attempt to pursue it is to undermine the integrity of the 'third language' or 'imagination'. This perfectionism should not be allowed to affect the translator's fidelity to the 'third language' or to interfere with his efficient production of a translation.

In practical terms, the limitations of this criterion are demonstrable thus with respect to the emotional content of a text, "a strictly literal translation may fail, because it would not be able to re-create the associations which largely determine the emotional power of the original" (30). Not breaking away from a slavish literalism will render a poor translation: both from the point of view of professionalism and commerce.

(2) A translation is commercially successful and of professional quality when it fulfils the conditions of, "formulating the intellectual content and conveying the emotional suggestions of the original work" (31). For a translator to be able to do this he should have, "a respect for the content of the text, or he is likely to short change the message. Also, he must be willing to express his own creativity through someone else's creation" (32). Thus the translated text will be one which, "fulfils the same purpose in the new language as the original did" (33). Only criterion (2) fulfils these conditions.

(3) The role of the translator's imagination and creativity is so increased that this co-creation exceeds the limited exercise of the imagination proper to translation.

Whereas (1) represents the under-valuation of imagination, (3) represents the over-valuation of imagination. These under/over-valuations are reflected in the commercial value of the translated work. High quality, high efficiency professional translation reflects (2), a proper balance of respect for the source and target languages/cultures and for the translator's 'third language'.

While this is more obvious in the case of literary translations the integrity of the 'third language' may also apply in translating other types of text. In the case of scientific translation, technical texts can present the problems of idiom and image etc. since these texts also reflect language/culture differences.

> "A German technician, for example, tends to express himself or herself in a condensed and elliptical form, thereby creating intricate, confusing sentence patterns (the sentences are reduced to the bare bones). The guiding principle seems to be to present the substance of an idea as briefly as possible, mentioning as many ideas as possible in one sentence" (34).

This German text would contrast with an English technical work where the guiding principle is to attempt to produce comprehensibility and, accordingly, to break up the line of reasoning into a 'one idea, one sentence' pattern. Therefore to translate between German and English or vice versa would involve the use of a 'third language' which can image (or imagine) the transfer of 'actual intended meaning' between these languages/cultures and reproduce this meaning in a 'best fit' equivalent version.

A translator who does not make efficient use of time and resources jeopardises quality and efficiency. Contrary to naive expectation the translation of scientific texts does involve translation of imagery and idiom (though perhaps these are more formal and conventional than is the case with literary texts. see Section 2.3.2). Thus for the sake of efficiency in translation of such texts it is necessary for the translator to be trained (formally, or informally through business experience) in the application of his knowledge and imagination.

In conclusion, any treatment of quality or efficiency in translation (scientific or literary) must deal with the fact that 'equivalence' is the central concept which unites considerations from the different perspectives of theory (Academe), practicality / profitability (Commerce) and personal integrity (Professionalism). The concern of this dissertation is primarily with the commercial and professional importance of equivalence. However, the theoretical definition and treatment of 'equivalence' is also of interest in so far as this contributes to greater efficiency and quality of translation in the commercial and professional fields.

It has to be restated that the different aspects of 'equivalence' (cultural, lexical, syntactical, grammatical, idiomatical) identify the central problems for translation. But 'equivalence' also identifies the means to overcome these problems: different areas of knowledge (cultural, lexical, syntactical, grammatical, idomatical) corresponding to the problematical matters. Such knowledge becomes the means to resolve problems in translation when it is integrated through a 'third language' (or imagination) which is itself balanced in respect to the self and others.

Such knowledge and integrity is essential to the translator if he is to transfer the factual content of scientific texts and the factual/emotional content of literary texts. As Newmark (1981) states,

> "Clarity, simplicity and orderly arrangement are the qualities required for conveying information, and are therefore the essential elements in achieving the similar response" (35).

This 'similar response' is the pragmatic goal of 'best fit' equivalence, it corresponds to the reproduction of the original author's 'actual intended meaning'. The means by which this 'similar response' is achieved are "clarity, simplicity and orderly arrangement", these are in turn the products of the balanced and integrated use of the 'third language' or imagination.

From the perspective of education and training in professional translation for the commercial field, 'equivalence' is important since it indicates the types of knowledge and personal qualities which are required in a translator if he is to be able to work efficiently and to a high standard of quality in his professional work.

3.4 ERRORS IN TRANSLATION

Having discussed the problems and difficulties which are integral to translation (because they are integral to language use) it now remains to discuss the way in which errors in translation can affect quality and efficiency. Clearly, errors do affect quality, even some apparently insignificant mistake in a translation can affect the flow of the text and therefore the meaning. It is generally recognised that errors play a prominent role in determining translation quality but this common knowledge has not led to profound theoretical treatment either of the cause or of the detection and elimination of error.

Accurate reading and writing is of essential importance to practical translation but few theories of translation have addressed this issue in order to determine efficient strategies in reading and writing. On the other hand, professional and commercial translators, who are as well aware as any of the importance of these basic skills, have not themselves analysed the subject. At times the obvious importance of these abilities leads them to be over-looked. Robert De-Beaugrande recognises this deficiency in theoretical treatment and has discussed the probability that in translation, "errors are derived from inaccurate reading" [rather] "than inaccurate writing" (36).

Whether the blame lies with reading rather than writing (or vice versa), it is obvious that these two processes are closely connected in translation (as with the production of any text). If the translator's first product is an imagined translated text that he assesses for accuracy against the original then this involves something which is, "surely a reading skill" (37). In writing the translated version, the translator must recognise that he cannot produce an acceptably 'equivalent' text, "unless he/she is able to estimate accurately the response of potential readers to the translation" (38). This too involves imaginative insight, and is a skill that underlies both reading and writing. Such reading/writing skills are similar to the skills described above whereby knowledge of different equivalences was imaginatively integrated in translation. This suggests that reading/writing errors arise from the same cause as the problems of equivalence described above, i.e., either from a lack of knowledge or from a lack of integrity of the 'third language' in the translator's mind (his imagination). The elimination of such errors therefore appears to be by the similar technique of increased knowledge and of an 'educated/disciplined imagination'.

However, there are other errors which seem to be due less to conscious causes than to unconscious causes, e.g., inversion, omission of words; deviation of meaning. In the Semitic languages diacritics are essential to meaning but very suceptible to misreading/miswriting. Such errors affect the quality of the translation but do not seem to be as responsive to increased training though such errors could be minimised by improved reading/writing accuracy and increased comprehension of the text for translation (e.g. by broadening the translator's knowledge of the text's context; his lexical knowledge etc.). However, in instances where the original text presented serious intellectual challenges to the readership (e.g., the works of Jacques Derrida or James Joyce) such strategies cannot eliminate all possibility of error. These cases set the limits to the degree of 'freedom from error' which can be practically achieved, it being the nature of such works to challenge the very definitions of 'reading', 'writing', 'accuracy', 'error', 'meaning' etc.

Within the limits of practicality (or commercial efficiency), it is necessary to identify and to eliminate errors which occur in the process of translation, thus ensuring high quality. The key word here is 'process'. If the errors which affect quality and efficiency are attributable to the process of translation then they should be correctable through the correction of that process.

Bearing in mind that the removal of problems and errors is not designed to produce the 'perfect translation' but the commercially viable and professionally acceptable, 'best fit' translation, the process for minimising error will never eliminate all errors ('error' like 'perfection' cannot be an absolute term in real-life translation, it must always be a realistically relative term). The proper attitude to error must be 'positive thinking', a desire to identify and remove errors balanced by a realisation that the quality one can achieve must be relative not to any abstract standard but to the amount of time and effort which can realistically be invested in any given project.

3.5 TRANSLATION ASSESSMENT

High quality should not be a 'bonus' in professional translation but an integral part of the process. To ensure that the translation process is minimising error, overcoming problems and difficulties and doing so with an efficient use of time and resources there must be an element of quality control built into the translation procedure. Any quality control must involve frequent assessment of the product standard and the progress being made in production.

Since quality control in translation (unlike some other commercial enterprises) relies so heavily on the contribution of human beings, it is essential that the assessment of quality should not only identify failings but also identify and encourage achievement.

Quality control is not only about eliminating error but also about encouraging good work.

Although it has rightly been claimed that "evaluation of translation can be carried out with many different objectives and accordingly different criteria and factors acquire varying importance" (39), it is necessary to recognise that translation assessment is usually performed in respect of the following factors:

1) The texts involved in translation (target and original)

2) The competence of the individual translator

3) The cost and time factors in text production

One may apply the technique described by BS 5750 to quality control in translation:

> "Inspection is performed on incoming goods throughout manufacture, either for process control or to ensure that quality characteristics are being met, at the end product stage, to confirm that all specified receiving and manufacturing inspection and tests have been carried out to complete the existence of conformance with the requirements" (40).

Adopting this description for translation, the "incoming goods" may be considered the source texts, whereas the end products may be considered the target texts. The "manufacture" is the process of translation.

3.5.1 Assessment of the Source Text

Taking the 'manufacturing process' of translation in the order in which different stages occur, the examination of the source text is the initial stage. This stage involves an analysis of the text and its general purposes (scientific, literary etc.) on the basis of which the translation method and translation typology are determined.

Translation theory suggests certain criteria and priorities for this source text analysis. Thus, the nature of the source text affects the quality aimed for in the target text. In the first place, an understanding of the 'actual intended meaning' of the author of the source text becomes the basis upon which the quality of the target text is assessed. Nida describes this criterion as "faithfulness to the original", or more fully:

> "The ultimate test of a translation must be based upon three major factors: (1) the correctness with which the receptors understand the message of the original (that is to say, its faithfulness to the original' as determined by the extent to which people really comprehend the meaning), (2) the ease of comprehension, and (3) the involvement of personal experiences as the result of the adequacy of the form of translation" (41).

Thus the first stage determines the criteria of the assessment which will be applied at the last stage. The intervening period reflects the method and typology selected on the basis of the first analysis. The time and effort invested in this middle stage varies depending on the method etc chosen. This stage will also reflect the influence of the translator's personal skill and miscellaneous factors such as the extent to which the source text requires pre-editing etc. Skill is necessary to recognise a poorly-written source text. Without such skills a translator may attempt the translation of an ambiguous or incoherent text, wasting considerable time and effort in the process. A more sophisticated translator would recognise the deficiencies of such a text and either correct them more rapidly or require a better source text from the client, as Sager (1983) has stated (42).

It is clearly crucial that a translator should possess competent knowledge of literary and non-literary texts, and be able to assess the quality of the different categories of text before beginning translation. "He has to assess the quality of a text before he decides how to interpret and then translate it" (43).In situations where the source text seems to be presented as something either ambiguous or bewilderingly obscure it is the translator's responsibility to "attempt a sensible, idiomatic paraphrasing and draw the reader's attention to the passage"(44).

A poorly written source text will, of course, require more time to be read and understood. Apart from other considerations it will be more difficult to ensure that a poorly-written source text can be protected from misrepresentation by the translator. While a translator has to amend errors in the source text he must also respect the author's intentions and terminology (although he may disagree with the content or the expressions used in the source text). The translator must achieve a great degree of certainty before correcting an error and he must alert the readers of his translation of the corrections he has made. In a poor quality source text this can be a very time-consuming process. Factors such as the translator's reading time and the cost of his time in the modification process must be taken into account by the quality and efficiency assessment procedure.

Certain types of text may appear less challenging than others, which suggests that less time would be needed for their translation, "there is considerable variation in this" [aspect of quality] "assessment according to the individual translator's inclinations and skills " (45). Some translators may specialise in specific fields and therefore become more competent with such texts, and hence more time-efficient. Given their specialist knowledge and experience such translators would be more productive than others who are either less specialised or less experienced. There are obvious implications here for 'division of labour' in the larger translation agencies.

3.5.2 Assessment of the Target Text

Assessing the target text is not a simple matter and there is a clear consensus on this point. In translation, "quality is very difficult to measure by objective standards" (46); as Van Dijk (1983) says, translation is somehow a subjective matter (47). 'Quality' is not a straightforward question of 'good' or 'bad': an opinion echoed by Cowman (1964) and Nida & Taber (1969). Traditionally, it has been thought that:

> "If it were possible accurately to define or describe what is meant by good translation, it is evident that a considerable progress would be made towards establishing the rules of [this] Art. But there is no subject of criticism on which there has been so much difference of opinion" (48).

Despite these difficulties, some reasonably definite and precise criteria must be identified if the finished product of translation is to be assessable for quality and efficiency. "Any evaluation involves both comparison and measurement on a relative scale" (49), the evaluation of translation must therefore involve comparison and measurement. J. C. Sager suggests that this process of comparison and measurement should be taken in two stages in which the translated text is presented independently as (a) a piece of writing and (b) as a means of "communicative functional transfer" (50).

With regard to (a) the text as a piece of written work, the criteria against which the text would be compared and measured are:

1 - Intelligibility: while this is important for all texts it becomes critical for certain types of translation e.g., educational, industrial and scientific texts (maintenance manuals, production guidelines etc.).

2 - Comprehensibility: by this it is meant that a text should be equally accessible to all readers i.e. that they have the same opportunity to comprehend the conveyed message (cf Nida & Taber, 1974). It is a similar criterion to that which is applied in the 'Plain English' campaign.

3 - Fidelity: i.e. to the source text is a major requirement especially in those documents which are concerned with disseminating legal, administrative or scientific information. In such cases the translator is particularly obliged to follow the author's intentions and to limit his own creative contributions.

4 - Other factors: grammatical accuracy, text presentation etc. (cf Sager, 1983; Van Dijk, 1983) must also be taken into consideration.

As this list shows the specific criteria applied to an assessment of the translated text as a written work vary according to the purposes for which the text has been composed. This is a point which was made above in the discussion on the assessment of the source text, here it can be seen how this works in practice. Essentially the assessment processes for the source and finished texts are the same i.e. the process is a single and continuous process which begins with the first sight of the source text and continues through each stage of translation, to the final product.

The second of Sager's two-fold assessment of the finished text involves a measurement of the texts success as a "means of communicative transfer". An essential requirement for any 'measurement' of translation quality is:

"A scale of valuation according to the degree of coincidence of the interpretability of the translation with the interpretability of the original, and we should not forget that quality cannot be possibly assessed apart from the purpose of the translation" (51).

Since this (b) stage of evaluation also depends upon the primary decision about the purpose of the text, this stage of target text evaluation is also integrated with the initial source text evaluation.

As the evaluation of the source text determines the evaluation of the target text one can argue that the quality of the source text determines the quality of the target text. This is so because, as stated above, 'quality' is a subjective concept and therefore not something pre-existing in the source text, but something established by the translator's initial reading and evaluation of the source. Having decided on the quality of this source (something which is determined relative to its perceived purpose) the translator then proceeds with his translation investing time and expertise in order to reproduce a target text of comparable quality with the source (or, depending on his purposes, of greater or lesser quality). As Breitinger suggests, translation is comparable with the creation of a portrait in fine art, the masterpiece is one which is recognisably like the subject. As she says, "the more it looks like the original, the more praise it deserves" (52). Such an idea may be applied to translation, in which case the target must be recognisably like the original. However, it would be an untrue analogy if it led to an under-valuation of the translator's creativity; a translation may be of artistic value in its own right.

Clearly, the initial judgment of source quality determines the subsequent quality and quality control procedures of the translation process therefore it is essential to ensure that the initial judgment is reliable. This first judgment is achieved through reading, it is therefore the translator's reading skills which are critical in determining his translating efficiency. The criteria of quality control described are thus mainly effective as guides which support and improve the translator's reading skills (and, secondarily, his writing skills). In this way the errors (see Section 3.4) which arise in the reading/writing/translation process are minimised by the quality control process. Since this process utilises criteria that test the translator's ability to generate 'best fit equivalence' (or as Sager puts it, "communicative functional transfer") it is evident that quality control in translation is also focused upon the problems of 'equivalence' and their solution.

The consideration of 'equivalence' enters into quality control with the initial assessment of the source text. This first decision must determine whether the source falls into the category of literary or scientific work (see Section 2.3.2). This then establishes the range of potential problems which will be presented by the source text. In the case of scientific texts there would be e.g., the problem of lexical and idiomatic equivalences (see Sections 3.3.2; 3.3.4) raised by the need to translate specialist imagery and terminology with precision,

> "The essential rule of quality is forever that of terminology. There is nothing that can replace the exact term and nothing but the exact term, neither more nor less" (53).

In this situation the source and target texts must be united by 'fidelity' (see above). That is, the problem of equivalence is overcome by a strategy of reading/writing which is marked by the 'mutual respect' between original and target that is endorsed by L.G. Kelly (54) and Nida (55). Quality control in such an instance will be concerned with those errors of reading/writing which result in 'infidelity'. 'Quality' in this case is defined as the absence of errors leading to infidelity in the target text and the presence of reading/writing strategies that overcome the specific problems of 'equivalence' generated by this type of source text.

The final result of scientific translation is a 'best fit equivalence' that represents the 'actual intended meaning' of the author by communicating the information of the original text as accurately as possible, as Brislin states, "any criterion of good [scientific] translation centers around the amount of information and knowledge conveyed" (56). Since uniformity of terminology is essential and largely guaranteed by international convention (e.g., IUPAC for chemical terminology (57)), there is a clear and valuable role here for machine-aided translation (see Section 2.5).

Given the commercial value of the increased speed of translation, the assessment of efficiency and quality control in scientific translation must also include an evaluation of the utility of machine-aid in translating a given source text. The translator must therefore recognise the problem of equivalence in terminology etc., quickly assess the usefulness of machine translation, and know the level of human post-editing which will be sufficient for the target text quality required. Such human post-editing will almost always be necessary, since even scientific texts are not simply lists of terminology but texts that convey knowledge and information to people. For this reason,"even if the translator possesses all the necessary technical knowledge [himself, or via machine translation], he is not really competent unless he has a truly empathetic spirit" (58).

Judging the division of labour between machine and human translators is a specialised reading skill which translators who specialise in scientific translation must acquire. Quality control in such cases will serve to promote this particular reading skill thus improving the professionalism of the translator and the commercial efficiency of the translation agency. In relation to such 'career management' as an aspect of quality control and commercial efficiency, it is important to appreciate the following principles,

> "[The translator should] be secure in the material sense that he should be allowed to chose translations according to his capabilities and affinities, without having to go in for anything with the sole view to be materially secured and insured. Only a translator free in this sense will be able to care for the quality of his translation" (59).

Such 'humanism' echoes the principles stated above (see Section 3.3.4), i.e. that, contrary to some ideological assertions, commercial efficiency and profitability are not in opposition to either high quality translation work or a professionalism which requires and develops personal integrity.

What is true for scientific translation, also applies to literary translation. 'Empathy' with the source text is just as important, if not more so, becoming a skill of reading which is comparable with 'taste' or the ability to appreciate a work of art. 'Quality' in literary translation therefore reflects both the creativity of the translator and the creativity of the original author, since 'taste', or empathetic reading of the source, is a creative process on behalf of the translator that is disciplined by the desire to respect the creation of the original author. "A translation must not only be satisfying as a piece of literary work, but in addition it must be a faithful reflection of the original" (60).

The "quality of literary translation depends directly on personal artistic capacity and a high degree of culture, both of the world of the original and that of the translation" (61). In this way 'quality' is linked to 'equivalence' and to 'taste' since the problems of cultural equivalence etc. raised by translation of literary texts are here resolved by "personal artistic capacity" (i.e., 'taste' or, see above Section 3.3.4, 'imagination'/'third language') and by knowledge, "a high degree of culture". As S. Zilahy (1963) states:

"The ability, the skill of the translator and the quality of the translation lie in the capacity to overcome the language barrier which is nothing but the expression of differences of environment, of mentality and historical and cultural development of the human groups to whom the two languages belong" (62).

In other words, the "language barrier" is a barrier defined by "differences" which must be overcome in translation by finding 'equivalences' that minimise these "differences". Since these differences are due to the "development of human groups" it is not unreasonable to hope that further human development may overcome the translation problem. The cultural harmonisation of groups should reduce cultural obstacles to communication. The abilities and skills of the translator may be instrumental in this process.

Though the end product of translation remains greatly dependent on the source text, it is also a work of art in its own right. "Since a work of art is an object charged with values" (63), it follows that a translation has to function as something that transfers the aesthetic value of the original into the receptor culture by becoming an 'equivalent work of art' or a vehicle for an 'equivalent aesthetic value'.

It has been said that a literary translation is of high quality when it, "does not cover the original, does not block its light, but allows the pure language, as though reinforced by its own medium, to shine upon the original all the more fully" (64). What this idealism suggests in the context of pragmatic professional practice, is that literary translation should be capable of overcoming the problems of 'equivalent aesthetic value' through 'empathic reading' which uses the translator's personal qualities of empathy, taste, imagination to create images of the original text in the 'third language' of the translator's own mind. Such imaginative reading of the source lifts the content of the source and its associated values from the context of the source language/culture and then re-embodies it in the language of the target culture in such a way that the effect of the new version on the receptors is 'aesthetically equivalent' to that of the original in its context.

While the success of this transfer may be tested against 'objective' criteria of quality such as adequacy of grammar, idiom, etc. achieved in the target language, ultimately the quality of the target text as a work of art is a subjective judgment, a matter of taste. At this level, quality control in translation becomes comparable with quality control in literary criticism i.e., assessment of literary translation becomes a matter of assessing literature. The control of quality in literature as with all productive art (theatre, music, publishing etc.) passes beyond the forum of professional activity, it becomes a public issue. This is an aspect of 'marketing' which is related to quality control and production but goes beyond the specific concerns of 'in-house' quality control. (The translation market will be discussed below, see Section 3.7).

To return to the practicalities of quality control within the profession of translation, it should be evident that the first stage assessment of the source is an aesthetic judgment, the translator determines the 'quality' of the original work of art and then plans the process of translation which is appropriate to it and which will produce a finished text of comparable value. Throughout this process the critical factor (assuming minimal linguistic competence) is the translator's 'taste' since this sets the value of the original and of the finished work. As is the case with scientific translations, the translator must not be constrained by material or economic factors when making the aesthetic judgment crucial to his translation. The independence of the translator is the independence of 'taste' and this alone is the capacity capable of surmounting the problems of the "language barrier" and of 'equivalences'.

BS5750 recognises the assessment of quality as, "the total integration of features and characteristics of a certain product, or even service, that does bear on its ability to provide stated satisfaction or implied needs" (65). The definition of quality in translation given here fulfils this description since the quality of translation is indeed a "total integration" whereby the process of translation is inseparable from the process of skilled, professional reading/writing which is also inseparable from the process of assessment and creation of quality.

According to BS5750, the issue of quality involves many factors but, "the achievement of quality takes more than words; it takes planning, system, people and hard work" (66). With respect to quality control in translation, under the heading of "people" must be placed the personal qualities which have been the subject of this discussion so far. With regard to "planning" and "system", quality control in translation is planned and systematic, integrating problem identification with error-elimination and with a positive approach to quality control that attempts to promote the specialised (reading) skills and professional knowledge (cultural, lexical etc) necessary to ensure not only that the present translation task is completed successfully, but that future tasks will be made easier through accumulated experience and the systematic application of improved skills.

3.6 PERSONNEL TRAINING/MANAGEMENT AND QUALITY CONTROL

The relationship between quality control and personnel training/management has already been touched upon in passing during this discussion of quality control methods and principles. It is necessary, however, to consider the subject in greater detail before going on to address the issue of marketing. As Edward Deming (1991) suggests, quality is assured not so much by everyone doing their best, as by everyone knowing what they are doing (67). The integration of quality control and training in translation ensures that this occurs: the process encourages specialisation where this is efficient and promotes the specific skills necessary to the different fields in translation by ensuring (a) people choose or are allocated translation tasks which are congenial to them (scientific/literary); (b) that the most efficient use is made of the translator's skills and knowledge; (c) that the feedback from quality control encourages the development of professional skills.

All of these factors are required by commercial efficiency (i.e. to create the highest standard product at the lowest cost/labour/time), but this does not prevent them also being to the advantage of the individual translator, translation agency and to the whole profession (and also of advantage to society at large, which is an equally important consideration).

It is a common assumption (stereotype) that a 'good translator' must have an excellent command of the mother tongue and of at least one foreign language (cf ITI Conference, 1987 (68). From the discussion of quality control in translation, it becomes obvious that this stereotypic description is inadequate. In the first place, 'good' and 'excellent' are terms which are made useless by their vagueness. The qualities which this dissertation claims are required in a translator may be difficult to define or they may seem esoteric (taste, imagination, third language etc.) taken in the abstract, but these are presented here as fundamentally practical qualities which are relevant to professional activity in the realities of commercial translated text production. Selection and training of personnel will be most efficient if it reflects the process requirements of quality control, and not the uncritically theoretical and abstract requirements of academic 'common sense'.

Questioning 'common sense' ideas about translation personnel and their skills, a related issue must be the fact that it is not always the case that bilingual translators are more efficient in their 'mother tongue' than in the 'second language' (e.g., because they attended schools or universities where the 'second language' was the common tongue). According to Nida (1964), the most important characteristic of a translator is, "a complete control of the receptor language .... There is no substitute for thorough mastery of the receptor language. Certainly the most numerous and serious errors made by translators arise primarily from their lack of thorough knowledge of the receptor language" (69).

Relating these points to quality control and personnel training, what is important is not an abstract linguistic ability but a range of skills which integrate the translator's knowledge of languages/cultures with the specific demands of translation. Thus, to recall De-Beaugrande's point that translation error is usually caused by poor reading skills (see Section 3.4) and to unite it with Nida's point that error derives from poor writing skills (i.e., producing the translated version in the receptor language), what follows is not the need for languages but for specialised reading/writing abilities in languages. Obviously, knowledge of the subject matter of a text which is comparable to that held by non-translators can be useful to the translator. Finch (1969), supports this view in respect, for example, of scientific knowledge which, he asserts:

> "Gives the scientific translator, working in his own sphere of knowledge, an undoubted advantage over the linguist translator in the preparation of technical translation satisfactory for use by other scientists" (70).

This is not disputed for the scientific knowledge may be comparable to that of other scientists. What makes it effective, however, is the translator's translation skills which are capable of applying that knowledge in translation. As for the comparison with a non-scientific translator, it has already been shown how specialisation in translation develops different skills in different fields of translation work, thus the scientific translator is at an advantage in scientific translations over his colleague since they employ different skills (just as in the medical profession, consultants specialise in different fields).

The recruitment of staff for translation agencies will be affected by this principle since the specific skills needed in translation are unlikely to have been formed outside the profession i.e., non-professional qualifications such as general language degrees or linguistic ability related to other occupations are not directly relevant to professional practice, they are not a disadvantage but they confer no advantage either.

In a further extrapolation of this fact, it will also be the case that translation aids and technologies (lexicons, terminological data, word processors, translation programmes etc.) will be of limited usefulness in professional translation (see Section 2.5). This is because, as with general academic qualifications or work experience, these 'aids' are too general in their application to suit the specific requirements of the professional translator. The process of translation thus tends to define not only the skills which are required in the translator but also the capacities which are required in the technologies and other materials used in translation production. Unfortunately, the technology etc. does not appear to be designed with the needs of professional translation in mind (see Section 2.5). While this continues to be the case the central importance of the human translator is unassailable, as is the importance of the training and management of this skilled personnel.

Having recognised that specialist reading/writing; problem identification and error-elimination skills are necessary to the translator it follows that the knowledge of languages and cultures must be adapted to these ends. The "general drift of meaning" (71) of a text is never sufficient, the professional translator must read with the intention of discovering the entire burden of the text (something other readers may disregard, having other purposes in reading). This is primarily reading for the identification of problematic and ambiguous areas in the text,

> "What a language can mean depends upon the environment of the language users because so much of a people's discourse is directed towards their social environment" (72).

Thus, to recall the earlier discussion, cultural equivalence and other factors affect the translation process and determine the sorts of knowledge which are required of the professional translator. Included in this range of specialist abilities are the extraordinary personal qualities, possibly moral qualities, discussed above: integrity, imagination, third language, taste etc. Perhaps it is 'out of step' with contemporary public opinion or convention to suggest not only that the professional translator should have such a character, but, perhaps even more surprisingly, that professional training can and should develop such characteristics in members of the profession. Be that as it may, it is nevertheless the contention of this dissertation that this can and should be the case.

Bearing in mind that translation is the means for the dissemination of information of every kind and is therefore the means for facilitating progressive development in every aspect of human life, it is perhaps possible to see how and why the moral standards of the profession should be so high. Translation may be a noble profession since "its aim is to draw men together and enable them to establish a closer understanding of one another by eliminating the language barrier that separates them enabling their minds to achieve intellectual communion" (73).

Translation of both scientific and literary work involves 'empathy', this empathic engagement with the text, author, culture, receptors is the means by which the division between peoples is overcome. Either this empathic union is ennobling or it is degrading; either the dissemination of information promotes human happiness or it undermines it. The choice is a real choice, which confronts the professional translator in the very process of translation since the 'quality' (in every sense) of the source and target text is determined by the translator in the act of reading/writing/translating. It is the translator who personally "represents what in industry is termed 'quality control'" (74).

The 'quality' of a text is a subjective quantity, it is for the translator to define it in his 'imagination', 'third language', 'taste' etc and to re-produce it in the final translated text. The integrity of the translator's imagination (etc.) thus determines the basic moral status of the translation process. The selection of personnel, and their training, must reflect these responsibilities not because they are 'optional extras' but because these issues are raised by the process of translation and are integral to the production of high quality translation.

Related to this point is the issue of intra-professional responsibility, a translator with a truly professional attitude will be willing to accept constructive criticism for the purpose of achieving higher quality or productivity, and to make such criticisms,

> "Discussion between fellow workers does lead to improvement in translation and in any case it helps to avoid some of the glaring defects which may otherwise escape the attention of the translator" (75).

The burden of responsible translation is thus a shared one, both between professionals, between professionals and their clients and between professionals and society at large. This last point introduces the consideration of the relationship between quality control, professionalism and the translation market.

3.7 QUALITY CONTROL AND THE TRANSLATION MARKET

Linguists agree that there are approximately three thousand languages in the world (cf Breton, 1976; Ducrot & Todorov, 1972; Noin, 1979; Pottier, 1973 (76)). This is an approximate number because of difficulties in defining 'language' (e.g., distinguishing between languages and dialects) and because new languages are being 'discovered', while other languages are becoming extinct.

While there are thousands of languages, it is a fact that most of the world's population speak one of only twenty-four major languages (Goshawk & Kelly, 1987 (77)). Approximately 60% of the world's population speak one of these twenty-four languages, either as their native tongue or as a second language. Furthermore, amongst these twenty-four, the first twelve languages account for approximately two-thirds of the world population:

Numbers are in millions of native speakers:

Mandarin	700	French	103
English	425	Italian	82
Hindi	240	Urdu	80
Russian	235	Cantonese	64
Spanish	230	Javanese	60
German	175	Ukranian	58
Japanese	140	Telugu	58
Bengali	130	Tamil	55
Portugese	120	Wu (Chinese)	55
Arabic	115	Min (Chinese)	51
Malay	105	Korean	49

If the figure for English speakers were to include those for whom English is a second language then, with a corrected total of approximately 1000 million speakers, English would be the world's most used language. Nevertheless, this would still mean that over three-quarters of the world's population do not use or understand English (Goshawk Kelly & Wigg, 1987 (78)).

In contrast to the thousands of languages in use, the number of people able to communicate in three or four languages is less than 1% of the world population. There are exceptional individuals who have a wider grasp of languages e.g., "the giants of the translation world" (79) who know up to twenty languages, but even these talented people personally know less than 1% of the languages that are spoken in the world.

As these figures demonstrate there is a great potential market for professional translation, not only because most of the world's population speak only a few languages (thus limiting the language/culture knowledge required in professional translators) but also because despite this fact few people possess the linguistic abilities to communicate widely even amongst these twenty-four (or even twelve) languages.

As Van Dijk (1983) suggests, many of those who have knowledge of more than one or two languages only comprehend the spoken language or, at best, are able to read in the foreign language(s) but cannot write fluently. Their linguistic abilities are more 'passive' than 'active' (80). Thus the specialist knowledge and skills of professional translators are needed even by those who have some linguistic ability.

Given the poor level of linguistic skills in the general population and the relatively high costs of professional translation it is unsurprising that there should be "poor permeation of information from one language to another" (81).The implications of these facts are that there is a potential market for professional translation which is more cost efficient.It is the contention of this dissertation that the principles of quality control and professional training here outlined (see above) can form the basis of such increased cost efficiency.

In 1962, the M.S. Congressional record cited Senator H. Humphrey's report that because of the language barrier, 10% of total research effort or, as he estimated the figures, at least three hundred centuries of man-hours were wasted per year by the unintentional duplication of scientific and development research.

There have been no more recent figures for the man-hour cost of the 'language barrier' despite these indications of the seriousness of the problem (Goshawk & Kelly, 1978 (82)). But one can assume that the costs are not less than in 1962 and that therefore the expense of high quality professional translation can be set against the enormous savings in wasted man-hours that such translation will generate.

Of course the value of high quality translation is not only monetary: the Turkish Airlines crash near Paris was caused by an inadequate translation of the English language operating manual instructions for closing the hatches on the aircraft (83). Efficiency and high quality is essential, it should not be left to incidents like this tragedy to make that principle understood. B.S. 5750 states "the responsibility for quality in any transformation process must lie with the operators of the process" (84). Professional translators can take responsibility for the production of high quality translations; the costs of this high quality must be borne by the market and as these examples show this is clearly possible (since the translation service 'pays for itself' by increasing the efficiency of its client's businesses).

While the production of high quality translation has been discussed (see above), the relationship between this productivity and the market remains to be examined. According to Cowman (1964) and others (Statistical Process Control, 1992), the efficiency and quality of a productive process has to be established through the gathering and analysis of statistical data. The translation process should be subject to a similar statistical study. Thus far, however, there has been no such study except for certain businesses in the industrial market such as I.T. and communications companies.

These companies establish company strategies on the basis of statistical analyses which are implemented by professional translators. These companies specialise their products for specific markets and their marketing policies are very responsive to the demands of these 'niche markets'. Professional translation is thus integrated with a market (the market of their clients, and of their client's customers), however, only as part of a larger package of I.T./communications services. There are no specific studies of the translation market directed by translators, for translators.

It is critical to recall that translation is at present a relatively small-scale economic activity and that therefore there are limited resources for this market analysis. Despite the fact that this analysis would be beneficial to the profession and to individual translation agencies the business cannot (or will not) find the resources for market development. This inability to invest in the future of the profession, either because there is a lack of resources or a lack of vision, means that translation is forced to remain a small-scale economic activity. It has been established that:

> "A latent market, of about 30% of the real market, exists in the undertakings of public organisations and is only waiting for an improvement in the quality/cost ratio of translation to appear. Translation, like many other services, has not known any major improvement in productivity during its history" (85).

These figures were produced from a survey conducted in 1983 and the passage of time suggests that there may be an even greater "latent market" (given recent political developments e.g. in Eastern Europe or in the increased importance of international organisations e.g. the United Nations, E.C. etc.) in the late 1990's, and into the next century. There is potential for growth and it remains to be seen where the impetus for this growth will originate.

It has been argued by this dissertation that the high quality and efficiency which results from increased professionalism will be economically beneficial. The drive for higher quality and greater professionalism will thus generate (or consolidate) the expansion of the actual translation market into the hitherto untapped potential of the "latent market".

Academic research has recognised the existence of the "latent market" and the relative stagnation of translation business but though Academe recognises the problem it has not addressed itself to the practical issues of how to resolve such problems in the realities of professional life. Thus one reads, "it is inevitable that theory and practice will change according to needs and ideology" (86). This is unobjectionable as an abstract statement, but of little practical use since it is precisely the question of how theory and practice are to be related to each other and to "needs and ideology" that has to be addressed if the "latent market" is to be tapped to finance the rise in professionalism in translation.

Suzanne Bassnett-McGuire (1991) states that translation "should not be evaluated according to an outdated hierarchical interpretation" (87). In making a specific statement (albeit unfortunately expressed in a negative principle i.e. what not to do rather than what to do) she improves on other academics who advocate a, "search for new methods and ways to improve the quality of translations" (88) or, equally vaguely, suggest that, "a practical system of assessment should be based on a survey of typical aims or typical points of view" (89).

This academic work is useful to professional translators in as much as it identifies the problem, which is to devise a process of translation that will be more efficient and enter wider markets more effectively. But academic theories are concerned with generalities (based on the logical devices of negative arguments or the statistical devices of averages "typical aims" etc.), with the construction of abstract principles or quasi-scientific 'laws' of translation or language use. It is in this inability to address the specific problems of the industry that academic work makes itself irrelevant.

Yet, as mentioned above, the professional translators have themselves not engaged any more effectively with the problems facing the development of their profession or with the development of their own markets. This stagnation of the 'translation service industry' is a tangible proof of the lamentable consequences of a division between theory and practice, Academe and Profession. It is hoped that the strength of this dissertation and its unique study of professional translation in Kuwait and the U.K. lies in the fact that it brings together academic ideas and professional experiences, uniting them in the face of this marketing crisis. It is possible to speak of a 'crisis' because while the stagnation of the industry has apparently continued throughout its history ("Translation, like many other services, has not known any major improvement in productivity during its history" (90)), the potential demand has not remained steady but has vastly increased during this century.

3.8 CONCLUSION

The 'crisis in translation' is a hidden crisis, just as the potential in translation ("latent market") is a hidden potential. It is the aim of this dissertation to shed light upon both the crisis and the potential. These are the factors which make the subject of professionalism in translation so interesting and rewarding. There is a great deal at stake in this endeavour from the perspective of commercial enterprise (the opening of new markets), from the perspective of professional translation (the establishment of new standards in the practice of translation), from the perspective of academic study (the critical testing of theory in the context of a newly developing intellectual field: professional translation's 'reading/writing skills' i.e. 'practical translation studies'; professional ethics in translation etc.).

It has been the purpose of this chapter to describe the problems and errors that affect professional translation and to show that these can be directly related to the development of unique professional skills through a process of quality control which is an exercise in 'positive thinking' and constructive feedback.

The increased efficiency and commercial viability that this quality control/staff training provides must give professional translators an increased ability to enter a larger market and thus to begin the upward spiral of increased turn-over, increased product quality and increased professionalism.

Because existing commercial translation tends not to be so 'aggressive' in building markets it is not possible to demonstrate that this is already the case. Rather, this dissertation attempts to argue that there is the potential for this to come about and that it is desirable for it to do so.

In order to support the assertion that there is indeed a potential for greater professionalism - linked to quality control and training - amongst translators presently in business, it is necessary to turn to the survey of translation agencies at the basis of this dissertation. A description of this survey will be the subject of the next chapter.

NOTES

CHAPTER THREE

1 BRISLIN (1976) p21

2 NIDA & TABER (1969) p69

3 CATFORD (1978) p.viii

4 NEWMARK (1982) p10

5 NIDA (1975) p5

6 WHORF (1956) p252

7 WATKINS (1985) p.xxii

8 WHORF (1956) p253

9 HATIM & MASON (1990) p29

10 LYONS (1968) p432

11 MCQUOMIN (1982) p1

12 TRIANDIS (1976) p229

13 NIDA in DELL (1964) p91

14 NIDA in DELL (1964) p92

15 AKRAM (1984) p72

16 GREENBURG (1975) p78

17 As quoted in HATIM & MASON (1990) p106

18 NIDA in DELL (1964) p97

19 ALMOWRED DICTIONARY (1988) p603

20 NIDA in DELL (1964) p97

21 ABDULBAQI (1981) p17

22 BASSNETT-MCGUIRE (1991) p29

23 NEWMARK (1982) p39

24 GARRETT (1988) p70

25 WILSS, Wolfram in BRISLIN (1976) p123

26 SHURAFA, Nuha (1986) p71

27 SAVORY (1968) p36

28 PROCHZKA (1964) passim. & p96

29 SHURAFA (1986) p61

30 KABIR (1963) p157

31 Ibid

32 NIDA in BRISLIN (1976) p58

33 ZILAHY (1963) P285

34 CASTELLANO et al (1987) p128

35 NEWMARK (1982) p132

36 BEAUGRANDE, R (1978) p25

37 Ibid p26

38 Ibid p27

39 SAGER (1983) p125

40 B.S. 5750 / I.S.O. 9000, A POSITIVE CONTRIBUTION TO BETTER BUSINESS, (January, 1992) p10

41 NIDA, Theory & Practice of Translation (1969) p173

42 SAGER (1983) p121

43 NEWMARK (1982) p5

44 CASTELLANO et al (1987) p129

45 SAGER (1983) p121

46 LARGE (1983) p27

47 VAN DIJK (1983)

48 TYTLER (1978) p3

49 SAGER (1983) p122

50 Ibid

51 KANDLER (1963) p294

52 BREITINGER (1977) p24

53 ZILAHY (1963) p288

54 KELLY (1979) p179

55 NIDA (1975) p5

56 BRISLIN (1976) p14

57 GOLD, IUPAC (1987) passim.

58 NIDA (1964) p151

59 GORJAN (1963) p254

60 KABIR (1963) p157

61 ZILAHY (1963) p286

62 Ibid

63 WELLEK (1970) passim. & p339

64 As quoted by WALDROP, Rosemarie in Translation (1984) p46

65 Quality Assurance in B.S. 5750/EN28402, Training for Quality (1992)

66 B.S. 5750, The Quality Gurus (October, 1991) p2

67 DEMING, B.S. 5750 (October, 1991) p6

68 O'CONNELL & PEARSON (1987) p58

69 NIDA (1964) p130

70 FINCH & M.A. (1969) p1

71 NIDA (1964) p130

72 TYMOCZKE, T (1987) p36

73 HERBERT, Jean (1973) p7

74 CASTELLANO et al (1978) p129

75 KABIR, H. (1963) p157

76 As quoted by VAN DIJK (1983) p15

77 GOSHAWKE & KELLY (1987) p38

78 GOSHAWKE & KELLY (1987) p

79 VAN DIJK (1983) p19

80 Ibid p14

81 Ibid p20

82 GOSHAWKE & KELLY (1987) p40

83 VAN DIJK (1983) p20

84 B.S. 5750, <u>Statistical Process Control</u> (March, 1992) p3, p5

85 VAN DIJK (1983) p149

86 KELLY, L.G. (1979) p67

87 BASSNETT-MCGUIRE (1991) p38

88 GORJAN, (1963) p255

89 KANDLER (1963) p295

90 VAN DIJK (1983) p149

CHAPTER FOUR

CHAPTER FOUR METHODOLOGY AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

Before proceeding to present and analyse the data gathered by this survey it is necessary to give an account of the process by which the survey was itself designed. Various factors affected the design of this survey. As stated in Chapter One, this survey is the first of its kind to compare business practice in translation agencies in Kuwait and the United Kingdom. Being the first survey there was no precedent to follow in designing either the overall research method or in choosing techniques to overcome specific problems within the chosen method. Although the survey undertaken by Van Dijk (1983) provided some guidance, that survey was concerned neither with the same geographical / cultural areas nor with eliciting the information on professional practice, efficiency and quality control from the point of view of the profession which were the specific concerns of this research survey. Effectively this survey is a pragmatic critique of the Van Dijk survey and, by describing the process by which this present survey was designed and the practical problems confronting the researcher overcome, it is presented as a practical guide to subsequent research in this field.

The development of this research project passed through a number of stages - from the initial concern with professionalism which led to the formulation of hypotheses linking professionalism with commercial efficiency and quality control, to the creation of a research programme, followed by the fieldwork implementing this programme, to the processing and analysis of the data gathered by fieldwork and finally to the assessment of this information relative to the expectations of the initial hypotheses and the publication of a final report describing the investigation.

It is a generally understood principle that the purpose which informs the gathering of a body of data through detailed, quantitative and qualitative measurements must be related to the aims of the overall objective of the research. That is, the information gathering must be brought to bear upon the initial hypotheses either to confirm or to refute them. In scientific research the confirmation or refutation of a hypothesis is relatively simple to establish, or at least that was assumed to be the case by classical or Newtonian science. Relativity has shown philosophers of science that 'objective truth' is perhaps less the 'discovery' of science than its 'creation'. If this is the case for the study of physical phenomena, its is even more applicable in the study of human phenomena such as commercial enterprises including translation agencies: in these latter the 'human factor' is unavoidable both in the researcher and in the subject and in the methods which may be used to study the phenomenon (one cannot put a translation agency or an economy into a test-tube, or otherwise reproduce the conditions of classic science and its epistemology).

If research 'creates' the truth it 'gathers' then the responsibility of a researcher is even more acute than ever: the questions a researcher 'asks of reality' determine the 'truths' which the research creates, a researcher therefore has responsibility not only for composing the question but also for composing the answer. A 'researcher' has a relationship to truth analogous to all translators, a researcher is, so to speak, the translator of reality from its 'natural language' of experience or reality into the human languages which enable mankind to interact with their world. Just as a professional translator has responsibility to the 'source text' and to the 'target text' and maintains this responsibility through the integrity of imagination and professional skills, so the researcher has responsibility to the 'source text of reality' and the 'target text of research conclusions' and mediates between the two through an integrity of imagination and the application of professional skills.

The aims of this research, to ascertain how professionalism, quality control and efficiency are related in actual translation agencies are thus not set apart from the methods of the research. This same professionalism, quality control and efficiency is implicated in the research itself; what constitutes quality control in translation, constitutes quality control in research. Thus there is the problem of investigating a subject which is itself involved in the investigative process. How can one ensure a result to research which is not simply wish-fulfilment or the product of the researcher's expectations?

If one abandons the idealism which attempts to discover the 'absolute truth' free from all bias due to the process by which truth is discovered (the aim of classic science) then one can find a workable scientific process which has a pragmatic value in that it increases 'problem-solving' or practical knowledge and skills. In such pragmatism no 'priority' can be given to any aspect of the process of research, the initial interest in professionalism, the hypotheses, the data-gathering, the statistical analyses, the conclusions of the survey are all equally related to truth. The survey is therefore not designed to 'increase' truth or to move closer to truth, one is as 'close' to the truth at the start of research as at the end.

Just as in professional translation, idealisation is counter-productive. This survey is not designed to elicit the absolute truth about translation practice but to investigate translation practice in order to understand that practice more fully and to be able to translate with greater professionalism. The origins, subject and aims of this survey are therefore entirely pragmatic. Just as it is not possible to define or to produce a 'perfect translation' so it is not possible to define or produce a 'perfect research method'.

The information gathering of the Bureau Van Dijk was not pragmatic but followed an understanding of science, truth, experiment which was idealist. The Van Dijk survey gathered information, but that information was not related to specific professional interests, its abstract and generalised nature made the survey inefficient and less useful (to translation agencies and individual translators) than its directors probably intended. This survey conducted in Kuwait and the United Kingdom is pragmatic and thus on that basis represents a new departure from previous research efforts.

In keeping with the principle of practicality as critique of theory and theorising, this chapter will describe the practical experience of designing research and thus of creating a new understanding of professional practice in translation.

4.2 The Survey Method and Research Strategy

There are different techniques which may be used to gather information from and about human activities, the method which most efficiently combines both aspects (i.e. information about human beings and information from human beings) is the interview. Moser and Karlton (1972) state that gathering data by interview can utilise various techniques: telephone interviews, postal questionnaires, attitude scales and others (1). Of the different techniques two are most pertinent to the present research topic, personal or telephone interviews and questionnaires.

Personal / telephone interviews have several advantages, for example they may enable the researcher to explain the aims and procedures of the research more persuasively than would be the case through written communication (e.g. sending out questionnaires with covering letters) - the personal presence of the researcher / interviewer encouraging an interviewee to be more cooperative (a matter of social or psychological interaction) and, by directing the conversation, the researcher / interviewer may ensure that the information given covers the research ground as fully as desired.

However, after reflection it was decided that in this present study the personal or telephone interview method would be impractical because of the large survey area and large survey population. The travel or telephone costs would have been prohibitive as would the time requirement. Thus on grounds of cost efficiency this method had to be rejected.

The questionnaire was therefore the method finally chosen. A. N. Oppenheim (1992) has said that the questionnaire is "an important instrument of research, a tool for data collection" (2). The wide use of the questionnaire has given it a high level of sophistication and thus made it a precision instrument or specialist tool capable of eliciting quite narrowly defined and / or detailed information.

The covering letter and other materials which accompany a questionnaire affect the efficiency of the individual questionnaire in eliciting response. The covering letter bears the primary responsibility for persuading the recipient to complete the questionnaire and (possibly with other enclosures) it is also responsible for explaining to the recipient how to complete the various elements of the questionnaire (in so far as this is not self-evident).

There are several basic matters which should be dealt with in any covering letter in order to increase the favourable response of the interviewees in the survey. These are

1 An introduction which identifies the researcher, their sponsorship (where appropriate, e.g. their University or employer) and a brief explanation of the research project and its interests.

2 An explanation of how the respondent came to be chosen for the research, explaining briefly the methods for random sampling etc.

3 An assurance of confidentiality, that all information gathered would be treated in confidence; that no publication of information about individuals or institutions would occur without the permission of the parties concerned.

4 An incentive for responding, this may take various forms - for example, to offer the respondent a copy of the resulting study (pointing out the practical advantages for the respondent in receiving this information). Other inducements to encourage a response include simplifying the questionnaire, keeping the time and effort involved for the respondent to a minimum; reducing his costs by supplying self-addressed, stamped envelopes etc for the replies.

However, as the name suggests, the major element of the questionnaire is the question and the wording of each individual question also bears responsibility to encourage the reader to respond and to direct the reader how to answer. It is the question which makes the questionnaire a 'precision tool' in information gathering.

Broadly speaking there are two types of question in the context of a questionnaire - the 'open' and the 'closed' question. The closed question offers the respondent a choice of pre-written alternative replies. The simplest of these is the 'Yes / No' question; then there are 'multiple choice' questions where the reply is chosen from more than two options; and 'rating scheme' questions where the reply is expressed in terms ranked in value, the respondent being asked to rate their answer on this scale.

The advantages of the closed question to the researcher are that these codified responses facilitate statistical analysis since the answers are in a standard form thus allowing comparison of like with like. Moreover these questions require a minimum space for replies and thus reduce the size of the form which is to be posted to the survey subjects. This has the advantage of making the form appear less formidable to the recipient. It is also cost efficient in reducing postal expenses.

From the point of view of the respondent closed questions have the advantage of being fairly easy to complete (with 'yes' or 'no' or a tick in a specific box) and are thus less time-consuming or intellectually demanding.

However the drawbacks of such questions are that they are a crude survey method since they limit the information which may be gathered to information about those specific questions. One may be able to apply statistical analysis to the responses but the lack of spontaneity in these responses raises the query whether the responses genuinely reflect the opinions of the respondents. One may have excellent statistical information about the respondents agreement or disagreement with a question but there is no certainty that this has any bearing on their opinions about the ultimate subject of the survey. The 'closed question' may therefore act as a barrier to the exchange of information.

From the point of view of the respondent, such questions which oblige the interviewee to reply in someone else's words can create resistance: interviewees are usually experienced in dealing with questionnaires (they are such a common feature in many aspects of modern life) and being sophisticated readers they may identify 'closed questions' as manipulative and therefore refuse to respond.

This limitation of closed questions can be overcome to a certain extent by including the option of dissent from the pre-written replies, thus the option: 'Other (please specify)' can be offered. The respondent may then 'opt-out' from the pre-written response but nevertheless offer some (to the researcher, perhaps unexpected) information. Just as important is the other implication of this 'opt-out' possibility, if a respondent has such an option but chooses one of the pre-written responses this suggests that the pre-written response is indeed an expression of his or her opinion and this in turn gives authority to the statistical analysis of the closed question data.

Of course, the use of the closed question is primarily limited by the researcher's knowledge of both the question to ask and the sort of answers to expect: the closed question is one which can give quantitative information in a narrow and detailed sphere. For a more general and broad sweep of information, very useful for example as an initial survey in an unknown field, the open question is more effective. As the name suggests the open question is posed without offering (or anticipating) any particular response. It is a question that gives the initiative entirely over to the respondent. This may bring in a mixed harvest of (perhaps mainly qualitative) data which is useful in suggesting new hypotheses but difficult to subject to statistical and quantitative analysis.

The disadvantages of the open question are that they are generally a more expensive means for gathering data: since they take more paper space (larger forms leaving room for replies) they are more expensive in postage; since they take more time-consuming analysis they are more expensive in man-hours. While some respondents may prefer the freedom of expression of the open question others may find the demands of such questions off-putting. Thus even the open question can be a barrier to the exchange of information.

In planning a questionnaire it is necessary to balance the advantages and disadvantages of open and closed questions. This balance will be determined relative to the specific conditions of the context of the research. In a field where the heuristic is well established the closed question giving narrowly defined information will be more useful. In a field where the heuristic is either not yet established or is under attack, the open question will be more useful. In speaking of a balance between open and closed questions the intention is to reject the possibility that a questionnaire can ever consist only of one type of question or the other. It has already been demonstrated that the closed question gains authority by being juxtaposed with the open question (the 'Other:

please specify' option which 'opens' closed questions), the same may be demonstrated with respect to the open question (the addition of closed questions adds some unifying structure to the information gathered, since it offers a cross-survey or degree of consensus in the survey population).

Following a review of the available literature and a period of planning a questionnaire was developed as the basis of this survey. The balance of open and closed questions was intended to offer on one hand a broad survey which would offer general information in this otherwise unstudied area of professionalism, efficiency and quality control in translation and, on the other, more precisely defined information which would support the two related hypotheses which (a) suspected that academic-led treatment of efficiency and quality control was unhelpful because idealising and impracticable and (b) suspected that professional practice generally lacked any systematic treatment of efficiency measurement and quality control. As Oppenheim (1992) explains, the "hidden attribute of every question is its link with the conceptual framework of the study" (3) - as the above discussion clarifies, the "hidden attribute" of these questions is not only related to the confirmation or refutation of points (a) and (b) but to the establishment of the pragmatic principle or paradigm which governs 'practical translation studies'.The draft questionnaire was tested by being circulated to a small number of translation agencies in Britain and Kuwait. As this pre-survey did not suggest that there were any problems with the draft questionnaire it was used as the basis of the major survey without modification. The questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix 3.

4.3 The Questions

In drawing up the questions for this survey, attention was always directed towards the Van Dijk survey of 1983. The inadequacies of this survey were taken as a marker for establishing the errors to avoid in this questionnaire, especially with respect to the balance of open and closed questions. Since the Van Dijk bureau did not publish the questionnaire, but only the results of their survey the usefulness of this survey as a pattern was considerably reduced. However, as the Van Dijk survey was too abstract and general in its data and conclusions to have direct practical relevance it is possible to deduce that the Van Dijk questionnaire placed too much reliance on open questions.

The questionnaire was divided into two sections under two headings: general information; specific information. In each of these sections a combination of open and closed questions were presented.

The first section, 'general information' was concerned with gathering information on the context of quality control and efficiency practices. These questions were (for precise wording see Appendix 3):-

Date of establishment of agency

Number of full-time translators

Number of part-time translators

1) Qualifications held by staff translators

2) Number of years of experience of staff translators

3) Other businesses pursued by translation agencies

4) How do customers hear about the agency

5) Annual turnover for agencies

These questions were designed to elicit quite specific information about a relatively unproblematical area for this reason most of the questions were 'closed'.

The totally closed questions in this section were intended to establish the scale of the agency (the annual turnover; number of employees).

The closed questions with the opening option, 'Other: please specify' were concerned with what was assumed by this thesis to be more problematic matters: the relationship of the agency to the market (question 4: how do customers hear about the agency) which ties in with the assertion of this thesis that a greater share of the market will be taken by the professional rather than the unprofessional agency. The other closed / opened questions related to the qualifications and training of the translators: academic qualifications (question 1) and length of employment i.e. in-post experience or practical training (question 2).

The only entirely open question referred to the most general subject - what other business was pursued by the agency (i.e. question 3) - this was designed to discover the degree of specialisation in the agency in order to test the hypothesis that non-specialisation is unprofessional. This question was also intended to test the extent to which translation is auxiliary to other commercial activities and to discover with whatever implications this may have for professionalism and marketing of translation.

The second section, 'specific information' was concerned with quality control and efficiency per se. In writing this section the principle that the "human element can be either beneficial or detrimental to an organisation" (4) had to be translated into questions which would provide both general information on the subject and a depth of detail which would enable the survey to provide practical guidance both on assessing the "human element" and in directing its efforts towards the "beneficial" i.e. which would provide information about the practice of quality control and efficiency measurement in professional agencies and the potential for improvement.

These questions were (for precise wording see Appendix 3):

1) How do agencies rate the importance of various factors in the selection of agency staff (personal traits, linguistic competence, wide general knowledge, academic qualifications, experience, specialisation, others)

2) How do agencies assess these factors

3) What methods are used to develop the competence of translators

4) How are agency staff motivated

5) What types of translation material are tackled

6) How is the quality of translated material assessed

7) What problems are encountered in a translation agency

8) What advice is given to prospective translators

9) Which market supplies most customers (private sector, governmental agencies, others)

10) What kind of modern technologies are used by agencies

11) Can machine translation replace human translation

12) Any other points which affects the quality of translation

Any other comments

The totally closed question was entirely absent from this section since such questions are inappropriate to situations where the heuristic has yet to be established, as here in this first survey of its kind. However question 1 (how do agencies rate various factors in staff recruitment) does attempt to create a quantitative rather than qualitative data base. Question 1 is designed to discover whether 'practical translation studies' already exists in effect in the practice of translation agencies i.e. as reflected in their recruitment policies (e.g. choosing a combination of academic and work-based skills rather than one or other as the preferred option in staff qualifications). The presence of option (g) 'Others (please specify)' in the responses to this question reflects the desire to avoid narrowing the scope of the survey - to give the survey the authority of a non-coercive (unbiased) questioning process.

Six out of the total of twelve questions in this section were closed questions with the opening option, 'Others: please specify'. These questions reflect the concerns of translation theory and the problems in translation identified by the theory thus question 5 (What types of translation material are tackled) reflects the typologies of translation (see Section 2.3.1) which are thought to affect the translation method and thus ultimately the efficiency of translation. This question is designed to test the relevance of typology to practical problem solving, to test whether the agencies make use of such conceptual systems in their business life.

The questions 1, 3, 7 and 9 were also given an opening option:

1) How do agencies rate the importance of various factors in the selection of agency staff (personal traits, linguistic competence, wide general knowledge, academic qualifications, experience, specialisation, others)

3) What methods are used to develop the competence of translators

7) What problems are encountered in a translation agency

9) Which market supplies most customers (private sector, governmental agencies, others)

These questions were designed to elicit information from the agencies on how they perceived the issues of training and motivating staff (and whether they recognised any relationship between this and quality control) and to discover what problems were identified by the agencies (in contrast to the problems with typology, methodology, equivalences etc identified by theorists). This section also reflects the critical stance of this thesis viz a viz the large multi-nationals and their use of technology (rather than professionalism) to increase quality control and efficiency (question 9 reflects this issue).

The remaining six questions are totally open questions, although they do relate to the closed / opened questions in part. Thus questions 10-11 (What kind of modern technologies are used by agencies. Can machine translation replace human translation) are subsidiary to question 9, designed to explore further the agencies' attitude to the multi-national influence on the profession and / or the role of technology viz a viz professionalism.

Further questions in Section 2:

2) How do agencies assess these factors

6) How is the quality of translated material assessed

8) What advice is given to prospective translators

12) Any other points which affects the quality of translation were designed to elicit voluntary information on the subject of quality control, efficiency, training, market awareness etc. Question 12 is entirely open-ended reflecting this scrupulous intention to avoid 'leading' the correspondents and their answers to this survey.

It is possible that this survey erred on the side of scrupulousness in that it offered so many open questions however this openness was a reflection of the fact that this was the first survey of its kind. Having completed this survey the researcher has identified areas where more specific information needs to be sought. More closed questions would therefore be included in a second survey (more on this subject in the next chapter). However, this is 'to be wise after the event' and does not really constitute a criticism of this initial survey. On the contrary, the fact that this first survey has suggested so much further research is a vindication of it and a mark of its worth.

4.4 The Subjects of the Survey

So far the description of the research process has concentrated on the creation of the questionnaire. However, the validity of a survey is as much a matter of identifying the survey's subjects as of drawing up the questions to be presented.

In this respect the Van Dijk survey again offered a counter-illustration by which to direct the present research. The Van Dijk survey was confined exclusively to European

Community countries, it directed its attention solely towards the inter-European translation market and therefore ignored the issue of culture differences (Western European culture being basically of one type - although even this is questionable) and their effect on translation efficiency. The parochial nature of this survey gave it limited significance even within Europe.

By contrast the present survey involves the collection of information from two very different contexts: Kuwait and the United Kingdom; English / Western culture and Arabic / Arab culture; the United Kingdom translation market and the Kuwait translation market. If the data supplied by this survey has validity for these two disparate contexts then there is reasonable hope that the survey has validity at the most general level.

Kuwait

Any individual who wishes to operate a business or agency in the state of Kuwait must obtain special license to do so through the Chamber of Commerce. Since the Chamber of Commerce holds the records of all businesses and agencies the most efficient method for identifying potential subjects (companies, agencies or individuals) for this survey was by making use of this data base. The advantage of this over other methods (sampling through professional or telephone directories or advertising materials) was the fact that this data was already collated, moreover it would also include subjects who had either ceased to trade or were not yet in business.

In February 1990, following an initial telephone contact with an official of the Chamber of Commerce an interview was arranged at which the aims and requirements of the survey were explained. The official interest in the survey and its implications for quality control and efficiency in professional translation services was great and the official in charge at the Chamber was very cooperative in supplying the information required for the survey.

The data supplied by the Chamber of Commerce listed all those who had been granted a license to trade. From this list the number of those in current business were identified (through the expedient of telephoning through the list) and their addresses confirmed. In total there were forty-two agencies actually in business. These were located in various areas of Kuwait (see Map 1)(Appendix 4).

It was not possible to survey all forty-two agencies. As Smith and Duncan (1945) appreciate, with respect to statistical studies "in many instances a study of the whole population is impractical, if not impossible" (5). While forty-two seems a small population size, the labour of contacting and persuading each agency to cooperate with the survey was such that a smaller sample size was a practical necessity. Therefore it was necessary to discover what would constitute a statistically significant sample of the total population of 42.

The "theory of sampling" as explained by Smith and Duncan requires a statistical sample to be selected at random, to avoid bias and to ensure the results of the statistical analysis have validity for the wider population. Thomas and Ronald Wonnocott (1969) advise,

> "To ensure an unbiased sample is to give each member of the population an equal chance of being included in the sample. This, in fact, is our definition of a 'random' sample. For a sample to be random, it cannot be chosen in a sloppy or haphazard way; it must be carefully designed" (6).

Having numbered the forty-two members of the survey population from one to forty-two, thirty agencies were selected at random by using a standard statistical table of random numbers - a method derived from H. R. Neave (1978) (7).

In May 1990 the researcher personally visited each of these thirty agencies (the personal visit being necessary both to explain the nature of the survey and to encourage the cooperation of the agencies). A copy of the questionnaire was left with each of the agencies who expressed willingness to be involved in the survey. In all twenty-one agencies were cooperative, accepting the questionnaire and expressing interest in the outcome of the research and a desire to be informed of future developments (see Appendix 3). This represented a 70% response rate, a positive sign of the interest of the professionals in research designed to improve their business practice and professionalism. By mid-June 1990 the questionnaires had all been returned from the agencies in Kuwait.

United Kingdom

The process for identifying a survey population in the United Kingdom was less straight forward than was the case in Kuwait. The initial source of information about translation businesses in Britain was collected from the directories of various translation institutes and similar organisations. This survey was unsatisfactory for two reasons: firstly, the number of agencies identified by this process were too few to be of use for statistical studies and this bore no relation to the total number of agencies actually in business in the U.K. It was very tempting to view this non-coincidence of businesses and professional institutes as significant, indicating the division between commercial translation and academic / professional translation associations - a division which 'practical translation studies' is intended to overcome.

Secondly, to rely on this sample would introduce bias into the survey and invalidate it since it is the thesis of this research that these institutes and organisations have a specific attitude to professionalism which other translation agencies do not display. Taking a sample only from one type of source would preclude the comparison between academic professionalism and the professionalism of translators involved in commerce which is at the centre of this study.

In contrast with Kuwait, the most practical method for collecting information about the translation economy in Britain was finally identified with the time-consuming process of reading through the Yellow Pages of the telephone directories for all regions of the country.

The Yellow Pages varied in number for each region; there were sixty-five books in total divided as shown:

REGION	NUMBER OF VOLUMES	REGION	NUMBER OF VOLUMES
London	8	Northern Ireland	1
Chilterns & South Midlands	2	Scotland	7
East Anglia	4	South East	7
Midlands	11	South West	7
North East	7	Wales and the Marches	4
North West	7		

The data retrieved from these sources was stored on disk in alphabetical order by region (see Appendix 6).

The total number of agencies identified in the United Kingdom was 1009, distributed through various locations (see Map 2)(Appendix 5). The disparity of sample size between Kuwait and the U.K. is interesting. The U.K. is a country with a population of approximately 60 million. In Kuwait the population is approximately 2 million.

If one compares the number of translation agencies per unit of population then the following results are found:

United Kingdom	1 agency for every 59,465 people
Kuwait	1 agency for every 47,619 people

As these results show there are proportionally more translation agencies in Kuwait than in the U.K. If the proportion of translation agencies in the U.K. were to be at the same level per unit of population as Kuwait then one would expect there to be 1260 translation agencies in Britain. In comparison with Kuwait there is a shortfall of translation businesses by around 250 (or about 25%). If Kuwait's translation economy were to follow the U.K. level then there would be only 34 translation agencies in Kuwait, a reduction by eight (or about 19%) on the present total.

Of course these are crude comparisons (since they only use population size as a basis for contrast when many other factors may be significant) but they offer some measure of the respective size of the translation industries in each country. These figures further suggest that there may be a discrepancy between the U.K. and Kuwait in the degree of market development and professionalism: it will be interesting to see whether the survey suggests that the Kuwait businesses are more efficient in developing the translation market, and thus more quality control conscious (hence the higher proportion of translation businesses in the Kuwait economy). Or, if the United Kingdom businesses (which seem to have discovered a proportionally smaller translation market, or one which encourages the formation of fewer but larger firms) are encouraged to pursue quality control and professionalism as defences against the limited market.

Having identified the population of 1009 agencies in Britain, the same random sampling technique was used (Neave, 1988) to produce a statistically random sample of 230 agencies to form the subjects of this survey. With the much appreciated assistance of the Language Centre, University of Glasgow 230 photocopies of the questionnaire were produced. In June 1991 these questionnaires together with covering letters and stamped, self-addressed reply envelopes were dispatched to the 230 agencies.

(If the reader is wondering why the Kuwait survey in May / June 1990 did not lead to a British survey before June 1991 - the reason for the delay was outside the researcher's control, since she was in Kuwait during the Gulf Crisis and at the time of the invasion in August 1990 which led ultimately to the Gulf War).

By July 1991 the last reply from the survey agencies had been received. In total 113 replies were received, a 49% response. In part this may have been due to the reduced efficiency of the postal survey in comparison with the personal interview, for example some questionnaires were delivered to addresses which were no longer valid (something a personal call could identify more immediately). Leaving aside the relative inefficiency of this method for ensuring response from the survey subjects, the 47% response rate does not compare very favourably with the 70% response rate in Kuwait. Perhaps this is a significant difference, perhaps it indicates that the interest in quality control and professionalism is more marked in Kuwait than in Britain. It could be a reflection of the dissociation between academic research (such as this survey, which would appear too 'academic' to agencies despite commercial enterprise which has already been noted as a factor in British society. However, these speculations are more appropriately discussed in the light of the full survey results, and are therefore the subject of the next chapter.

Of the 113 responses, fourteen included questionnaires which had been returned uncompleted. The respondents explained their actions on various grounds but they basically believed that their business was outside the scope of the survey; thus for example some companies specialised only in translation work for the deaf, or in providing translation (interpretation) services at conferences. They considered their specialisation excluded them from this survey into 'general' translation professionalism. Others included translation services as only part of their work and therefore considered themselves excluded from the survey on grounds of being too unspecialised in their business practice. Nevertheless, though they excluded themselves from contributing to the survey they expressed an interest in seeing the conclusions of the survey.

There is clearly some sense of what constitutes 'professional translation' at work in these self-excluding responses. However it appears to be a somewhat inchoate sense, people have an idea of what is not involved but no more - hopefully the conclusions of the survey (taking into account these self-exclusions) will enable this 'sense of professionalism' to be more clearly defined. It could be that those who thought themselves not to be professional translators may actually find that they are, or could become so. With respect to the questionnaires which were returned completed, ten respondents had removed Section One, which dealt with general information about the agency such as its annual turn-over or employee qualifications. One could speculate on the reasons for this, but without further information from the respondents who acted in this way such speculation must be idle.

Thus the survey population of 1009 in Britain provided a sample of 230 agencies which provided responses from 99 (ten of which excluded the information in Section One).

4.5 Statistical Results

The data gathered by questionnaire was collated and analysed at the department of statistics in the University of Glasgow. The initial data analysis is given below:

GENERAL INFORMATION (Questions in Section 1)

Date of Establishment of the Translation Office or Agency:

	NO REPLY	1950's	1960's	1970's	1980's	1990's
KUWAIT	9.25%	--	19.05%	23.81%	47.62%	--
GREAT BRITAIN	11.25%	3.75%	8.75%	23.75%	50%	2.5%

<u>The Number of Translators Employed</u>:

	FULL-TIME	PART-TIME
KUWAIT	42 (23%)	91 (68%)
GREAT BRITAIN	556 (6%)	8115 (94%)

The proportion of full and part-time employees per agency may be estimated as follows:

KUWAIT $\frac{42}{21}$ = 2 full-time translators per agency

$\frac{91}{21}$ = 4 part-time translators per agency

GREAT BRITAIN $\frac{556}{80}$ = 42 full-time translators per agency

$\frac{8115}{1009}$ = 101 part-time translators per agency

1. Academic Qualifications of Translators:

	NO HIGHER QUALIFICATIONS	GRADUATE DEGREE	POST-GRADUATE	OTHERS
KUWAIT	12%	42.5%	27.5%	17.5% *
GREAT BRITAIN	10.7%	43.3%	24.1%	21.9% *

* Other qualifications includes:

Kuwait: Ph.D 7.5%; Affiliate 0.5%; Specialised Field 0.5%

Great Britain: Ph.D 3.2%; Affiliates 15%; Specialised Field 3.7%

A chi-squared test was applied to discover whether there was any correlation between country of employment and qualification of translators.

Hypothesis, H0, = There is no association between the academic qualifications of practical translators and their country of employment.

Hypothesis, H1, = There is an association between the academic qualifications of translators and their country of employment.

The obtained result of the statistical chi square was:

X^2 = 0.965, df = 3 which as to be compared with χ^2 (3;0.95) Since X^2 (0.965) is less than χ^2 (3;0.95) Then H_0 cannot be rejected. Thus, rejecting the H_0 above $X^2 > \chi^2$ (3;0.95) = 78147.

This test supports the conclusion that there was no statistically significant relationship between country and qualification.

2. Number of Years Experience for Translators:

	1-5 YEARS	6-10 YEARS	11-15 YEARS	OVER 15 YEARS
KUWAIT	18.8%	31.3%	22.9%	27%
GREAT BRITAIN	20%	30%	21.7%	28.3%

A chi-squared test was applied to discover whether there was any correlation between country and years of experience.

H0 = There is no association between the years of experience of translators and their country of employment.

H1 = There is an association between the years of experience of translators and their country of employment.

$\chi^2 = 0.098$, df = 3 which has to be compared with $\chi^2(3;0.95)$

Since $\chi^2(0.098)$ is less than $\chi^2(3;0.95)$ than H_0 cannot be rejected.

Thus, rejecting the H_0 above $\chi^2 > \chi^2(3;0.95) = 78147$

The test supports the conclusion that there is no association between years of experience and country of employment.

3. Other Business Covered by Translation Agencies:

Some translation agencies are involved in other business besides translation services. Respondents from Great Britain indicated various other business interests. Interpreting was the most usual other business pursued by the agencies since thirty-five companies out of the eighty-nine which responded to the survey offered this service. One reason for this may be due to the fact that interpretation is often viewed as a type of translation as Brislin (1976) states: "interpretation is one type of translation, and it refers to oral communication situations" (8). However, surprisingly only eight companies stated that they offered 'voice-over' services. A similar inconsistency seems to be evident in the fact that only three companies offered language training (i.e. to translators?) yet twelve offered language teaching. Other services offered included printing, typesetting and secretarial services. Of the following services each was offered by less than five of the surveyed companies:

1) Art work
2) Consultation on questionnaire design
3) Consultation (respondents did not specify the subjects on which they were consulted)
4) Desktop publishing
5) Editing
6) Expert briefing
7) Faxing and telexing
8) Marketing services
9) Photocopying
10) Press
11) Project management
12) Proof reading
13) Recruitment consultancy
14) Research
15) Word processing

As far lower number of agencies in Kuwait stated that they offered interpretation services: only three companies out of a total of twenty-one respondents. This possibly indicates that there is either a lower demand for interpretation in Kuwait or that there are fewer qualified interpreters there than in Great Britain. Surprisingly, ten translation companies in Kuwait stated that they offered word processing for customers. This means that nearly 50% of the translation companies provide such services in addition to translation. The survey also revealed that five companies dealt with publishing. Of the following services each were offered by less than three of the companies surveyed:

1) Correspondence
2) Editing
3) Journalism
4) Language teaching
5) Photocopying
6) Printing
7) Publishing
8) Secretarial services
9) Typesetting

4. <u>How Do Customers Hear About the Company</u>:

	RECOMMENDATION	ADVERTISING	OTHERS
KUWAIT	50%	37.5%	12.5%
GREAT BRITAIN	53%	43%	4%

* Other means include:

Good reputation; word of mouth and mail shots.

A chi-squared test was applied to discover whether there was any association between country of business and the method of attracting customers used.

H0 = There is no association between country of business and method of attracting customers.

H1 = There is an association between country of business and method of attracting customers.

The obtained result thus:

$X^2 = 5.656, \ df = 2$

$\chi^2 (2;0.95) = 5.9915$

This result indicates that at a significance level of 5% H0 can be accepted but at a significance level of 10% H0 can be rejected. This supports the conclusion that there is a weak association between country of business and method used to attract customers.

5. Annual Turnover for Translation Business:

	UNDER 10,000	10,000- 100,000	100,000- 500,000	500,000- 5m	OVER 5m
KUWAIT	33%	48%	19%	0	0
GREAT BRITAIN	20%	57%	20%	0.3%	0

A chi-squared test was applied to discover whether there was any association between country of business and annual turnover.Since the data returned for the annual turnover in the range 500,000 - 5m was less than 2% of the total it was necessary to combine the figures for annual turnover above 500,000 with those for over 100,000 in order to achieve a statistically valid chi-squared test.

H0 = There is no association between the annual turnover of a business and the location of the business.

H1 = There is an association between the annual turnover of a business and the location of the business.

The obtained result:

$\chi^2 = 1.668$, df = 2

The results of the chi-squared test support the conclusion that there is no association between country of business and the annual turnover.

SPECIFIC INFORMATION

1. How Do Agencies Rate the Importance of Different Factors in the Selection of Translation Staff:

Because the number of responses for ratings 0 and 1 were too few for a statistically significant chi-squared test to be applied to them individually these responses were combined for the purposes of the test.

KUWAIT

	RATING 0 + 1	RATING 2	RATING 3	RATING 4
PERSONAL TRAITS	24%	33%	33%	10%
LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE	5%	14%	29%	52%
WIDE GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	5%	33%	29%	33%
ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS	19%	10%	33%	38%
EXPERIENCE	0%	10%	24%	66%
SPECIALISED SUBJECT / EXPERTISE	10%	24%	24%	42%

GREAT BRITAIN

	RATING 0 + 1	RATING 2	RATING 3	RATING 4
PERSONAL TRAITS	28%	34%	24%	8%
LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE	5%	4%	14%	77%

WIDE GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	11%	23%	30%	37%
ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS	16%	22%	38%	23%
EXPERIENCE	2%	13%	27%	56%
SPECIALISED SUBJECT / EXPERTISE	3%	19%	26%	50%

Other factors which were of importance in selecting translation staff differed for respondents from Great Britain and Kuwait. British respondents suggested various other factors whilst Kuwaitis only suggested one other factor: a high standard of presentation of work. The British agencies took the following matters into consideration: skills with the various technologies used in translation agencies including typing, word processing, use of fax machines etc.; the ability of the translator to meet deadlines; the translator's willingness to accept a reasonable rate of remuneration; a high standard of presentation; accuracy in translation; full understanding of the translation topic; practical experience and relevant knowledge of the translation languages's culture(s).

A chipsquared test was applied to each group to discover whether different factors have different ratings.

KUWAIT

H_0 = The different factors considered by the translation companies in selecting the translation staff are independent of rating. (i.e. different factors don't have different rating).

H_1 = There is an association between factors used in selecting the translation staff and rating.

The obtianed result of the chi-square test:

$\chi^2 = 25.580$, df= 15

The result of the chi-square test supports that at just a 5% significant level H_0 is rejected. This indicates that there is an association between different factors and rating.

GREAT BRITAIN

H_0 = The different factors considered by the translaiton companies in selecting the translation staff are independant of the rating.

H_1 = There is an association between factors used in selecting the translaiton staff and the rating.

The obtained result of the chi-square test:

$\chi^2 = 155.110$, df= 15

$\chi^2 = (15;0.95) = 24.9958$

The result supports the conclusion that there us a strong association between factors and rating. Thus, a definite reject of H_0.

2. How are These Factors in Selecting Staff Assessed:

	INTERVIEW	WRITTEN TEST	PROBATION
KUWAIT	39%	48%	13%
GREAT BRITAIN	34%	46%	20%

* Other methods include:

Kuwait: high standard of presentation

Great Britain: recommendation; checking duties; interviews on job translation.

A chi-squared test was applied to discover whether there was an association between country and methods for assessing qualifications of new staff.

H0 = There is no association between country of business and methods used.

H1 = There is an association between country of business and methods used.

The obtained result:

$$\chi^2 = 0.801, \quad df = 2$$

$$\chi^2 = (2;0.95) = 5$$

The result of the chi-squared test supports the conclusion that country and method used do not have a statistically significant association, they are independent of each other.

3. Methods Used for Developing Competence:

	TRAINING COURSES	SEMINARS	WORKING ALONGSIDE EXPERIENCED STAFF
KUWAIT	9%	14%	77%
GREAT BRITAIN	18%	38%	44%

Other factors include:

Wide reading; providing updated dictionaries; checking work.

A chi-squared test was applied to discover whether the country and method used for developing competence were independent of one another.

H0 = There is no association between country and method used.

H1 = There is an association between country and method used.

The completed result obtained:

$\chi^2 = 7.985$, df = 2

$\chi^2 = (2;0.95) = 5.9915$

The results of the chi-squared test support the conclusion that there is a statistically significant relationship between country and methods used. Kuwait and Great Britain use different methods for developing staff competence.

4. How are Translation Staff Motivated:

	OFFER BONUSES	LETTER OF APPRECIATION	GIVE CERTIFICATION
KUWAIT	61	28%	11%
GREAT BRITAIN	52%	22%	26%

Other factors include:

Verbal appraisal; courteous relationship; reasonable salary raise.

A chi-squared test was applied to discover whether there was a statistically significant dependence between country and method used for motivating staff.

H0 = There is no association between country and method of motivation.

H1 = There is an association between country and method of motivation.

The statistic test computed the following result:

$$\chi^2 = 1.715, \quad df = 2$$

$$\chi^2 = (2;0.95) = 5$$

The result shows that at only 5% significant level H_0 is accepted.

5. <u>What Types of Material do Agencies Translate</u>:

	KUWAIT	GREAT BRITAIN
ADVERTISING	71%	68%
BANKING	62%	59%
COMMERCIAL	71%	79%
LEGAL DOCUMENTS	66%	67%
LITERARY	66%	26%
MEDICAL	76%	60%
POLITICAL	71%	37%
PRESS & CURRENT AFFAIRS	81%	53%
SCIENTIFIC	71%	66%
TECHNICAL	62%	77%
MISCELLANEOUS		48%

* Other types of translation material tackled include:

  Certificates; reports; property transactions.

A chi-squared test was applied to discover whether there was a statistically significant association between country and material translated.

H0 = There is no association between translation material and country.

H1 = There is an association between translation material and country.

The computed chi-square test obtained:

$\chi^2 = 24.974$, $df = 10$

$\chi^2 = (10;0.95) = 18.307$

The results of the chi-squared test support the conclusion that there is a significant difference in the types of translation material tackled in the two different countries surveyed.

6. How is the Quality of Translated Material Assessed:

Respondents from Kuwait and Great Britain agreed on the following criteria for identifying the achievement of quality:

1) Accuracy, a high standard of presentation and layout of target text, comprehensibility and 'flow' were all mentioned in replies. This indicates that the translation standard sought is that of an acceptable level of readability in the target text based on a comprehensive understanding of the source text. The respondents also mentioned the crucial importance of translating "faithfully", to transmit the correct message. This suggests that the agencies are concerned with 'the actual intended meaning' and 'equivalence' although they did not use these specific terms in their responses. This endorses the conclusion of the discussion in Chapter Three where the different methods of assessment were reviewed: understanding 'equivalence' is the key to increased efficiency.

2) Consistency: for example, one respondent emphasised "the importance of consistency specially for terminology".

3) Proof reading and spelling checks: This reflects the points made earlier (see Chapter Three) that the fundamental (and often undervalued) skills of reading/writing are essential to high quality translation.

4) Satisfaction to customers: one respondent stated that a measure of quality was "satisfaction of customers and their re-visiting to the company". This endorses the earlier discussion (see Chapter Two) of the necessity to be pragmatic and to direct an agency's quality control efforts towards satisfying the market rather than some purely abstract or idealistic measure of quality. It is as well to also bear in mind that customers do not assess the quality of a translation agency's services simply on the basis of the quality of the target text. The customer assesses an agency also on the basis of their whole experience of the agency e.g. how responsive and friendly or professional the agency staff seemed in person, in writing or in their telephone manner.

5) Checking by more experienced staff: one respondent stated that "translated material should be checked if needed and time allows by head translators". This reflects a general tendency in translation agencies to rely upon the experience of translation staff as the guarantee of quality. This in turn endorses the discussion in Chapter Three where it was argued that the ultimate source of quality in translation was the translator and his/her personal integrity. This attitude was reflected in the replies from a British agency which stated that quality control was based on the competence and good record of the translation staff. Another agency said that it was not necessary to pay any specific attention to quality control per se if one employed translators of high calibre.

Four British translation agencies did not reply to this question. It is interesting to speculate whether they did not reply because they had no quality control methods or had 'methods' which could not be codified.

The general conclusion to be drawn from this data is that quality control is primarily a matter of controlling the quality of the translation staff as such it is linked to personnel management and staff development. Technology plays a purely auxiliary role in most translation agencies.

7. <u>What Problems Might be Encountered in Translation Agencies</u>:

	KUWAIT	GREAT BRITAIN
TOO MUCH WORK	37.5%	20.9%
LACK OF SPACE	21%	12.4%
IRREGULAR WORK PATTERN	29%	52%
PROBLEMS WITH CUSTOMERS	12.5%	14.7%

* Other problems included are discussed in details in Chapter Five.

A chi-squared test was applied to discover whether there was an association between country and problems experienced or anticipated by the translation agencies surveyed.

H0 = There is no association between problems anticipated/encountered in the translation agency and the country in which the agency is located.

H1 = There is an association between problems anticipated/encountered in the translation agency and the country in which the agency is located.

The computed chi-square test obtained:

$$\chi^2 = 5.469, \ df = 2$$
$$\chi^2 \ (2;0.95) = 5.9915$$
$$\chi^2 \ (2;0.90) = 4.6057$$

The chi-squared test results indicate that H0 cannot be rejected at 5% significant level, but at 10% significant level H0 can be rejected. The test therefore supports the conclusion that the problems encountered or anticipated in translation agencies in Kuwait differ from those encountered/anticipated by British agencies.

8. <u>What Advice Would be Given to Prospective Translators</u>:

<u>The advice offered by British translation agencies included the following</u>:

1) Wide experience is essential in addition to expertise in a specialist subject area. One respondent advised: "gain more experience abroad and travel".

2) Qualifications must be obtained. A respondent advised: "the mother or habitual tongue must be mastered and translations should always be into that language". Another respondent suggested "a translator must always educate himself continuously and be prepared to work around the clock". Another suggested that a translator should gain "more knowledge about [the] readers and [the] customers". This ties in with further advice to study the market or commercial aspects of the translation business.

3) Market research was recommended: new translators were advised to study courses in commercial translation. According to one respondent: "market research is crucial". This advice suggests a recognition on the part of professional translators of the need for 'practical translation studies'.

4) Personal traits and professionalism must combine to provide the ability and willingness to work as part of a team. Translators should welcome constructive criticism and feed-back; they should never be ashamed to seek or accept advice or help; they should be able to learn from their mistakes; they must work conscientiously and with integrity. One respondent advised: "translation is a gift, so one must be honest about knowledge and take [a] job only if [one] enjoys it". The understanding of translation as a "gift" endorses the discussion of 'practical translation studies' given in Chapter Three.

5) Translators should acquire skills in using technologies which assist in the translation process (such as typing, word processing etc.)

6) Other advice focused on the frustrations of the translator's work. Seven respondents advised the new translator to ensure he/she had alternative sources of income other than translation. This is a clear indication of the poor rates of remuneration translators may suffer (especially when being obliged or choosing to work part-time). Another wry note was evident in the advice to sort out payment from the client in advance of beginning work. Translators were also advised not to take more work than they had the capacity to handle.

<u>The advice from Kuwait reflected similar concerns</u>:

1) Experience: "cultural knowledge of the target language is crucial".

2) Educational qualifications: one respondent advised: "linguistic competence is essential as well as general knowledge which is a prerequisite". Another suggested that "a translator must read a lot in other languages". The importance of high quality in translation was emphasised: "a translator must stick to quality under any conditions and work hard"; "accuracy and clarity in translation are important"; "it is important to convey the right word and correct meaning". These quotations show a lively sense of the importance of 'equivalence' and of quality control and professionalism in translation practice.

3) There was no advice offered which specifically mentioned the importance of directing efforts towards the market-place. The Kuwaitis tended to emphasise the importance of inter-personal relationships with other members of the translation agency which is only indirectly related to the marketing of translation services.

4) Personal traits were clearly seen as important by the Kuwaiti respondents. Interestingly, the advice seems to be particularly concerned with the efficient use of time as well as the sort of traits identified by the British respondents: "a translator must be punctual, modest and patient"; "punctuality as well as experience and training is necessary".

5) Skills with technology and other translation aides was also mentioned by a Kuwaiti respondent "use modern dictionaries and term banks and know concepts".

6) Advice on the frustrations of the translator's work is perhaps evident in the following: "it is essential to organise time". This probably reflects the Kuwait assessment of the problems in translation which placed overwork at the top of the list.

In summary, the advice offered to prospective translators suggests that professional translators recognise the need for the sort of training combined with practical experience which 'practical translation studies' will offer.

9. Which Categories of Customers are Served:

	INDIVIDUALS	SMALL COMPANIES	LARGE COMPANIES	GOVERNMENTAL AGENCIES
KUWAIT	25.5%	35.1%	30.3%	9%
GREAT BRITAIN	33.3%	25%	19.4%	22.2%

A chi-squared test was applied to discover whether there was any correlation between country and the category from which the translation companies draw most of their customers.

H_0 = The category of the customers and country are independent.

H_1 = There is an association between country and the category of the customers.

The obtained result of the statistical chi-square test:

$\chi^2 = 7.458$, df = 3 which is slightly greater than $\chi^2(3;095) = 7.81$

Thus, slightly rejecting H_1 in which one cell with expected counts less than 0.5.

The test supports the conclusion that if it had been 0.6% significant level, it would have been a definite rejecting to H_0.

This implies that although we must reject H_1, and there is no association between country and the category of customers, there is still a slight chance of association.

10. What Modern Technological Facilities are Used:

Although the majority of respondents' replies indicated that they viewed modern technological facilities as an essential element in providing high quality translation services it was a surprising result of the survey that in both countries only approximately 50% of agencies use word processors. In Kuwait eleven companies out of the twenty-one surveyed use word processors and in Great Britain fifty-eight companies from a total of ninety-nine use word processors. Three agencies in Kuwait and one translation agency in Great Britain stated that they used no technological facilities.

Generally speaking British agencies used more technological aides than the Kuwaiti agencies:

	KUWAITI AGENCIES	BRITISH AGENCIES
BINDING MACHINES	21	-
FAX MACHINES	4	49
TYPEWRITERS	5	-
P.C.s	5	10
AUTOMATED DICTIONARIES	5	-
MODEMS	2	28
DESKTOP PUBLISHING	0	6
PRINTERS	2	5
LASER PRINTER	0	8

Two or less Kuwaiti agencies used the following technology: multilingual typewriters; laser printers.

Four or less British agencies used the following technology: electronic mail; typesetting; scanners; dictating machines; telex; on-line term banks; answering machines; typeprinters; audio typing; various software facilities such as spread sheets.

11. Can Machine Translation Replace Human Translation:

Only two Kuwaiti translation agencies out of the twenty-one surveyed replied "partly yes" to this question. In Great Britain only five from the total of ninety-nine agencies agreed that machine translation could replace human translation. However, in all seven cases a condition was added to this statement: the machine translated text would have to be proof-read, checked and edited by a human translator. The survey clearly demonstrates the widely held opinion amongst professional translators that machine translation has a limited application and cannot ever completely replace human translators. This opinion reflects the belief, indicated by the responses to other questions in this survey, that translation is a "gift" or inalienably human activity which requires creativity, flair, imagination and integrity - qualities which no machine can reproduce.

Those respondents who denied that machine translation could replace human translation gave the following reasons for their opinion. The single most important reason given was that summarised in this response: "machines can never make intelligent choices for equivalence where meaning is involved". Another comment was "a good translator translates 'meaning' rather than context". Another statement suggested that in machine translation the emotional content of a message would be lost. A significant number of respondents held the view that "machines can never cope with style which is essential and any text should never be translated word by word".

The list of negative comments on machine translation goes on: "machines are not flexible in thinking"; "machines can never cope with nuance of language"; machines cannot be "sensitive to the needs of the customers". Where a role for machine translation was conceded was in the translation of repetitive technical texts where the knowledge of cultural differences and wider understanding was not required.

These replies indicate that in professional translation 'best-fit equivalence' and 'actual intended meaning' are the key factors which the translator attempts to present in the target text. This data endorses the discussion of equivalence and meaning offered in Chapter Two and Chapter Three. Since machines cannot replace humans, human translators will always be required. The training of translators is therefore central to the development of the translation industry and investment in the future of the industry must be most effective if it is in the development of training that is designed to increase the competence, confidence and efficiency of professional translators. 'Practical translation studies' offers such a development programme.

12. What Other Factors Affect the Quality of Translation:

All the responses to this question offered by both the Kuwaiti and British agencies covered ground already discussed in the questionnaire. The issues which were re-presented in this sub-section were perhaps of particular importance to the respondents since they chose to write further on these subjects.

Translation agencies in Kuwait mentioned the importance of the following for high quality translations:

1) Necessity of cultural, syntax, terminological and social knowledge in the source and especially in the target language.
2) Linguistic competence

3) Essential necessity of expertise in the subject area
4) Practice and experience
5) Proper recruitment policies for selecting staff
6) Necessity of having a good general knowledge
7) Necessity of good time management and efficiency
8) Necessity of good reading/writing skills
9) Advantage of being located near the centre of the mass media industries

Seventeen British agencies did not complete this section possibly because they had already covered the subject to their satisfaction with earlier responses. Those translation agencies which did reply mentioned the importance of the following for high quality translations:

1) Expertise
2) Quality could be adversely affected by inexperience of translator
3) Quality could be adversely affected by a poor quality original
4) Quality could be adversely affected by insufficient knowledge of the target culture and context
5) Quality could be affected by the purpose for which the translation was intended
6) Translation should be into mother tongue which thus ensures a high standard of competence; accuracy is essential
7) The translator should be working to reasonable deadlines
8) Reading/writing skills affect quality
9) Term banks are a necessity
10) Skills in source and target languages should be up-graded
11) Translations should be subjected to revision and produced with integrity
12) Technical accuracy is essential as is accuracy of facts

13) Translators must be intelligent and interested in translation i.e. highly motivated

14) Knowledge of the target audience is essential

15) Care must be taken in staff recruitment

A further range of responses related quality control to customer relations:

1) Quality is increased by adequate support from the agency and from the customer.

2) Quality can be adversely affected by inadequate

3) Quality can be adversely affected by the ignorance of the customer

4) Quality can be adversely affected if there is inadequate feedback from the customer

It is worth stating that the various problems indicated by this list can be overcome through the following actions:

1) Offering proper support including adequate and efficient training for professional translators - as provided by 'practical translation studies'

2) Implementing the selection methods described in Chapter Three in order to obtain highly qualified and highly motivated staff

3) Providing appropriate and reliable technological aides for high quality and efficient translation

4) By studying the translation market and applying the professionalism described in this dissertation to improving that market and the communications between translators and their customers. This will be discussed further in Chapter Five.

- The final section in the questionnaire asked the respondents to mention any other points which they thought were relevant to the survey. This open-ended question was placed at the end of the questionnaire in order to give the respondents the opportunity to summarise their views on quality control, efficiency, professional training etc.

The Kuwaiti respondents once again emphasised the importance of team-work and of quality control through checking one another's work. They stated that translation is a "gift" and that a professional translator must honestly love and enjoy translation. However, they also recognised the need to motivate staff in order to ensure the highest quality and efficiency especially in light of the fact that translation tends to be undervalued (and under-paid) in society at large.

The British respondents were equally concerned with motivation. Perhaps more cynical than the Kuwaiti respondents, one British respondent stated that with respect to the agency's staff "our best motivation is that we pay them on time". Another British respondent rhetorically asked: "if translators can't motivate themselves what are they worth?". A third response stated the policy on motivation thus: "we are friendly". They also returned to the discussion of quality control and the key importance of 'actual intended meaning' and equivalence: "a translator must always get into the mind of the writer to convey the correct message".

A very important issue for translation agencies was that of the undervaluing of translation services by customers and others. The respondents seemed well aware of the necessity to improve the public's perception of the profession and some suggested that concerned parties such as cooperative groups of translation agencies or a government department should act to impose standards to maintain the quality of the service offered by translation agencies and to increase quality by encouraging professionalism. As one respondent expressed it this would help eliminate "unfair competition from the cowboys".

The drive for greater professionalism was well represented in the responses from the agencies surveyed. The questionnaires revealed a strong consensus of opinion that translators must be honest and self-critical in pursuit of high quality translation. Together with this professional ethos there is a general acceptance of the essential necessity of continuing professional training and of ever increasing expertise.

At the same time the respondents never forget that they are engaged in a commercial enterprise and that the judge of their professionalism is ultimately the market and the customer. As one respondent expressed it " the ultimate judge is the customer". The problem for professional translation is to balance the demands of the customer and of commercial viability with the demands of the profession and the drive towards higher quality and a higher public status for the profession and its services.

Several respondents stated their dismay that translation is a profession where the translator's competence generally reaches its highest stage only when the translator is no longer able to work professionally. Hopefully, specialist training which fits translators especially for professional practice will counter this tendency by making more efficient use of the years of training and experience translators are obliged to pass through in order to become competent at their profession.

NOTES

CHAPTER FOUR

1 MOSER & KARLTON (1972) passim

2 OPPENHEIM (1992) p100

3 ibid p122

4 THEIRAUF, R. ..et..al (1977) p76

5 SMITH & DUNCAN (1945) p153

6 WONNOCOTT, Thomas & Ronald (1969) p6

7 NEAVE, H.R. (1988) p534

8 BRISLIN (1976) p1

CHAPTER FIVE

CHAPTER FIVE DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the results of the survey described in Chapter Four will be interpreted and related to the theoretical discussion presented in Chapters Two and Three. This discussion will take the form of a general analysis of the information gathered question by question. On the basis of this general analysis a model of the typical translation agency in Kuwait and in Great Britain will be described. These typical agencies will then be contrasted with an 'ideal agency' which will combine the strengths of the actual practice in each country. This ideal will also reflect the conclusions of the theoretical discussion in earlier chapters and represent the way in which 'practical translation studies' would operate in practice. The ideal would thus combine the best in present practice amongst commercial translation agencies with the best understanding of translation procedures available from present scholarship.

It is hoped that this ideal agency will illustrate how professionalism, quality control and efficiency can be established and maintained in translation agencies. As an illustration of professionalism it will provide a standard against which to measure achievement or failure in translation practice.

5.2 General Discussion of the Findings of the Survey

General Information:

5.2.1 The introductory question of the survey referred to the date of establishment of the translation agency. Clearly, the information gathered by this question is not a direct measure of the number of businesses established in any decade. The survey only questioned those agencies which were still in business. It is probable that some agencies established in the 1950's or other decades had subsequently failed. In this respect it is interesting to note that of the questionnaires sent to British agencies twelve were returned by the post office because the businesses had ceased trading. However, assuming that the causes of business failure are constant over time then it is possible to infer from the percentages of agencies surviving, the percentages of agencies established. From this it is possible to gain an indication of the rate of establishment of agencies and thus of the growth rate of the translation market.

The information received indicates marked differences betweenKuwait and Great Britain (see Figure 5.1). In Great Britain a few surviving agencies had been established since the 1950's (3.75%) which contrasts with the absence of Kuwaiti agencies from this decade (0.0%). Interestingly, the total percentage of agencies established during the 1950's and 1960's in Great Britain (10.50%) is almost half that established in Kuwait in the 1960's (19.03%). Clearly, the growth rate in the Kuwait translation market in the 1960's was far greater than that in Great Britain.

There are possible historical reasons for this difference. Kuwait gained independence from Great Britain in 1961 and took on responsibility for its own international affairs. Prior to this date it is probable that translation services were provided through the colonial bureaucracy. The experience of colonialism with its legacy of English as the official language together with economic reliance on the oil industry must have created a particularly strong demand for translation services from 1961.

In the 1970's and 1980's the percentage of translation agencies established in Kuwait and Great Britain are roughly equal. However, although the rate of establishment of agencies in Kuwait seems to have declined in the 1970's, in Great Britain the 1970's reflect a three-fold increase on the percentages of agencies established in the two previous decades (23.75% compared with 10.50%). This rapid expansion of the British translation industry may reflect the entry into the European Common Market by Great Britain in 1973.

Figure 5.1

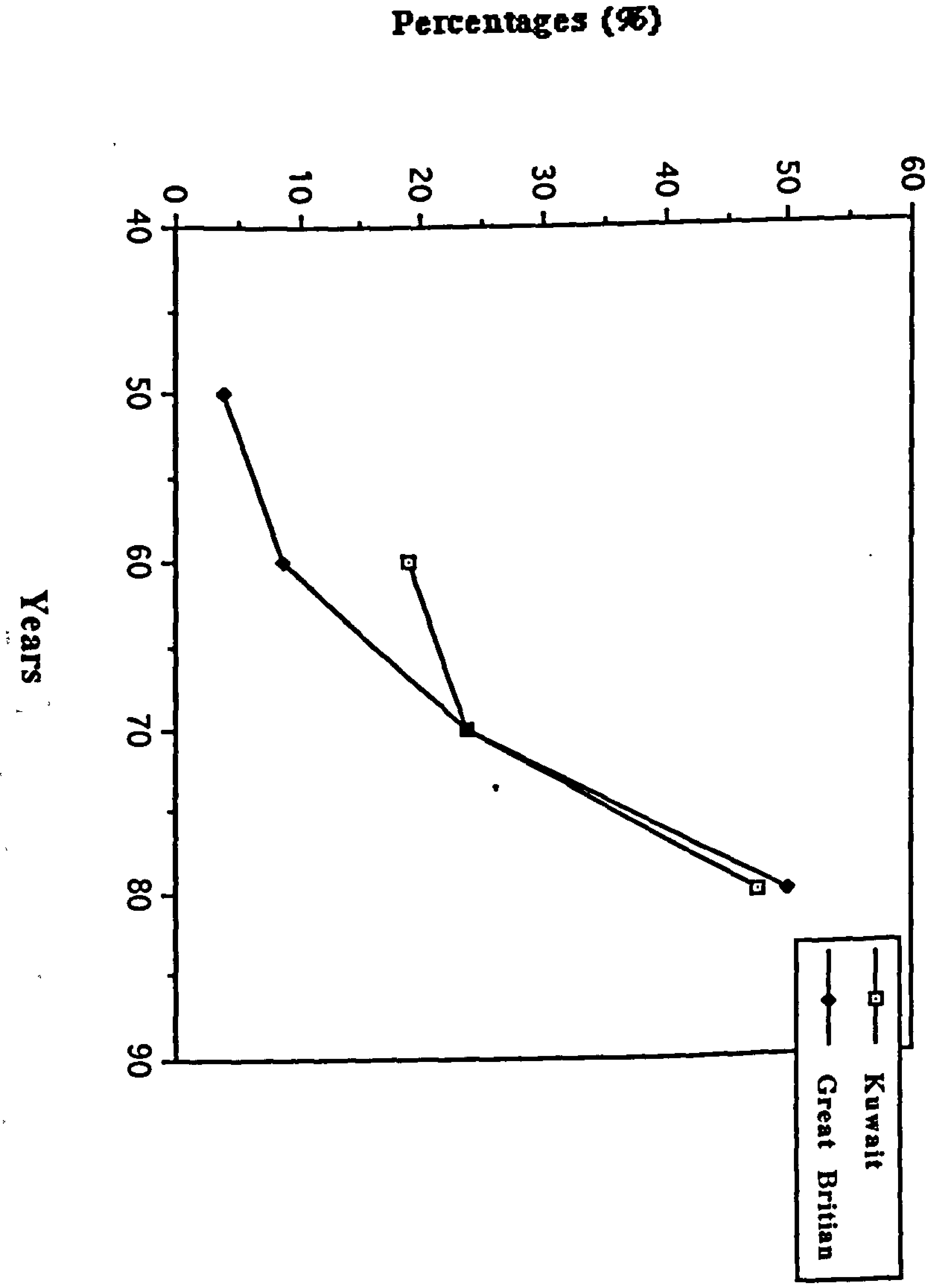


Figure 5.1: Date Of Establishment Of Translation Companies.

Despite the different rates of growth over the last four decades, Kuwait and Great Britain seem to have reached a similar rate of development in the 1980's with respectively 50.00% and 47.64% of responding agencies established in the last ten years or so. It is possible that this high proportion of new businesses reflects the fact that the translation market is still expanding. However, it is not possible to establish from these figures the extent to which these new businesses are opening new markets rather than simply taking over the markets of those older businesses which have failed. Thus, although this information reveals the changing nature of the translation industry it does not indicate whether this change is a mark of improvement, the establishment of a definite trend towards greater professionalism for example, rather than simply a state of flux.

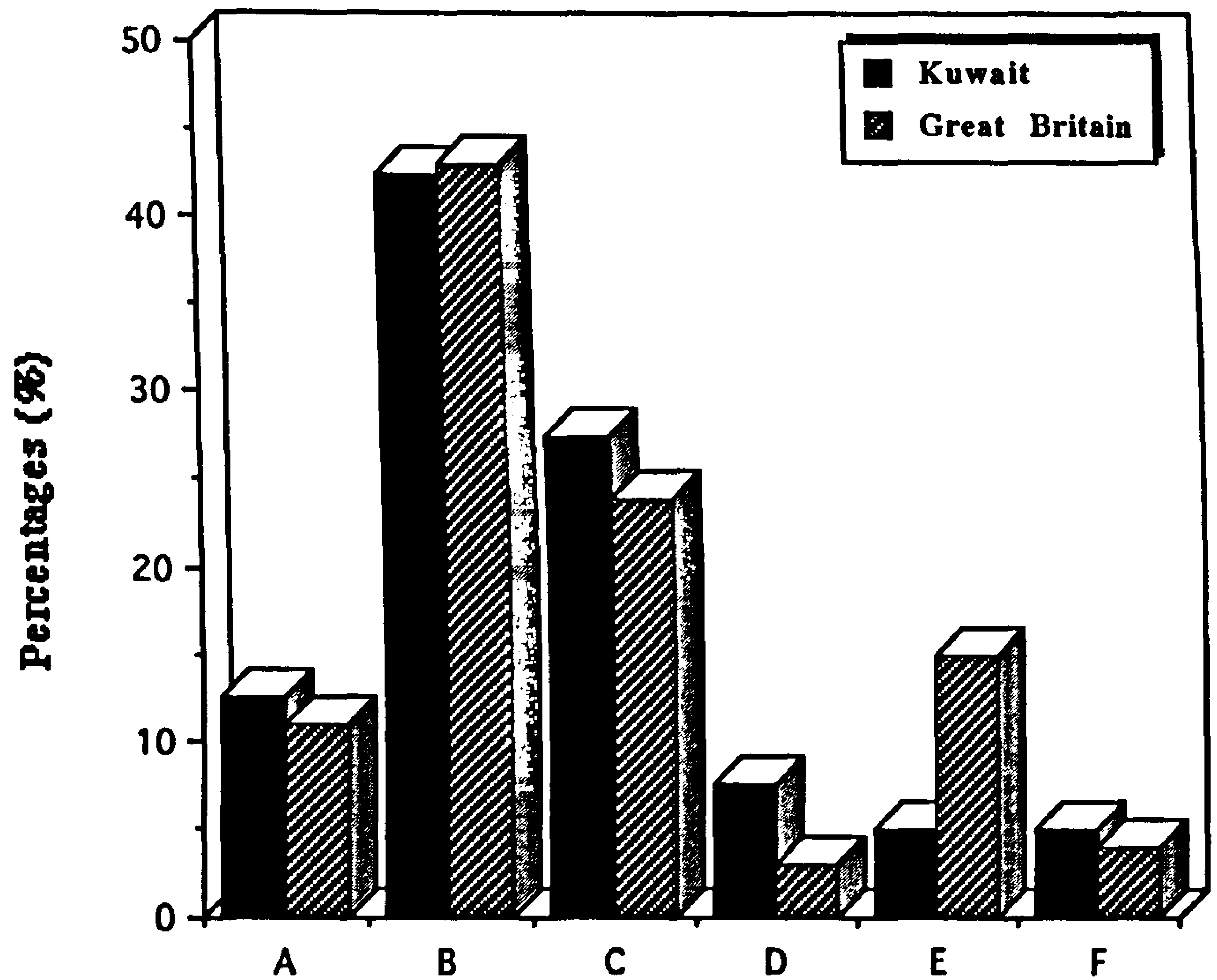
5.2.2 The next introductory question of the survey was concerned to discover the number of part-time and full-time translators employed by agencies. In the first instance this information was required as an indication of the present scale of the industry. The number of translators working full-time in Great Britain may be estimated on the basis of this survey at 7,063 the number of part-time translators at 101,909. To this must be added a due proportion of clerical and secretarial assistants to give an industry of over 108,972 persons in total. This compares with figures for Kuwait: full-time translators 84 and part-time translators 168 added with a due proportion of clerical and secretarial assistants to give an industry of over 252 persons in total.

Part-time employment in other industries usually indicates poor working conditions and low quality produce. The high proportion of part-time translators may indicate that the translation industry is labour intensive but offers poor working conditions to employees. The high proportion of part-time translators may be a barrier to professionalism if part-time translators are unwilling or unable to invest time and effort in developing translation competence when they have other employment or professional commitments. On the other hand, this non-specialisation in translation may indicate an influx of professionals in other fields (e.g., specialists in medicine, technologies or sciences who undertake one-off translations) into the translation field. The high proportion of part-time translators may therefore be either a strength or a weakness of the industry, professionalism must take this into account.

5.2.3 The first question of the survey sought information on the qualifications held by translators employed in agencies. There was no statistically significant difference between Kuwait and Great Britain in the qualifications held by translators or in the agencies' evaluation of these qualifications (see Figure 5.2). Both countries held the degree as the most usual qualification for translators (Kuwait: 42.5%; Great Britain: 43.3%) with post-graduate degrees or other professional qualifications next in order (Kuwait: 27.5%; Great Britain 24.1%). The preference for post-graduate qualifications may indicate a preference for translators who have both language skills and knowledge in specialist fields which in turn may be a reflection of the fact that in both Kuwait and Great Britain the education system tends to produce specialists (medicine, technology, science etc.) who do not have adequate foreign language skills and therefore need translation services. The relatively low percentages with both language skills and other specialist knowledge indicates room for expansion into the specialist translation market for those translators who are, or who can become doubly qualified.

Interestingly, both countries gave a quite high proportion of translators without formal qualifications (Kuwait: 12%; Great Britain: 10.7%). Thus, while most translators have formal qualifications and may be taken as 'professionals' there is still room within translation practice for the gifted amateur or those without formal qualifications.

Figure 5.2: The Qualification Percentages Of Practised Translators.



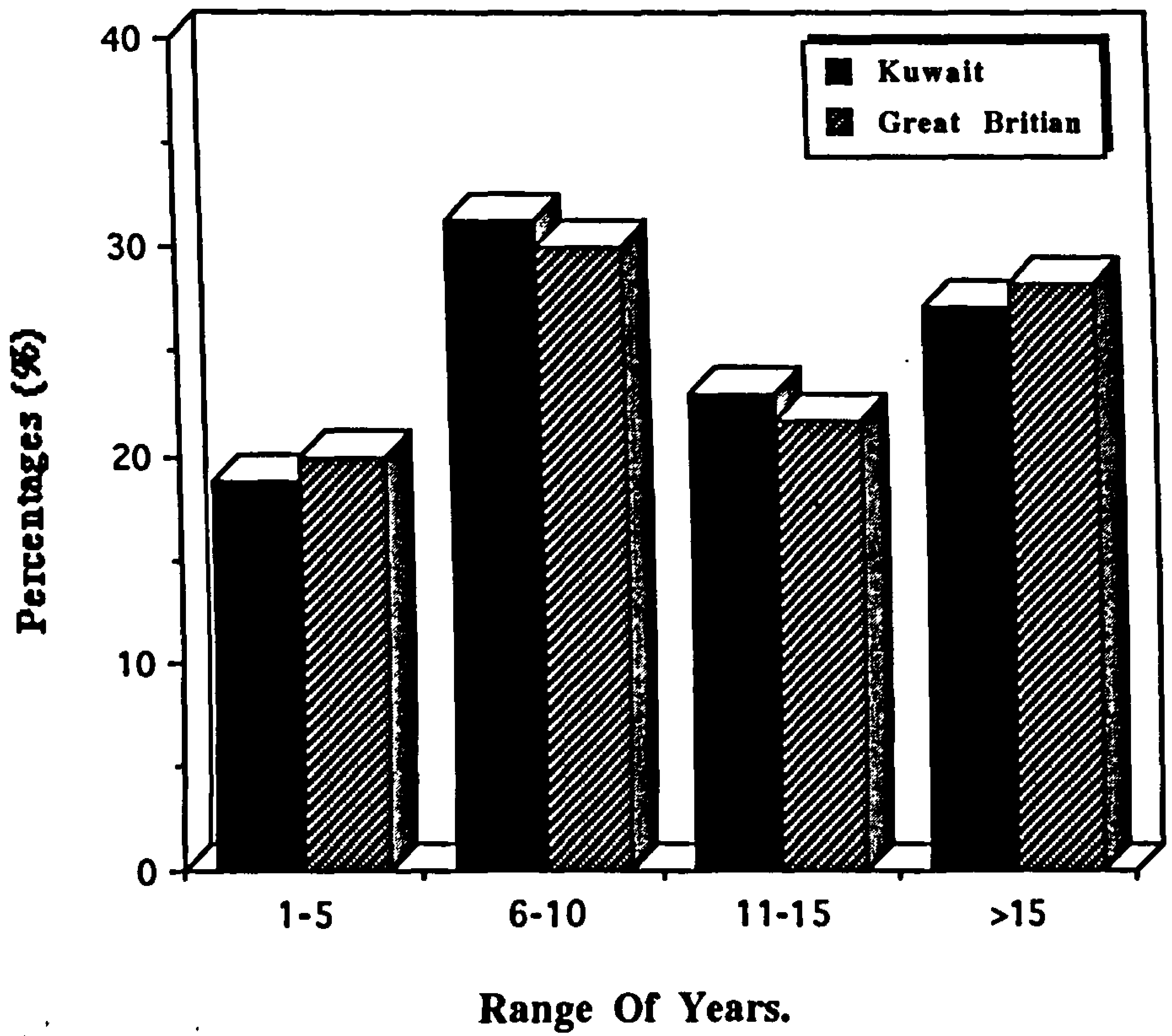
A: No Higher Qualification.
B: Graduate Degree.
C: Post Graduate Diploma.
D: Ph.D Holders.
E: Affliates Of Translation Recognized Institute.
F: Specialized Field.

As with the high incidence of part-time translators, it is difficult to determine from this information alone whether the presence of translators without formal qualifications is an indicator of low quality (or indeed that the possession of high formal qualifications is a guarantee of quality). The most helpful conclusion to draw from this information is the necessity to discover which qualities are offered by the translator with/without formal qualifications which makes them employable and to ensure that the formal training of translators ('practical translation studies') does not exclude these qualities. The preference on the part of the agencies for some formal qualifications indicates that the industry itself places greater trust in some formal training procedures.

5.2.4 The second question of the survey sought information about the number of years experience translators had in their field (see Figure 5.3). There was no statistically significant difference between Kuwait and Great Britain, in both countries most translators in employment had 6-10 years experience (Kuwait: 31.3%; Great Britain: 30%). The next highest percentage was over 15 years, then 6-10 years, with the smallest percentage of translators having the lowest number of years experience 0-5 years (Kuwait: 18.8%; Great Britain: 20%). This is a clear preference for experience which suggests a tendency to prefer translators who have regular employment, or perhaps a tendency (despite the high part-time figures) to employ full-time personnel or to re-employ the same part-time personnel. This indicates a level of stability in the translation industry which tends to support the hypothesis that the translation industry has not only expanded over time but has also improved in professionalism over time.

As experience is a preferred qualification it would suggest that any 'practical translation studies' must involve a period of practical employment, a structured time designed to give the best possible quality of work-experience to trainees. It suggests a period of practical, on-the-job training after the initial degree similar to that undergone by doctors.

Figure 5.3: Years Of Experience For Practised Translators.

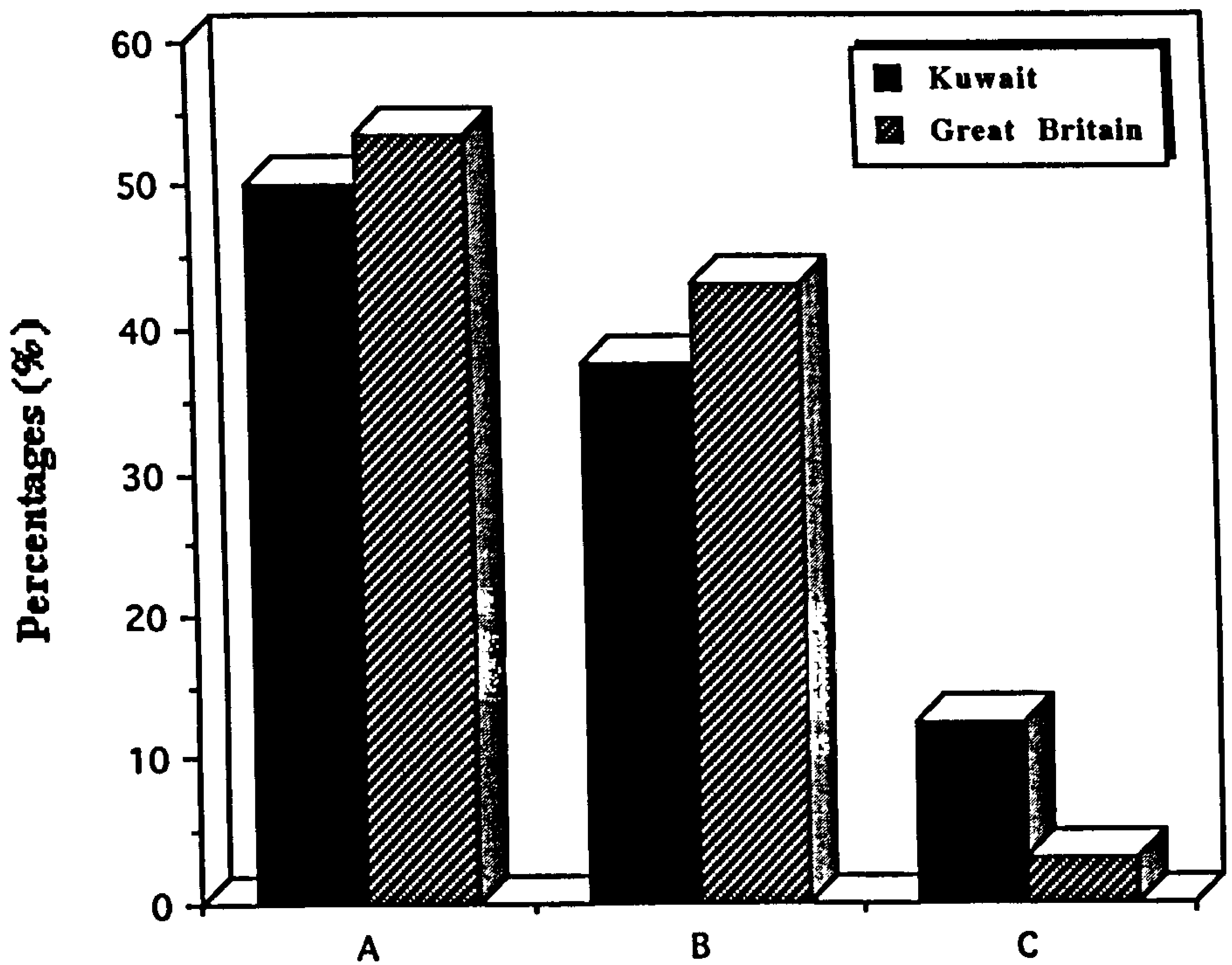


5.2.5 The third question in the survey sought information about the other services provided by translation agencies. As discussed in Chapter Four, numerous other services are provided by agencies. Given the advice to prospective translators that they should ensure alternative sources of income (see Section 4.5) this non-specialisation may indicate the fact that translation alone does not raise sufficient income and this in turn suggests that translation services are underpaid or undervalued. If the translation profession invested in publicity designed to increase the public's perception of translators as providing a truly professional service then translators could demand and receive reasonable remuneration for their work. Of course, this publicity would have to be backed by actual improvements in training and the commercial services provided. Hence the necessity for 'practical translation studies'.

5.2.6 The fourth question in the survey sought information about agencies' methods for attracting customers (see Figure 5.4). The most usual method was by personal recommendation (Kuwait: 53%; Great Britain: 50%). This indicates that the industry is greatly dependent on producing high quality work and that personal relationships play a large part in its economy. This emphasis on personal relationships confirms the impression gained from 5.2.4 that the industry is strongly inclined to stability and to expansion by increased quality and productivity.

The second most usual method for attracting customers was through advertising. As Lambin (1976) explains, advertising usually serves as a major vehicle for rivalry, placing similar products in direct competition with one another. A company which wins an advertising war may enjoy a position of dominance in the market which is equivalent to a monopoly in the extent to which all custom is directed through that company. Since advertising is an expensive service only the larger or richer companies can afford this aggressive marketing policy. Such an advertising war might produce a few large semi-monopoly companies and drive smaller businesses either into bankruptcy or into serving highly specialised markets (1). However, given the bias to

Figure 5.4: Customers Resource.



A: By Recommendation.
B: By Advertisements.
C: By Other Means.

professionalism already existing in the translation industry such aggressive activity is likely to be counter-productive.

The most beneficial advertising policies must be those which emphasise the high quality and professionalism of the product since it is these factors which already sell translation services most effectively. The two methods of attracting customers, recommendation and advertising, could thus work together, word-of-mouth enforcing advertisement claims. An advertising campaign which promoted the industry as a whole (rather than any single agency) would ultimately be beneficial for the whole profession. To be professional and to be perceived as professionals would enable agencies to increase the remuneration they could expect for services; to expand the market by increasing customer demand and to improve the product by reinforcing the existing tendency towards greater quality control.

5.2.7 The fifth question in the survey sought information on the annual turnover of translation agencies (see Figure 5.5). There was no statistically significant difference between the two countries. An annual turnover of between £10,000 and £100,000 was the most common (Kuwait: 48%; Great Britain: 57%). No company had a turnover above £5,000,000 and only about one-fifth of the agencies surveyed had a turnover above £500,000. The similarity of income levels in both countries suggests a similarity of market forces creating a similar profitability (assuming overheads were basically the same in each country). This is a relatively low annual turnover. It indicates that, at least at this stage in the development of the industry, that competition between agencies (e.g., advertising wars) would be neither affordable nor beneficial. At this small scale a pooling of resources in the creation of facilities such as promotion of the industry through advertising or by professional training schemes is not only practicable but necessary.

Specific Information:

5.2.8 The first question in this section of the survey sought information on the importance assigned to different professional qualifications by agencies when selecting translation staff (see Figure 5.6). There was a statistically significant difference in the replies from agencies in Kuwait and from agencies in Great Britain. The Kuwaiti agencies placed greatest emphasis upon experience (66%) whilst the British agencies considered linguistic competence of most importance (77%). This suggests that the Kuwaiti translation industry places greater reliance on non-formal qualifications than the British industry. These factors were reversed in the second most important factor, Kuwaiti agencies placing linguistic competence next in importance (52%) and British agencies placing experience next in importance (56%). The difference between the two countries could therefore be seen as a difference in nuance or emphasis rather than a diametrically opposed understanding of translation.

These differences in nuance suggest quite subtly differentiated models of the ideal translator. The Kuwait agencies considered personal traits in the prospective employee to be much more important than was the case in Great Britain (10% and 0.85% respectively). But the Kuwaiti agencies also gave greater weight to academic qualifications than did the British agencies (38% and 23% respectively). The Kuwaiti agencies also placed less importance on expertise in a specialised field (42% compared with 50% for the British) and on wide general knowledge (33% compared with 37% for the British). This suggests that the Kuwaiti's ideal translator combines formal and informal qualifications with a balanced character or personality. The importance given to personality or character suggests an understanding of translation which sees translation as something irreducible to mere technique.

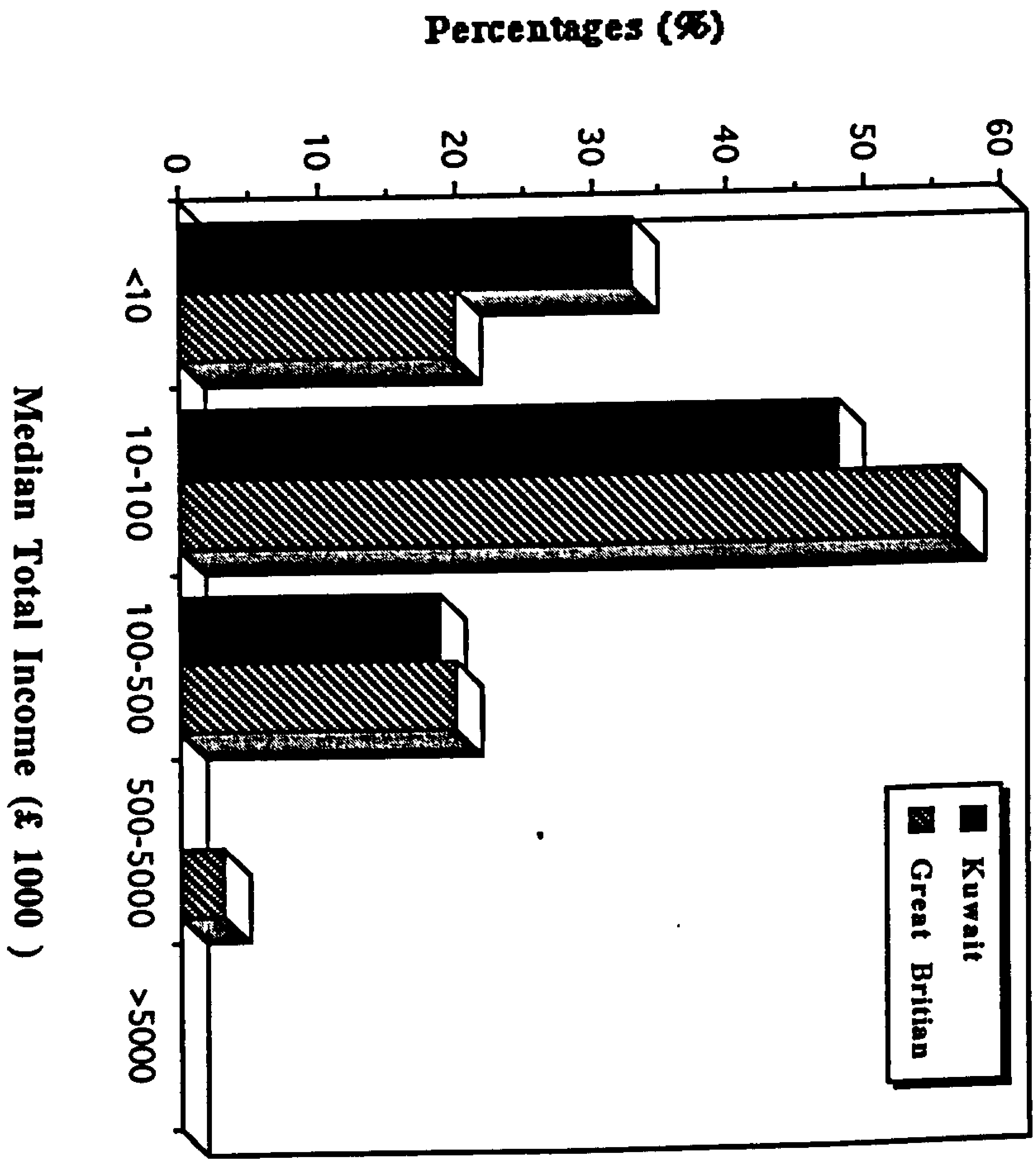


Figure 5.5: Annual Turnover For Translation Business.

Figure 5.6 (a): Percentages Of Important Factors Used In Selecting The Translation Staff In Kuwait.

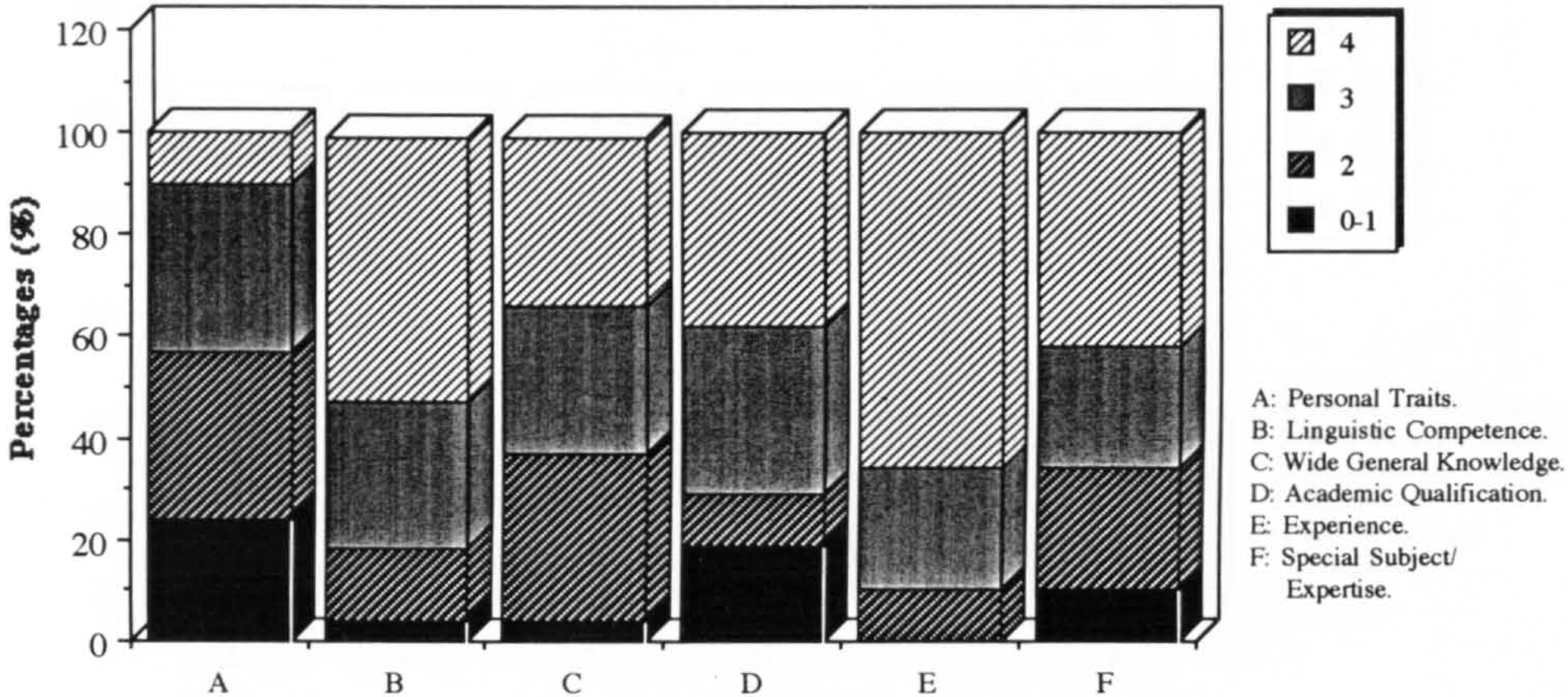
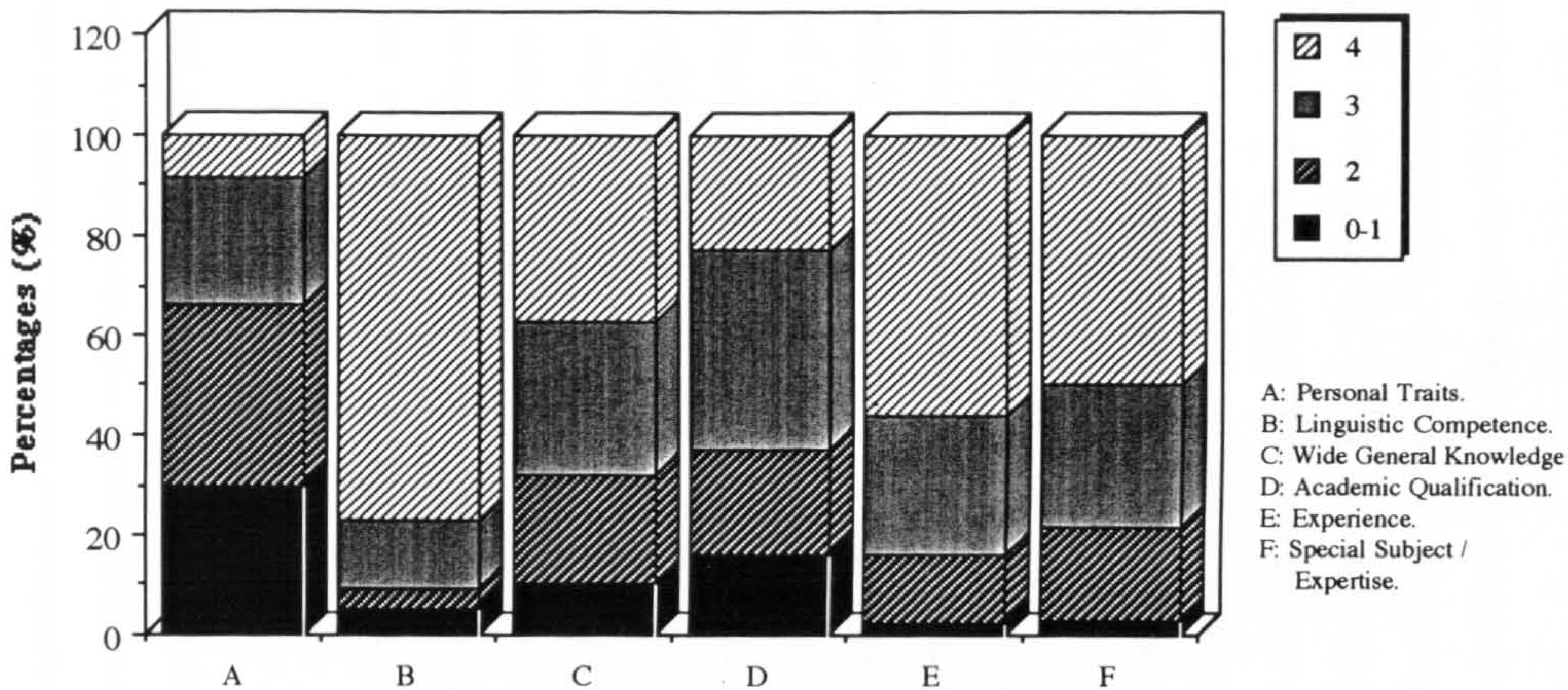


Figure 5.6(b): Percentages Of Important Factors Used In Selecting The Translation Staff In Great Britain.



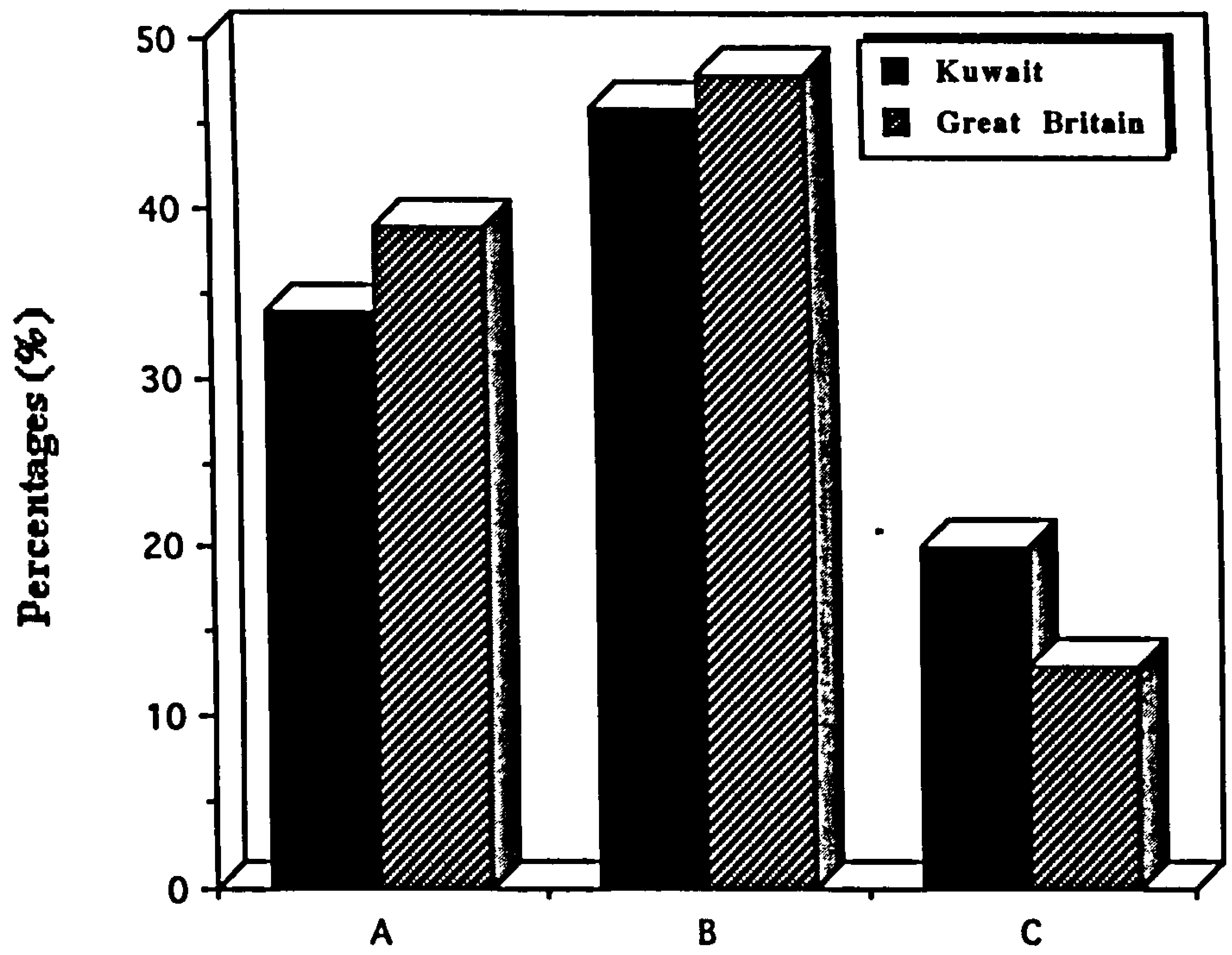
By contrast the British ideal translator has high linguistic competence combined with wide general knowledge and specialist expertise: an emphasis on knowledge rather than personality, creativity or imagination. This suggests that there is a greater tendency in British agencies to see translation as a technical and rational process. With such a model of the translation process and of the translator it is reasonable to suppose that British agencies would be more inclined to accept the possibility of machine translation.

The conclusion to be drawn from this survey is that the development of professionalism in translation practice has a choice. There can be increased emphasis of the national model (a greater emphasis in Kuwait on the translator as an 'artist' and in Britain on the technical translator) which would create two broad schools of specialisation which are not in rivalry with one another because of their concern with different translation products. Alternatively, the two national 'schools' could learn from one another and produce a joint model of translation and the ideal translator which emphasises the strengths of each national model. In either instance it is, of course, necessary for the agencies in each country to be aware of one another in order to come to this understanding of what they are and what they could become.

5.2.9 The second question in the second section of the questionnaire sought information about the methods used for assessing the abilities of translation staff (see Figure 5.7). There was no statistically significant difference between the methods used in Kuwait and those used in Great Britain. The most popular method of assessment was written tests (Kuwait: 48%; Great Britain: 46%) followed by interviews (Kuwait: 39%; Great Britain: 34%) and then probation (Kuwait: 13%; Great Britain: 20%).

These results are surprising given the consensus of academic opinion that written tests are an inefficient and unreliable method of quality control. The methods of assessing quality are also incongruous with the models of the ideal translator, especially the

Figure 5.7: Percentages Of Methods Used In Assessing Translation Staff.



A: Interviews.
B: Written Tests.
C: Probation.

Kuwaiti model, since they place emphasis on technical ability (linguistic competence, specialist knowledge etc.) without testing the informal qualifications (such as personality, creativity, wide general knowledge etc.) which both British and Kuwaiti agencies claim to value.

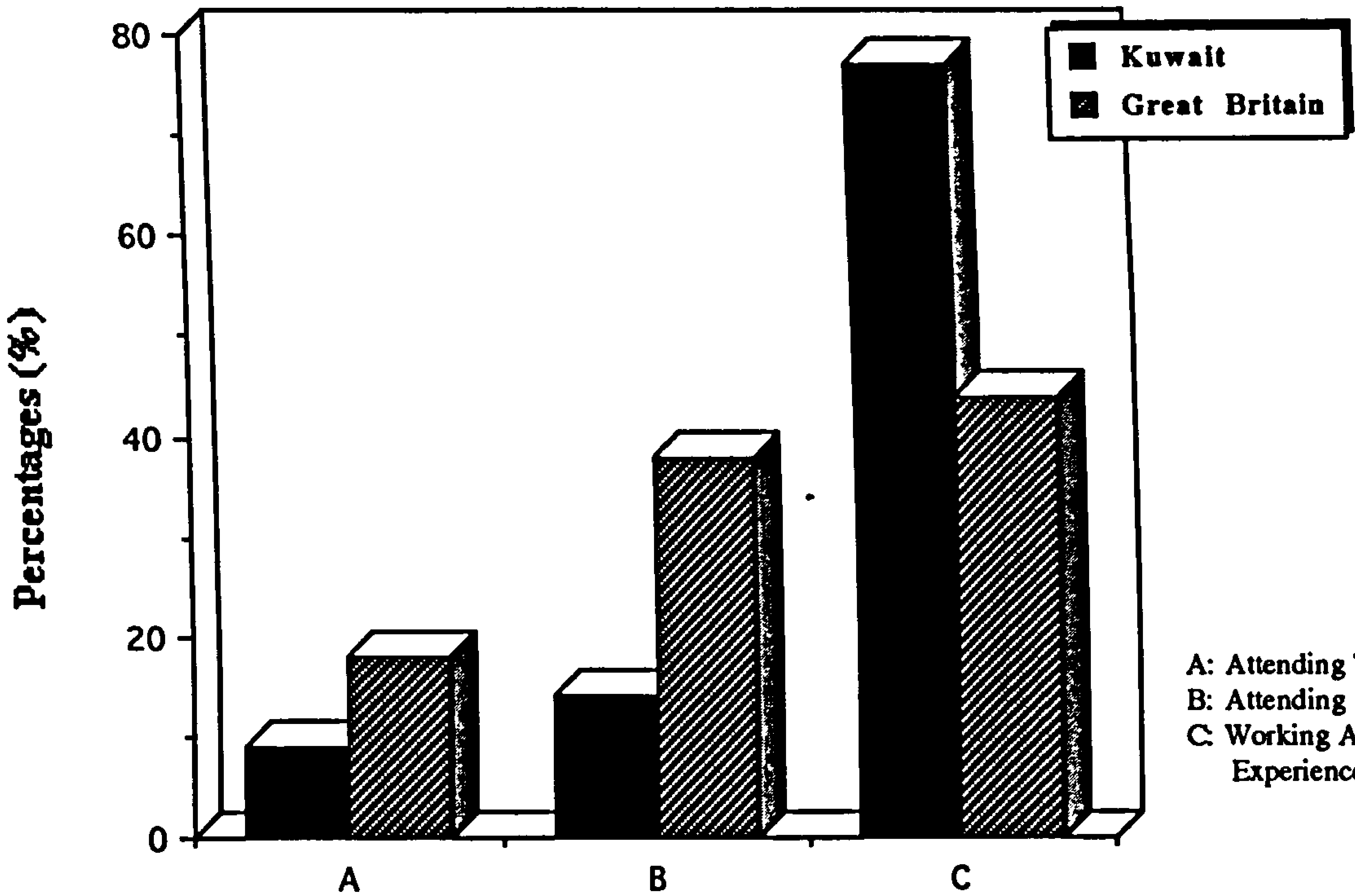
The next most popular method of assessment was the interview. Whilst the interview does extend the range of assessment to the non-technical abilities it still remains a relatively crude method for assessing staff since the interview situation is artificial and unlike normal day to day working in an agency.

A period of probation would be the fairest method for assessing the broad range of qualities the agencies said they were seeking in a translator since this would expose the translator to the many various tasks involved in the process of translation from first sight of the source document to the finished target text. It is not clear why agencies tended not to use this method.

It is apparent from the replies to this question that there is some confusion in agency practice which allows inappropriate methods to be used: a clearer understanding of the agency's aims and then of the most efficient methods for achieving those aims is obviously needed. This is a matter which 'practical translation studies' must take into account.

5.2.10 The third question in this section sought information about the methods used for developing the competence of translators (see Figure 5.8). There is a statistically significant difference in methods used in Kuwait and Great Britain. In Kuwait working alongside experienced staff was the most usual method used (77%) this far out-weighed other methods such as attending training courses (9%) or seminars (14%). Such an emphasis on inter-personal relationships within the agency and within the translation process reflects the Kuwaiti model of the ideal translator

Figure 5.8: Percentages Of Methods Used For Developing The Translators' Competence.



A: Attending Training Courses.
B: Attending Seminars.
C: Working Along Side
Experienced Staff.

which places relatively high importance on the non-formal, non-technical qualities of the translator (see 5.2.8).

By contrast, the British agencies relied on a wider training basis using work alongside experienced staff (44%) together with seminars (38%) and training courses (18%). These methods echo the British model of the ideal translator described above (see 5.2.8) since they give greater importance to technical and formal abilities than is the case with Kuwaiti agencies.

The advantages of informal training, working and learning alongside colleagues are various. Training within the agency (rather than in seminars and training courses possibly provided by external sources such as universities) fosters teamwork and a team spirit. This obviously improves the working environment and thus the efficiency of translators. The team ethos encourages a friendly atmosphere within which it is possible to make constructive criticisms without causing offence or destroying the good working environment. This in turn leads to franker exchanges and the sharing of expertise which leads to the creation of a higher quality product. Moreover the training is always directed towards achieving the commercial purposes of the agency rather than following some more abstract agenda.

On the other hand, seminars and formal training courses also have their uses. Such methods of training tend to be time consuming and expensive but this may be an efficient use of resources if the translation staff thereby acquire practical and commercially beneficial skills. One of the most obvious applications of such courses is in training staff in the use of new technologies - an investment which pays for itself in increased productivity and product quality, something that customers will soon recognise.

As with the discussions on the earlier questions in this section, the conclusion to be drawn from this information is that there is a degree of confusion in present agency practices which makes those agencies less efficient than they might be. The process for resolving this confusion is firstly, to set out the aims of the agencies: to identify the model of translation and of translator which the agency wishes to use. This may either be an emphasis of national difference or the development of a compromise between the Kuwaiti and British models. Having decided upon a model it is then necessary to follow appropriate methods for promoting those desired characteristics. From this will follow the decision either to place more emphasis on formal qualifications, technical skill, formal training and assessments by written tests etc. or to place the emphasis on non-formal qualifications, inter-personal skills, informal training methods, teamwork and assessments by probation.

At present, whilst the agencies agree in valuing non-formal qualifications in translators they do not seem to use methods for assessing abilities or promoting abilities which assess or promote non-formal skills.

5.2.11 The fourth question in this section sought information on how agencies motivated their staff (see Figure 5.9). On the whole the respondents from both countries gave the same replies. The most popular method for motivating staff was to offer bonuses (Kuwait: 61%; Great Britain: 52%). After this the two countries again divided according to the national model of translation. Kuwaiti agencies with their emphasis upon inter-personal relations used letters of appreciation (28%) as the second most usual motivator followed by giving certificates (11%). British agencies by contrast preferred to give certificates of competence (26%) before letters of appreciation (22%). This change of emphasis again reflects the British tendency to view translation in terms of formal qualifications and technical, impersonal skills. In addition, both used the method of verbal appraisal and maintaining good courteous relationships. However, the British companies were more aware of the significance of customer satisfaction.

5.2.12 The fifth question in this section sought information on the types of translation material tackled by the translation agencies (see Figure 5.10). The types of material tackled differed quite markedly between the two countries. In Kuwait, for example, the most usual type of material translated was press and current affairs (81%) followed by medical texts (76%). In Britain the usual materials were commercial (79%) followed by technical (77%). Press and current affairs were eighth in importance (53%) and medical sixth in importance (60%).

It is interesting to speculate whether the different models of translation and translator which are current in Kuwait and Great Britain are the cause of these differences or the effect.

Unfortunately, it is not possible to determine whether the type of material tackled in each case causes the Kuwait agencies to emphasise non-technical translation (current affairs) and the British agencies technical translation (commercial and technical materials) or whether the agencies receive these materials for translation because of their translation methods. At least this information confirms the commercial viability of both translation models/agency practices in their respective cultural and economic contexts. The further question, whether the British type of translation agency would be successful in Kuwait and vice versa remains to be tested.

5.2.13 The sixth question in the second section of the questionnaire sought information about the bases on which agencies assessed the quality of translated materials. The replies to this question have been discussed in detail in Chapter Four.

Figure 5.9: Percentages Of Motivating Means For The Translation Staff.

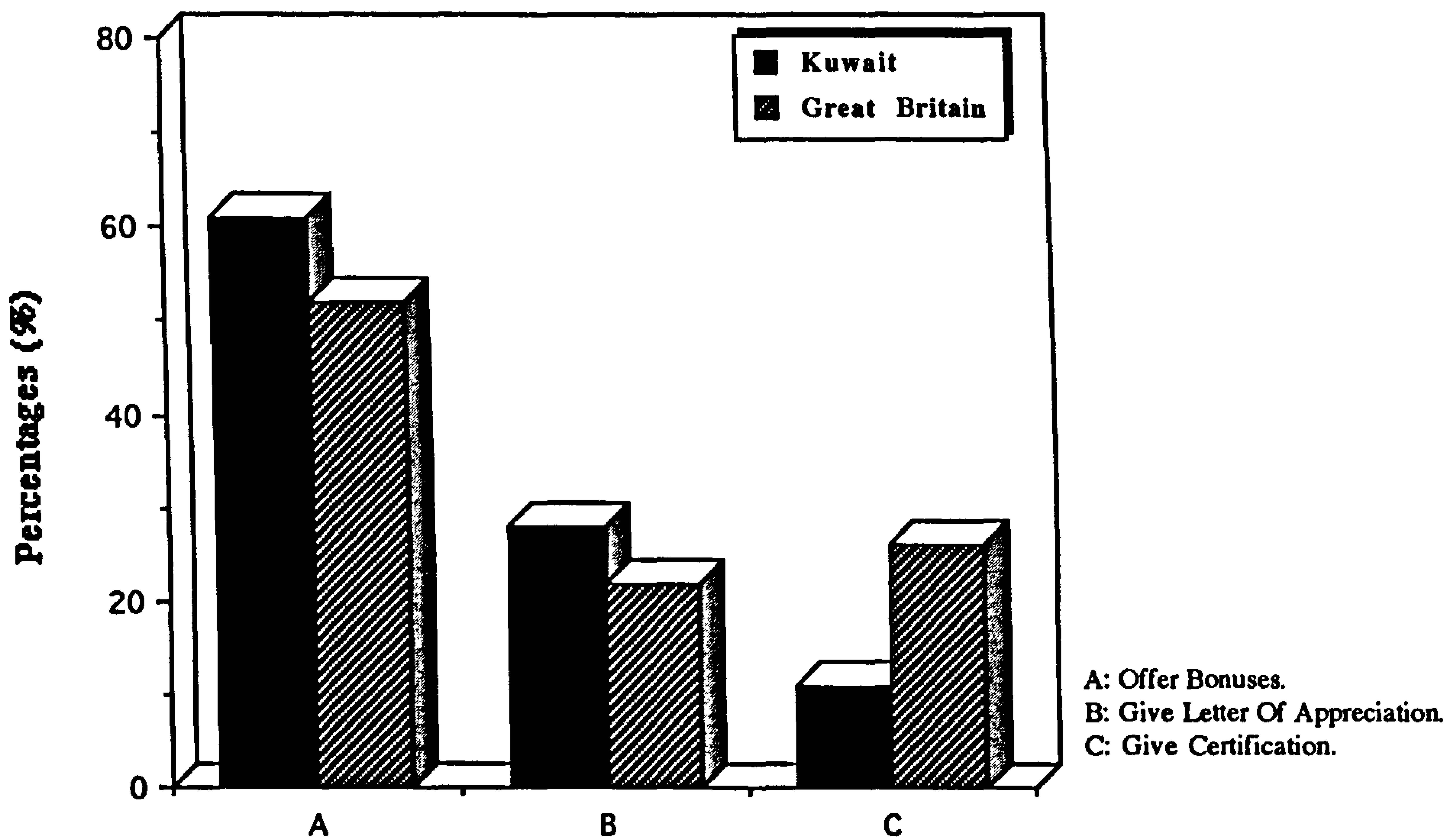


Figure 5.10 (a): Percentages Of The Translation Material Tracked In Kuwait.

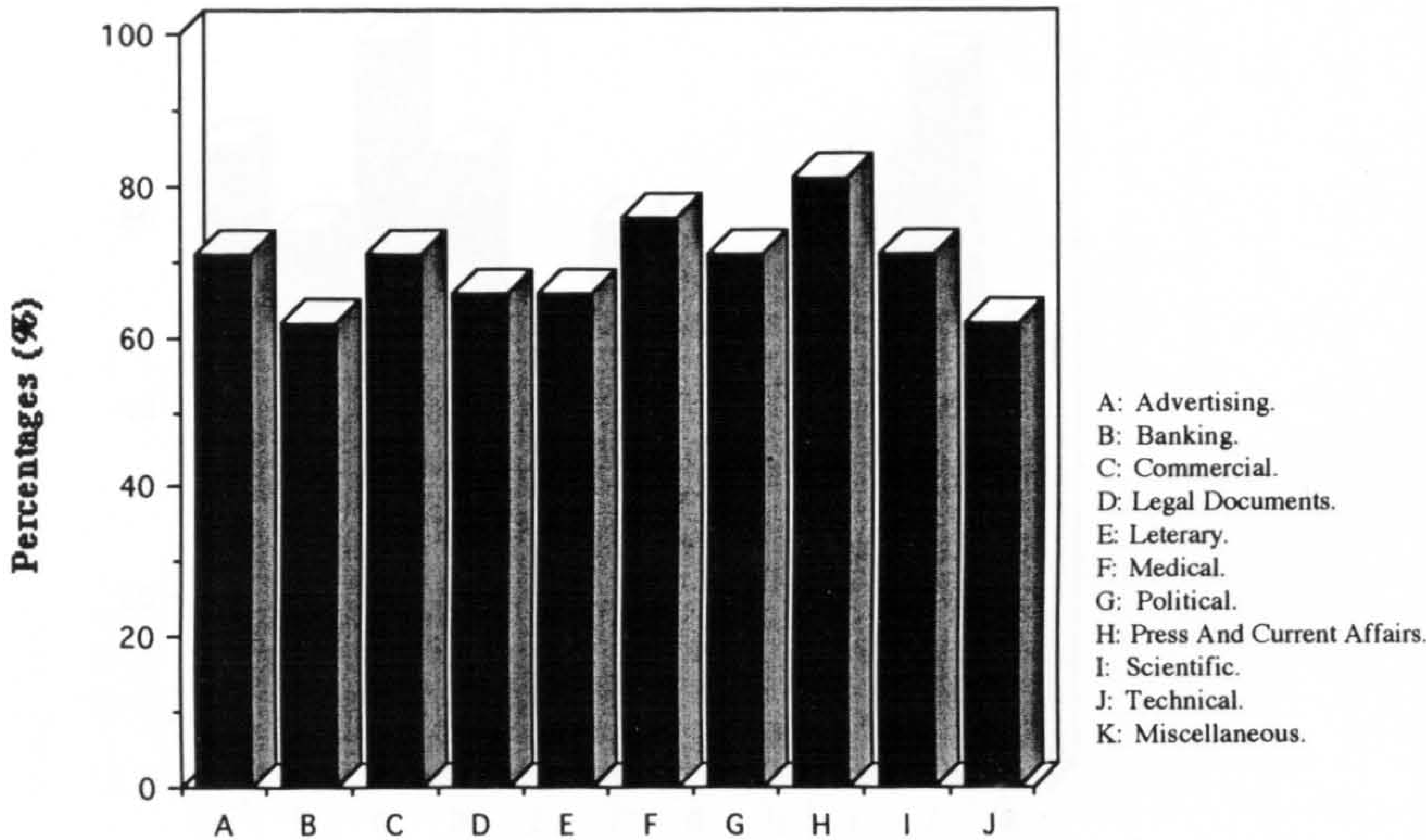
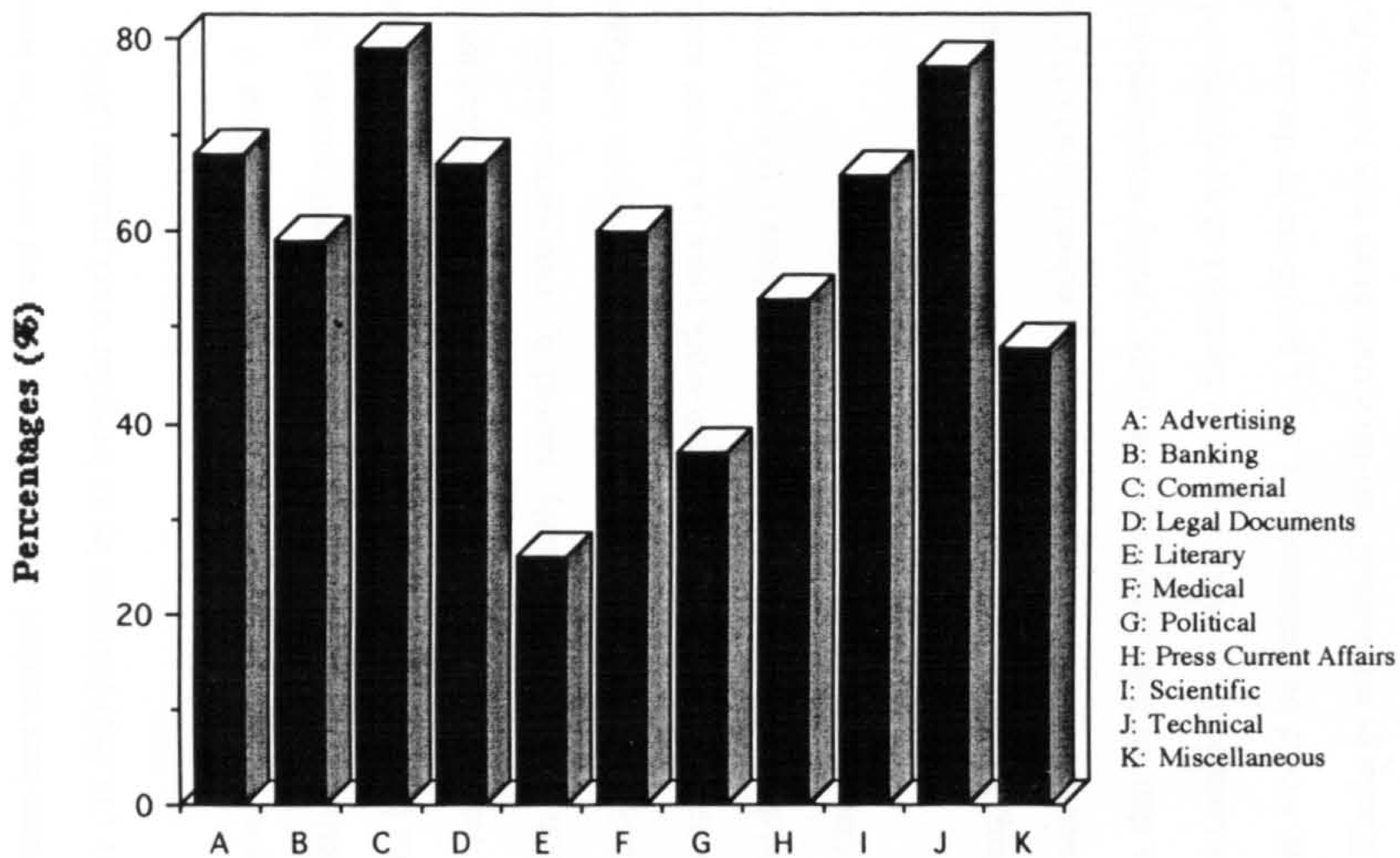


Figure 5.10(b): Percentages Of The Translation Material Tackled In Great Britain

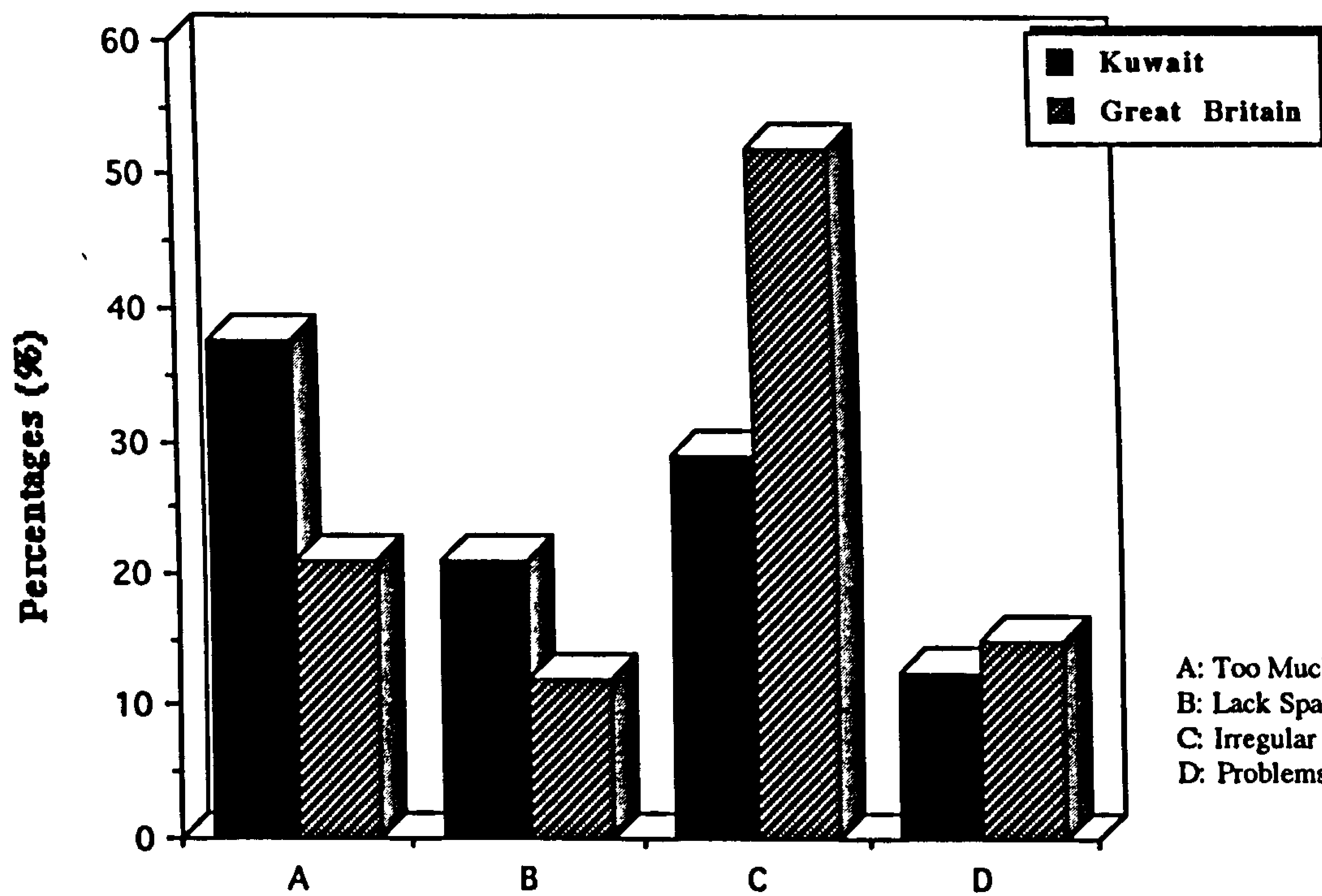


5.2.14 The seventh question in this section sought information from the agencies on the nature and probability of different problems in their work. The statistical analysis of the responses suggested a slight statistical difference in the experiences of the two countries (see Figure 5.11). The major problem identified by British agencies was the irregular work pattern (52%) followed by too much work (20.9%). In Kuwait the problems were less marked and placed in a different order. The worst problem was too much work (37.5%) followed by an irregular work pattern (29%).

While there may be many causes of these different problems it is interesting to speculate whether these problems are to some extent caused by the model of translation used by the agencies. In Kuwait, where the emphasis is upon inter-personal relations and team-work there is a lower perception of difficulties at work. Those problems which do exist are mainly caused by over-work which may reflect the tendency to include training in the translation process which increases the perceived workload. Because of the emphasis on team-work there is a lower sense of an irregular work-load which suggests that the team system keeps the pattern of work fairly uniform over time.

In Great Britain, where the emphasis is on technical competence, individual skills and less on team-work there is a strong sense of being subject to an irregular work pattern. This suggests that British translators are more usually employed as individuals, for their specialist technical expertise and not as members of a professional team. This sort of employment would be temporary, i.e. for a period set by the source text, and not a regular post. The large numbers of part-time translators may be one contributing factor behind this sense of insecurity and disorganisation in the working life experienced by British translators.

Figure 5.11: Percentages Of Problems Encounted In Translation Company.



A: Too Much Work.
B: Lack Space.
C: Irregular Work Pattern.
D: Problems With Customers.

If it is true that the problems encountered in these agencies are caused by their models of translation then it is possible that these problems could be overcome by re-balancing the practice of the agency to emphasise the areas which the national model neglects. Thus the British agencies would place greater emphasis on collaborative practices at work to share the work-load more fairly whilst the Kuwaiti agencies would place greater emphasis on defending the individual translator from too many group activities which could cause him or her to fall behind with their personal work or cause them to feel they were being over-exploited by the agency team.

It is possible that machine translation and other technologies could assist in removing the problem of too great work-loads. It is likely that the Kuwaiti agencies are least able to exploit this resource because of their emphasis on translation as an inter-personal activity. On the other hand, British agencies are more likely to place too great a reliance on technology to remove problems at work, when the problems as with a too irregular work pattern are more likely to be caused by mismanagement due to the unrealistic expectation that the individual 'expert' is all sufficient in translation (and team-work a 'soft option' or waste of time).

Other problems identified by translation agencies include problems with customer relations. The major complaint of agencies on this ground was that the customers made unreasonable criticisms of the translated materials simply because they failed to understand the limitations of the translation process. The problem here was that of having to educate the customer in order to demonstrate that the quality of product was of a good standard. This problem could be resolved if the translation agencies could cooperate in raising the customer's appreciation for the product. The sort of collaborative effort through advertising to promote translation as a professional activity described earlier (see section 5.2.6) would clearly be of benefit in this context also.

Apart from the effort to create a general public perception of translators as professionals on a par with e.g., lawyers and medical personnel, it is also essential to give some training to translation staff in public relations since it is the individual member of staff who comes into contact with the customer. It is essential that such personnel should have the skills necessary for dealing with the public. Cook (1992) suggests a basic agenda for staff training which would give staff,

1) An explanation of why the company is undertaking the programme of training in public relations and of the programme's importance to the company

2) An understanding of what service, quality and efficiency are and how these affect the customer

3) An assessment of current performance e.g. in role play of dealings with customers and identification of areas for improvement

4) The setting of standards for service

5) An explanation of the methods available for analysing problems and identifying options for improvement (2).

This is another consideration arising from the actual experience of translation agencies which needs to be taken into account in determining the form to be taken by 'practical translation studies'.

5.2.15 The eighth question was intended to elicit any further information which the translation agencies thought relevant to the general subject of training and staff development. This question has been discussed in greater detail in Chapter Four. It was evident from the replies that the experience of translators engaged in business endorsed the analysis of translation practices given in this dissertation (see Chapter Three).

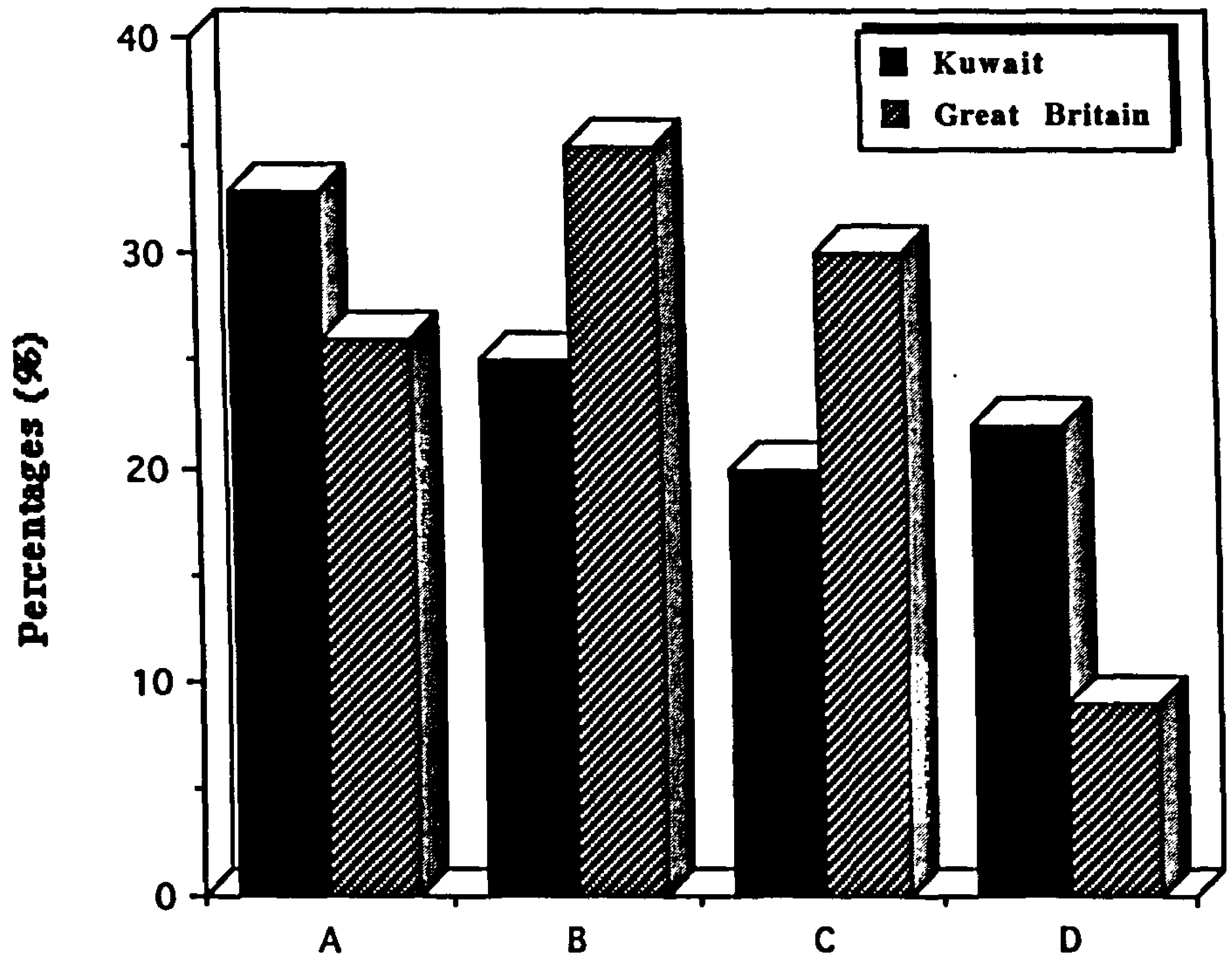
5.2.16 The ninth question in this section sought further information about the nature of the market for translation services. Kassarjian and Robertson (1968) state that there is no such thing as a product or service which exists by itself in space. The existence of a product or service depends a great deal upon the consumer and his or her specific set of requirements. Of all the goods and services offered to customers or clients only some are relevant to any given consumer and it is only these of which he will be aware (3). In seeking information about the nature of the consumer of translation services this question also indicates something of the nature of the service on offer.

There are differences in the market for translation in Kuwait and in Great Britain (see Figure 5.12). In Great Britain the major customers are small companies (35%) followed closely by large corporations (30%). The least custom is provided by governmental agencies (9%). In Kuwait the major market for translations is provided by individuals (33%, which compares with 26% for Great Britain). This is followed by the three other categories all somewhere in the low 20%'s.

It is reasonable to conclude that the emphasis on inter-personal relationships in the Kuwaiti translation industry is related to the fact that the market is strongly influenced by the need to serve individuals (about one-third of the total market). The British emphasis on impersonal, individualistic enterprise may also reflect the British market which is dominated by commercial institutions (around two-thirds of the total).

It is interesting to speculate whether the problems experienced by the two groups of agencies are ultimately a reflection of the demands placed upon them by their customers. The Kuwaiti agencies complained of a heavy work-load and unreasonable expectations from their customers. This may reflect the extra pressure which are brought to bear when the customer is an individual rather than an anonymous institution, individuals can exert moral pressures which companies cannot. On the

Figure 5.12: Percentages Of Customers Categories.



A: Individuals.
B: Small Companies.
C: Large Corporate Bodies.
D: Governmental Agencies.

other hand, the British complaint of an irregular work-pattern may reflect the fact that the British agencies are obliged to bend to the demands of large companies which have the commercial muscle to dictate work-load to others in accordance with their convenience and without regard for the convenience of the small service industries that rely upon the major companies' custom for survival.

If there is a degree of control exerted by the customers over translation agencies which causes problems for the agencies then this is one further reason to invest in diversification. This broadening of the customer base can be achieved through advertising to alert potential customers to a new service. Such advertising would, of course, have to follow the agencies' own reappraisal of their role and the nature of the products they are able or willing to supply. Once again 'practical translation studies' can assist in this process of diversification and re-training.

5.2.17 The tenth question in this section of the questionnaire sought information about the technologies used by the translation agencies. The replies to this question have been discussed in detail in Chapter Four.

5.2.18 The eleventh question in this section sought specific information about the translation agencies' attitude to machine translation. The majority of respondents agreed with the findings of the Van Dijk survey, machine translations cannot replace human translation. At best, the machine translation is a rough draft which needs to be re-edited by the human translator.

A basic machine translation of scientific or technical texts is a fairly useful first draft but even this requires re-editing. Thus even in British translation agencies where scientific and commercial texts are of major importance in the market, machine translation is of limited use.

5.2.19 The twelfth question in the second section of the questionnaire sought information about the agencies' own perceptions of quality control. This question was completely open seeking, to elicit spontaneous information from the agencies about the importance of 'equivalence' and other theoretical concepts in the translation process. Unfortunately, none of the respondents mentioned any theoretical or conceptual issues instead they discussed the various difficulties experienced in raising finances for the agency businesses i.e., they were preoccupied only with commercial not theoretical problems. This simply confirms the hypothesis that there is insufficient communication between the academic and business worlds. 'Practical translation studies' is concerned to bridge this communications gap.

5.3 The Model Translation Agency

Quality and efficiency control depend to a large extent on the policies advocated by management and carried out within the company. Total quality management and effective leadership (1991) makes the point that chief executives of companies and service organisations, including translation agencies, must focus on the nature and scale of the challenge to leadership posed by the need to ensure high quality products. Focusing on this challenge, several factors in the drive for efficiency and high quality in the model translation agency emerge:

1) The need for true commitment to effective management and quality control

2) The need to target efforts towards specific sectors of the market and specific customers

3) The need to improve the relationship with customers

4) The need to maintain a good relationship with the translation staff

5) The need to monitor:- the performance of translators; the market demand for different types of translation material; the range of customer needs and expectations; the range of opportunities for constant up-grading of services

6) The need to provide appropriate technologies such as word processors and other specialist office equipment

The task of management is to carry policy into effect with the fullest possible efficiency within the limits assigned i.e., at the maximum effect for minimum cost. Management should aim to create conditions that will bring about the optimum use of the available resources such as manpower, technologies, methods and materials. This optimum use is one that ensures the highest efficiency and quality.

The management process essentially consists of four functions which will be discussed in turn.

5.3.1 Planning

Here the aim is to identify the key factors for success in the existing market. In the case of the model translation agency these factors have been identified by the survey of existing translation agencies and existing theories of translation. The essential factors are a professionalism which ensures high quality and efficiency. This in practical terms means preparing programmes of action to achieve agreed objectives within set deadlines. These objectives in the model translation agency are a combination of the objectives identified by translation agencies in Great Britain and Kuwait as described above.

It is by broadening the definition of translation and thus changing the perception of the translation process that the agency is able to (a) produce a wider range of translation products and attract a wider range of translation materials which (b) thus allows the agency to liberate itself from over-dependency on one type of customer or one section of the market.Only by achieving this independence can the industry hope to ensure its own development as a professional service industry.

5.3.2 Organising

This is basically concerned with the structure of inter-personal relationships within the agency and between agencies. Within the agency it is essential for efficiency that the staff should receive clear direction from the leadership. The chain of command or responsibility should be clearly identifiable. Each member of staff should have a clear job description and should not be required to work outside the field assigned to them.

This reorganisation of the agency follows on from the redefinition of translation and the combination of the two models of translation in use in Kuwait and Great Britain. By setting out priorities and co-ordinating responsibilities within the agency to ensure a good balance of team-work and individualism the agency should be able to avoid the sort of problems described by the translation agencies in the survey discussed above. There should no longer be either a condition of being over-worked or of an unacceptably irregular work pattern. Planning ahead combined with good organisation should eliminate these problems. Organisation should also coordinate training efforts and the marketing of products.

In these respects 'organisation' also refers to the relationship between agencies and the collaborative efforts (e.g., in pooling resources to promote the public image of translation or to arrange training courses for staff) designed to assist the industry in its development towards greater professionalism and commercial success.

5.3.3 Motivating

This involves using management resources to encourage greater productivity and efficiency and better quality control in translation. The techniques used to motivate staff have been discussed above (see 5.2.11) here, for the model translation agency, it is only necessary to add that the methods used for motivating staff should be broadened to include motivators that reflect the idea of translation as a technical skill and at the same time motivators that reflect the idea that translation is an inter-personal skill.

Guidance in creating these two-fold motivators is offered by the behavioural scientist, Frederick Herzberg (1970). He developed what he called a two-factor model of human needs at work. He states, on the basis of his observation and research, that one group of factors is centred around people's need to progress in their tasks as a means of personal development and growth. The other group of factors revolves around the need for fair treatment in terms of salary, supervision, administrative practices and working conditions (4).

The former group of factors could be said to correspond to the motivators which treat translation as a technical skill, as something which can be given objective measurement and thus can become the basis for career development through grades or ranks of translation abilities. The motivators in this area of human need at work would be certificates of achievement.

The latter group of factors could be said to correspond to the motivators which treat translation as an inter-personal skill. The motivators in this area of human need at work would then be financial awards or bonuses for achievement and letters of appreciation and other actions which contribute to the creation of a happy working environment.

Of the two sets of factors, the former are described by Herzberg as 'satisfiers' since these needs and their corresponding motivators are known to be effective in motivating individuals to greater efficiency and to higher quality work. However, the second set of factors can also be very important in promoting greater efficiency and better quality control. Neglect of any of these needs in the working environment will probably lead to lower efficiency and poorer productivity.

A 'quality circle' is defined by Barratt et al (1992) as "a group of staff who share common interests in a work process and meet voluntarily to identify, evaluate and solve problems which affect their performance in the work place" (5). The quality circle offers a good example of the sort of collaborative methods which should be used by professional translators. Ideally these quality control methods should be self-imposed, as one of the respondents to the survey stated: "if translators can't motivate themselves what are they worth?". The management of a translation agency should recruit staff who are willing to be part of such a self-motivating and self-critical programme. The management should also ensure that there are facilities provided to encourage the creation and maintenance of quality circles - perhaps offering induction courses to encourage new staff to enter into such activities with enthusiasm and to ensure that the staff do in fact gain benefit from the experience.

Such quality control programmes establish and manage different roles for the staff of an agency e.g. leaders, facilitators, problem solvers etc. The quality circle offers the opportunity to staff to exchange different points of view and to try out different roles within the agency. The principle benefits of such practices are:

1) Improving the work process
2) Increasing agency efficiency
3) Improving staff morale
4) Giving greater job satisfaction
5) Improving the skills of individual translators
6) Removing artificial barriers to communication within the agency e.g. between colleagues or between staff and management

5.3.4 Controlling

This aspect of management refers to the need to monitor the progress of the other processes and to be able to intervene to take corrective action where this appears necessary to prevent loss of efficiency or quality control. The basis of control is information, in order to control a process it is necessary to know what should be happening at any particular time in the process and to know what is actually happening. In the model translation agency, control is assured by matching the correct methods for measuring quality and efficiency to the processes in place. The problems described by actual translation agencies (see 5.2.14) seem to have arisen because the agencies used methods for assessing quality which were irrelevant to the sort of translation actually occurring. Thus Kuwaiti agencies rely on written tests to assess the quality of translation staff even though the model of translation used in Kuwaiti agencies does not emphasise literary competence. A wiser course for both British and Kuwaiti agencies would be to assess the competence of staff through probation periods since this method is of sufficiently broad scope to investigate all the different skills (both technical and inter-personal) which are involved in translation.

Related to control are the other problems identified by the agencies responding to the survey i.e., the problems with financial control (see Section 5.2.14 and 5.2.19) and with finding the most appropriate uses for technology (see Section 5.3). A truly effective use of control would avoid the misuse of technology i.e., an over-reliance on machine translation to resolve problems of efficiency and productivity which would be better resolved by re-organisation and a re-thinking of the whole aim and method of translation practices.

Beyond the limits of the individual translation agency a further source of quality control would be the implementation of a standard analogous to the BS 5750 but adapted to the specific needs of the translation industry. It is a moot point whether this standard should be imposed on translation agencies by translators themselves or imposed by a state authority. The survey of translators indicated that translators would rather manage their industry themselves. However, the lack of capital resources in the industry available for investment in quality control at this large scale apparently led some of the translators in this survey to suggest that governments should act to support standards and to make it impossible for "cowboys" to undermine the profession. Given the cost in lives (see Chapter Three) as well as loss of profits to businesses resulting from poor quality translation it is perhaps reasonable to expect government to intervene on behalf of professionalism.

If 'practical translation studies' are to play a role in developing professionalism then clearly government authorities will be involved since, in the survey countries at least, it is government money which finances most university-based education and thus it is government which ultimately endorses the qualifications which are granted by universities. By its role in supporting tertiary education the state already acts to maintain professional standards in the translation industry. It is thus a small step for government to administer a standard of quality control. Since the programme of 'practical translation studies' involves working in the commercial context it would be necessary for government and universities to cooperate with the agencies thus quality control must be the common goal of the government and the industry.

5.4 Practical Translation Studies

The model translation agency described above is one which involves systematic training procedures designed to ensure a continuing development of the broad range of translation skills throughout the translators career (see Section 5.3.2). The new field of 'practical translation studies' is designed as an integral part of this professional development. The model translation agency is the major vehicle for this training together with an input from the academic institutions. This dual location of training in the initial years and throughout the career is designed to overcome the isolation of academic from commercial translation practices and to integrate the need for formal qualifications and non-formal, on-the-job experience which the above survey reveals was the two-fold preference amongst translation agencies when considering the qualifications of translation staff. It is essential that professional translators should have equal access to theoretical understanding of translation and to practical or commercial understanding of translation.

Training programmes should reflect three principles: training must be planned, the training programme implemented and the effectiveness of the training evaluated. In the first instance, before a training programme can be set out the aims of the training process must be clearly understood. In the case of 'practical translation studies' the aims are clearly defined by the model translation agency and the professionalism it represents. These aims are a blending of the aims of the Kuwaiti and British translation agencies on a pragmatic basis designed to ensure the broadest possible capacity for translating different translation materials in any given agency or individual translator that is compatible with efficiency.

Secondly, having chosen the aims of the training programme, it is necessary to find appropriate methods for implementing the training programme. In the case of 'practical translation studies' these methods have been defined by (a) a critique of theory and by (b) the analysis of the survey (given in Chapter Four and above) which identifies the problems with training encountered in present translation agencies.

Thirdly, the control of the quality of training, here again 'practical translation studies' reflect insights from both theoretical and commercial approaches to translation. Quality control in training requires an appreciation of the sort of problems which can arise because of the nature of the task. The theory of translation identifies these problems with "meaning" (see Chapter 2) and with 'equivalence' and defines corrections to these problems accordingly (see Chapter Three). The skills which the translator must acquire are a combination of techniques and of more intuitive processes which rely on the exercise of the imagination more than the reason or knowledge. As the above survey reveals the practical problems for training are ensuring that the correct quality control techniques are applied for the specific skills under test.

NOTES

CHAPTER FIVE

1 LAMBIN (1976) Passim

2 COOK (1992) p160

3 KASSARJIAN & ROBERTSON (1968)

4 HERZBERG (1970) Passim

5 BARRATT et..al, (1992) p31

CHAPTER SIX

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION, SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

One of the main objectives of this dissertation was to link the theory of translation with the actual practice in the translation market. In investigating translation practice the focus has been on the problems of quality control and efficiency and the methods which are used in translation agencies to measure quality and efficiency and to ensure their maintenance. As described in Chapter Four, a survey questionnaire was developed. Two groups of translation companies in Great Britain and Kuwait participated in the study. From Great Britain ninety-nine translation agencies responded to the questionnaire; from Kuwait twenty-one agencies responded. The survey was unique in being the first of its kind to study translation specifically from the point of view of commercial translation practices.

The value of this survey lies in its ability to reflect the understanding of translation achieved by the professional translator. This understanding differs from that of the academic student of translation. It offers an alternative point of view on the nature of the problems affecting quality and efficiency control in translation and consequently it offers alternative solutions to those problems.

This is the "age of translation" and the potential demand for high quality translation cannot be overestimated. Unfortunately the present state of the translation industry tends to undermine efforts to increase quality: agencies are unable to improve standards or to expand the market for translation (a move which would finance higher quality translation products) because the industry does not generate sufficient income to allow for the capital investment in training and increased professionalism.

The low remuneration achieved by translation agencies seems to be due to two major factors: (a) the general public undervalue translation and thus fail to pay translators at professional rates and (b) the agencies which do attempt to raise standards in translation practices are undercut by "cowboys" who offer low quality at low cost. The industry seems to be further hamstrung by the tendency amongst their major customers (e.g. large multi-national corporations) to invest in unproven technologies (machine aided translation etc. see Chapter Two) rather than in translation personnel. The free capital in the translation industry has been invested in developing technologies designed to make the translator obsolete rather than in training programmes designed to increase the skills and efficiency of the translator.

It is not obvious why this policy decision has been taken by the translation agencies' customers - it is clear, however, that it is not a policy which is beneficial to the profession or (given the inadequacies of the technology) to the customer or society at large.

The inadequacy of theoretical approaches to translation (see the critique of translation theories in Chapter Two) has also failed the needs of the profession - the resources of the academic world have similarly been invested more in resolving the problems of technology or of abstract theories than in identifying and solving the problems which affect the actual translation industry.

Practical translation studies are suggested as an alternative to the policies of the multi-nationals and as an alternative to the theoretical thinking of academic translation studies. The aim of practical translation studies is to redirect the efforts of academics to the practical problems facing translators. In the generation of a higher profile professionalism in commercial translation these studies also aim to redirect the capital investments of the industry into personnel development rather than wasteful technology developments. The programme of practical translation studies also promotes a spirit of cooperation within the industry both amongst the agencies themselves and between the agencies and the government and other state bodies.

It is on the basis of a revisioning of translation by the profession, by academics, by the customers of translation agencies and by the state or society at large that the industry can be revitalised and thus grow to enter the new markets which are potentially available. This growth of market share will lead to increased turnover for the industry and thus to an increased access to investment capital which will pay for the higher quality translation products which are required by the public for the general economic, cultural and political benefits which flow from increased communications between peoples.

The specific elements of the practical translation studies programme reflect the discovery (see Chapters Two and Three) that the central concern in professional translation is to reproduce 'actual intended meaning'. This is achieved through a translation process which is geared to maintaining 'equivalence'. Focusing on the problems presented by 'equivalence' it has been possible to identify the practical solutions: these solutions involve the exercise of specific reading/writing skills which are in turn largely dependent on the cultivation of specific personal qualities in the translators themselves - qualities such as a disciplined imagination and integrity as well as the perhaps more easily measured qualities of knowledge and work experience. The creation and development of a professional ethos is thus essential to practical translation studies and, ultimately, to increased professionalism, higher quality translation and thus higher profitability of commercial translation. Technology in translation is of only secondary importance in achieving high quality translation - it is, however, an excellent aide if applied correctly.

The development of the professional ethos is best achieved through management policies designed to encourage cooperative work amongst agency staff. The central importance of the translator to the quality control process makes the translator himself the primary focus of the quality control system. Recruitment policies which select staff who are highly motivated and willing to pursue professional standards help ensure the preconditions for high quality translation work. Self-monitoring by the staff through such devices as the 'quality circle' help increase the control exercised over quality and redirect efforts designed to increase efficiency effectively.Just as important as the quality control exercised in the individual agency is that which is imposed throughout the industry. The role of practical translation studies in the larger context is to ensure feedback from the market which enables the agencies to direct their efforts towards providing the services which are in demand. These studies are, however, equally concerned with identifying and implementing the means for generating a demand in the marketplace for the sort of products the industry wishes to produce i.e. high quality professional products. Practical translation studies are therefore also concerned with the relationship between advertising, public imaging etc. and achieving greater professionalism as well as with ensuring that 'professionalism' never loses sight of the commercial concerns of the industry.

The pivotal role of practical translation studies also applies in the relationship of the profession to the state: the studies should promote the interests of the profession with the state since these interests are also the interests of the state in so far as high quality translation offers greater guarantees of public safety (e.g. in translating repair manuals etc.). This promotion of interests is achieved simply by a policy of training to a higher professional standard.

Similarly, practical translation studies are concerned with the more abstract or purely academic studies of translation in order (a) to draw insight into the translation process from these studies and (b) to give feedback into the academic context from the commercial translation experience in order to produce a critique pf those theories of translation which fail at the empirical level.

In light of this discussion and drawing together the conclusions reached earlier in this dissertation e.g., in the critiques of translation theory, in the presentation of the findings of the survey etc. the following recommendations are offered:

1) The quality and efficiency of a translation service depends on how well the myriad factors are integrated in the same process to achieve quality and to satisfy the expectations of the customer. These factors include: the physical environment of the translation office, the translation method, translation staff, technological equipment and the agency management. Each of these factors affect the quality and efficiency of the overall process and therefore have to be managed to the highest standard to ensure high quality and efficiency of production. The first resource of the management in a translation agency must be the recruitment and training of skilled and highly motivated staff. The most reliable recruitment method seems to be by giving new staff a period of probation together with an interview andwritten tests - the probationary period being the most valid test of suitability. Training of staff is best achieved through practical translation studies or the equivalent. At the very least management should encourage the development of a professional ethos e.g. by instigating and supporting 'quality circles' and similar ways of generating cooperation and feedback in the agency. Management should also encourage any processes which lead to greater cooperation between agencies designed to improve the status of the industry generally with the customers and with the state or society in general.

2) It is highly desirable that practical translation studies should be offered by agencies in collaboration with universities or other state bodies. These studies should combine formal training in academic translation studies with practical experience of translation in a commercial agency. As part of the general policy of cooperation between professional agencies it may be desirable to establish a system whereby students can be placed with different agencies during their course of study. The

exchange of student may in turn facilitate a situation whereby established staff can move more freely between different employers in a staff-exchange programme - a system which will facilitate career development and thus ultimately the improvement of the level of skills in the profession generally.

It is highly desirable that the qualifications offered in practical translation studies should achieve general recognition in society and especially with customers and with potential employers as high quality professional qualifications. In the long term these studies should be part of a greater career structure which facilitates the access to academic studies for translators at all stages of their career. Training in professional translation should be an on-going process. This is not only of benefit to the profession per se but also to the academic community since the input from professional translators with commercial experience presents a continuing empirical correction to theory and, on the other hand, a continuing source of demand for theoretical speculation in order to resolve the problems thrown up by professional or commercial experiences.

3) In order to eliminate unfair competition from 'cowboys' which undermines the drive for greater quality translation services it is desirable that the profession cooperate amongst themselves or with government agents to impose a standard control analogous to the BS 5750.

4) In order to improve the public's perception of the industry it would be beneficial for the profession to cooperate in a publicity campaign either directed to the general public or (more effectively one imagines) to the major customers of translation services and to the state bodies who are concerned with regulating trade and maintaining standards of quality or who are concerned with education and training. Simply by establishing the idea in the mind of the customer that the service provided by the translation agency is a professional, high quality service should facilitate the process of raising higher remuneration from translation work. This increased income should in

turn be invested in the profession in order to ensure that the service received by a customer or overseen by the government is actually of the highest quality.

While it is desirable that all of these recommendations be implemented by translation agencies, by concerned parties in government or universities etc. it is also possible for an agency simply to take one recommendation - or one aspect of a recommendation - for implementation in their own practices. [illegible] or one aspe feedback from those agencies. This suggests the need may arise for further studies building on the achievements of this initial survey. Without waiting for feedback from agencies it is possible to suggest some areas where further research would be of value:

1) This survey has studied agencies in Kuwait and Great Britain. It would be interesting to discover the extent to which the experiences of translation agencies in these two countries are reflected elsewhere in the world. For example, how typical is the British experience in the context of Europe and how typical is the Kuwait experience in the context of the Middle East.

2) The statistical analyses possible with the data gathered by this survey were restricted by the size of the survey sample. For example, it would have been interesting to discover whether there was any correlation between the academic qualifications of a translator and the years of experience possessed by a translator; unfortunately the data would not allow a statistically significant analysis to be applied. A further survey which was designed to draw upon a larger sample (e.g. a survey of European and Middle Eastern agencies) would be desirable - if the logistical and financial problems of organising such a survey could be overcome.

On the other hand where the data was capable of rendering statistically significant results other frustrations arose. For example, the data allowed a chi-squared test to be applied to the question whether there were a statistically significant correlation between annual turnover and the number of years an agency had been established. The result of the chi-squared test indicated that there was no correlation - a result contrary to that expected by common sense. The questions immediately arise: why is there no correlation?, what are the forces at play which counter the common sense idea that the longer an agency is in business, the more custom it will have had time to win and thus the greater its turnover will be? A further survey with highly specific questions designed to focus precisely on these issues is necessary if these questions and others like it which are suggested by the unexpected results of the original survey are to be answered.

3) Various circumstances affecting contemporary translation businesses seem to have their roots in earlier events. It would therefore be interesting and helpful to study the historical background of the translation industry in greater detail. For example, the decision by the large customers of translation agencies to invest in technology rather than in the training of staff is a curious choice and one which has seriously injured the translation profession. It is interesting to speculate on the circumstances which made the translation industry 'hostage' to these customers - the large, multi-national companies. Unless the relationship between the translation industry and these customers is thoroughly understood it seems impossible that the translation profession can ever achieve an adequate level of independence which can guarantee that the control of the industry remains in the hands of the professionals themselves and not in the hands of their customers.

4) The survey revealed various differences of emphasis in the methods and attitudes of translators from Kuwait and from Great Britain. It is interesting to speculate on the extent to which these differences are due to specific economic pressures as opposed to differences of culture. Of course, such a wide ranging question would require an entire study in itself.

5) On the relationship between gender and translation, it is interesting to consider whether there is any relationship between gender and career patterns e.g. if there are a large number of part-time translators does this suggest there are a large number of female translators working in the industry (since part-time workers are more likely to be female than male, at least in Great Britain). If this is the case, then the development of professionalism in the translation industry may be hindered by precisely those social forces which tend to prevent the professional advancement of women generally. Unfortunately, the present survey did not collect information about gender. There is a case, however, for a later survey to do so.

6) If the translation industry cannot develop higher standards at present because of a shortage of capital investment it would be both interesting and useful to discover how agencies obtain finance for capital investment at present and how the industry can attract greater investment. This, however, requires a large scale study - a follow up to the present survey which is designed to concentrate on a more closely defined subject area than the original survey could effectively have done.

In conclusion, the present survey achieves much in presenting an initial picture of the nature of translation as understood from the point of view of the industry and its profession. While the study is valuable in suggesting many further studies it is possible even at this stage, on the basis of this survey alone, to critique academic theories and to offer alternative understandings of translation and its problems. Focusing specifically on the question of quality control and efficiency it is possible from the data collated by this survey to describe the nature of the key problems facing professional translation and to offer practical solutions to these problems.

The solutions have been presented as part of a general policy designed to increase quality and efficiency by increasing professionalism. The central feature of this policy is the innovative 'practical translation studies' which are a training package intended to foster the professional ethos of cooperative teamwork and responsible self-motivation.

However, this is more than just a training package since the changes in practices and attitudes it represents involve all the industry: not only the professionals but also the customer's perception of the industry and the state's role in enforcing higher quality standards for the industry. Ultimately these moves will increase the independence and integrity of the profession and thus increase the commercial viability of the industry.

The clearest conclusion to be drawn from this survey of professional translators is that of their strong determination to see the improvement of their profession and to succeed in combining professional integrity with commercial viability. The critique of theory, the analysis of translation methods, the 'practical translation studies' described by this dissertation are essentially a codification of the ambitions expressed by the professional translators themselves. It is this empirical basis which gives the dissertation its greatest authority.

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APPENDIX 1

(The cover letter for translation companies in Kuwait)

UNIVERSITY
of
GLASGOW

Appendix 1

I am engaged on the analysis of quality and efficiency factors in translation for my doctoral dissertation at the University of Glasgow in Great Britain. I have included your agency in my survey population on the basis of reputational criteria.

The draft questionnaire has been tested on a very small sample of agencies in Kuwait and Great Britain. I am now in a position to conduct the final survey in Kuwait and I plan to telephone you in the near future with a view to arranging an appointment to see you.

Data in the questionnaires will not be correlated with the names of respondents, thus preserving confidentiality to the full. It is hoped that the information which emerges from this research will be of value for all those involved in the translation business. Your assistance will be warmly appreciated.

Yours sincerely

Ms Suad Ahmed Al-Bustan

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University of Glasgow, Bute Gardens, Glasgow G12 8RS, Scotland
Telephone: 041-339 2211 *Fax:* 041-339 1119 *E-Mail:* jum@uk.ac.gla.lang

APPENDIX 2
(Cover letter to translation companies in Great Britain)

UNIVERSITY
of
GLASGOW

Appendix 2

27 May 1991

I am a University lecturer at Kuwait University and I am currently engaged on the analysis of quality and efficiency factors in translation for my doctoral dissertation at the University of Glasgow.

A draft questionnaire was tested on a very small sample of agencies in Kuwait and Great Britain in 1990 and this was followed by a full survey of Kuwaiti agencies just before the recent invasion.

I am now in a position to conduct the final survey for Great Britain. I have included your agency in my survey population on the basis of reputational criteria and statistical random selection. A very large group of companies, institutions and individuals with a contribution to the issue of quality control are being contacted.

Data in the questionnaire will not be correlated with names of respondents, thus preserving confidentiality to the full. It is hoped that information which emerges from this research will be of value for all those involved in the translation business. Your assistance will be warmly appreciated. It is my intention to acknowledge the assistance of respondents in my final report and I shall be very pleased to provide a copy of the results of the survey to all those who request it.

The rebuilding of Kuwait will require a major effort from translation agencies in the United Kingdom as well as the Middle East and I am sure your assistance will be welcomed by the people of Kuwait.

Yours sincerely

Suad A. Al-Bustan

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APPENDIX 3
(The questionnaire)

SURVEY OF QUALITY AND EFFICIENCY FACTORS IN TRANSLATION

SECTION 1

GENERAL INFORMATION: (Please tick where appropriate)

Date of Establishment of Office or Agency : ______

Number of Translators : (full time) ______
(part time) ______

1. What are the academic qualifications of your translators?

(a) No higher qualifications
(b) Graduate degree
(c) Postgraduates diploma
(d) Other (please specify): ____________
____

2. How many years of experience do your translators have?

(a) 1-5 years
(b) 6-10 years
(c) 11-15 years
(d) Over 15 years

3. Any other business covered by your company other than translation
....
....

4. How do your customers hear about your company?

(a) By recommendation
(b) By advertisements
(c) By other means (please specify): ________
____

5. Annual Turnover for translation business:

(a) Less than £10,000
(b) £10,000-£100,000
(c) £100,000-£500,000
(d) £500,000-£5m
(e) Over £5m

SECTION 2

SPECIFIC INFORMATION: (Please tick or complete the appropriate answers)

1. How do you rate the importance of the following factors in the selection of the translation staff on a scale from 0 to 4, 0 being least important?

FACTORS	0	1	2	3	4
(a) Personal traits					
(b) Linguistic competence					
(c) Wide general knowledge					
(d) Academic qualifications					
(e) Experience					
(f) Special subject/expertise					

(g) Others (please specify): ____________________

____

2. How do you assess the above factors? (e.g. interview, written test, probation etc.)

....

....

....

....

3. What methods do you use for developing you translator's competence?

(a) Attending training courses
(b) Attending seminars
(c) Working alongside experienced staff
(d) Others (please specify): ____________

____

4. How do you motivate your translation staff?

(a) Offer bonuses
(b) Give letter of appreciation
(c) Give certification
(d) Other means (please specify): ________

____

5. What types of translation material does your office tackle?

(a) Advertising
(b) Banking
(c) Commercial
(d) Legal documents
(e) Literary
(f) Medical
(g) Political
(h) Press and current affairs
(i) Scientific
(j) technical
(k) Miscellaneous
(l) Others (please specify): ______________

____

6. On what basis do you assess the quality of translated material?

....
....
....
....

7. What problems do you believe that translators might encounter in a translation office or agency?

(a) Too much work
(b) Lack of space
(c) Irregular work pattern, i.e. "too much work sometimes and none at other times"
(d) Problems with the customers (please specify):

____

(e) Others (please specify):

____

8. What advice would you give to prospective translators?

....
....
....
....
....

9. Please indicate the category from which you draw most of your customers:

(a) Private sector
   i. individuals
   ii. small companies
   iii. large corporate bodies

(b) Governmental agencies

(c) Others (please specify): ____________
____
____

10. What kind of modern technological facilities are used by your translators?

....
....
....
....

11. Do you think that "machine translation" can replace human translation (if your answer is 'no', please state why not)?

....
....
....
....

12. Please mention any other points relevant to the process of translation that would affect its quality.

....
....
....
....
....

Please state any other points that you feel should be mentioned

....
....
....
....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE AND CONTRIBUTION

SECTION 3

(OPTIONAL)

In this section please disregard any question that you do not wish to answer or if you are not able to provide the information requested.

Please keep in mind that all information will be treated confidentially and no correlation will be established between the name of agencies and the data provided.

If you are interested in receiving a copy of a paper or a report based upon this survey then please make sure that you complete this section. It is hoped to produce an initial report quickly as soon as the survey is completed.

NAME OF AGENCY OR BUREAU: ______________

CONTACT PERSON: ______________

ADDRESS OF AGENCY: ______________

____

____

TELEPHONE: DAY TIME ______________

OTHER ______________

FAX: ______________

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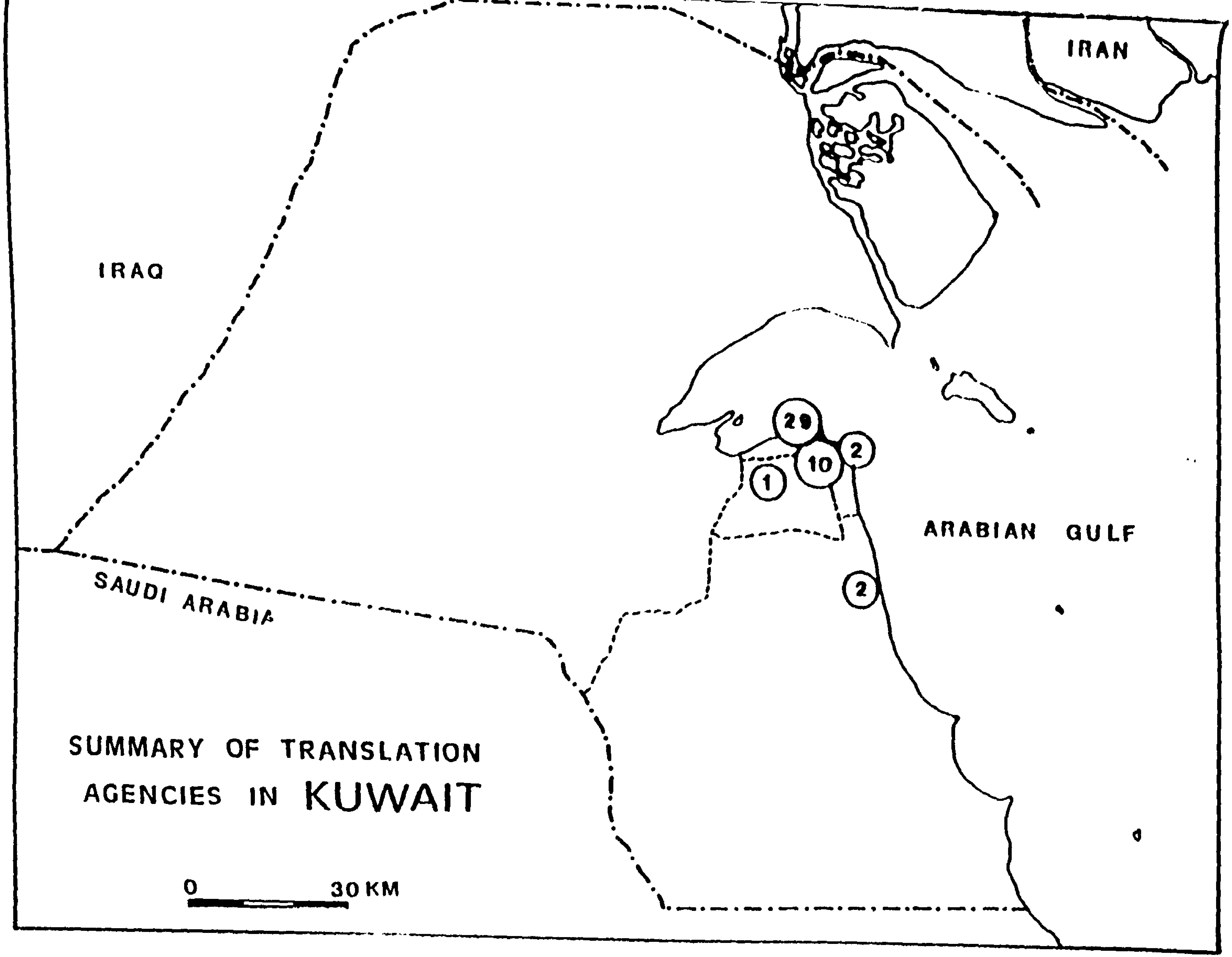
APPENDIX 4

(Map No. 1)

Kuwait

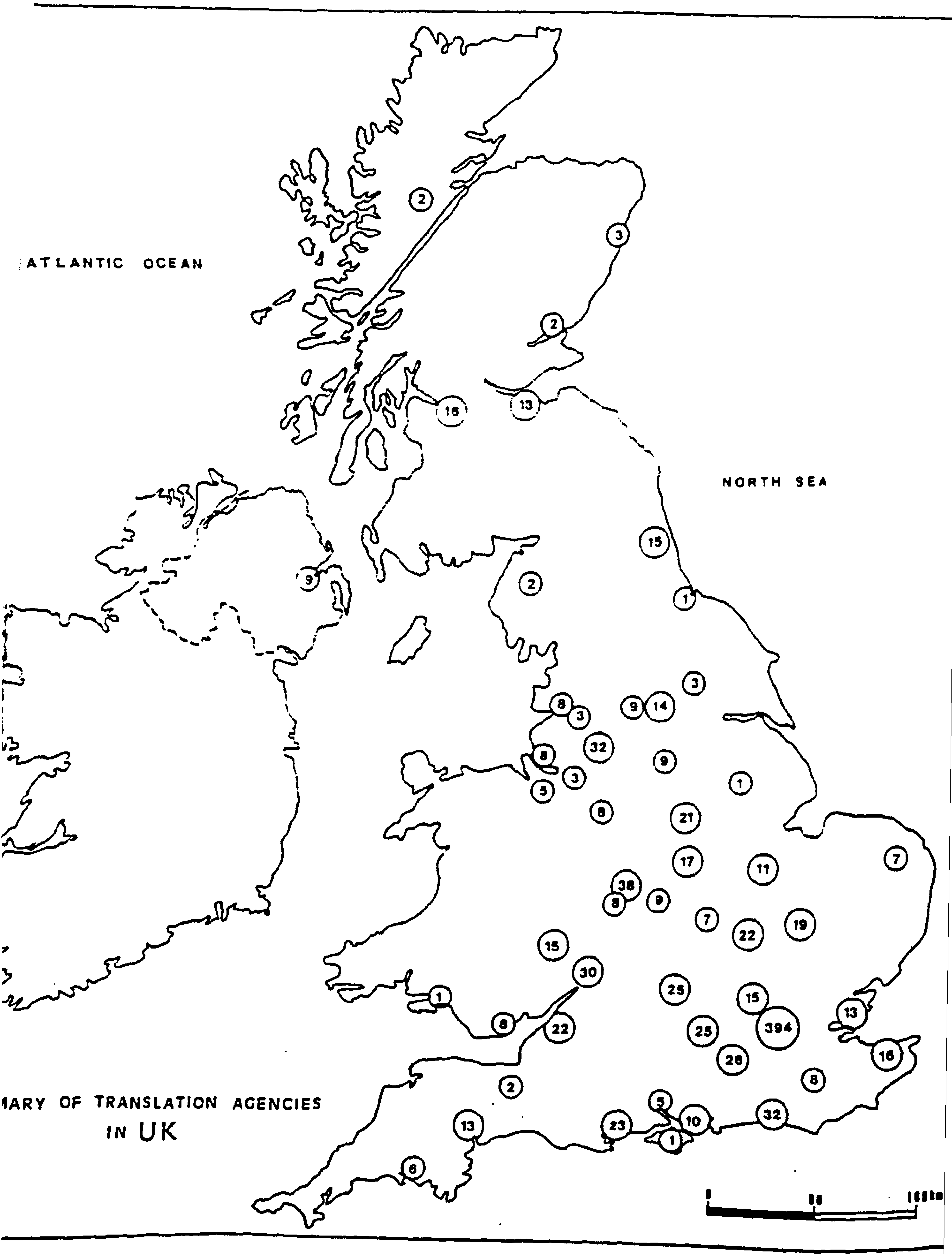


SUMMARY OF TRANSLATION AGENCIES IN KUWAIT

APPENDIX 5

(Map No.2)

Great Britain


ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
MARY OF TRANSLATION AGENCIES
IN UK

Appendix 5

(Map No. 2)

Great Britain

Appendix No. 6

SUMMARY OF THE TRANSLATION AGENCIES IN THE UK

Area No	City/Area	No of Agencies
1	Aberdeen	3
2	Bedford	22
3	Birmingham North East Birmingham North West Birmingham South East Birmingham South West	8 } 14 } 38 10 } 6 }
4	Blackburn	3
5	Bournemouth	23
6	Bradford	9
7	Brighton	32
8	Bristol	22
9	Cambridge	16
10	Canterbury	12
11	Coventry	9
12	Cumbria/North Lancs	2
13	Dundee	2
14	Edinburgh	13
15	Exeter	13
16	Glasgow (North) Glasgow (South)	7 } 16 9 }
17	Gloucester	30
18	Guildford	26

19	Highlands & Islands	2
20	Isle of Wight	1
21	Leeds	14
22	Leicester	17
23	Lincoln	1
24	London Central London East London North London North West London South London South East London South West	161 } 25 } 46 } 67 } 394 31 } 14 } 50 }
25	Manchester North Manchester South	16 } 32 16 }
26	Mersey	8
27	Middlesborough	1
28	Newcastle	15
29	Northampton	7
30	Norwich	7
31	Nottingham	21
32	Oxford	25
33	Peterborough	11
34	Plymouth	6
35	Preston	8
36	Portsmouth	10
37	Reading	25
38	Sheffield	9
39	South West Scotland	1

40	Southampton	5
41	Southend	13
42	Stoke on Trent	8
43	Taunton	2
44	Tunbridge Wells	8
45	Watford	15
46	West Midlands	8
47	Wirral & Cheshire	3
48	York	3
49	Northern Ireland	9
50	Cardiff & South West Wales	8
51	Swansea and South West Wales	1
52	Shrewsbury, Hereford & Mid Wales	15
53	Chester and North Wales	5

19	Highlands & Islands	2
20	Isle of Wight	1
21	Leeds	14
22	Leicester	17
23	Lincoln	1
24	London Central	161 }
	London East	25 }
	London North	46 }
	London North West	67 } 394
	London South	31 }
	London South East	14 }
	London South West	50 }
25	Manchester North	16 } 32
	Manchester South	16 }
26	Mersey	8
27	Middlesborough	1
28	Newcastle	15
29	Northampton	7
30	Norwich	7
31	Nottingham	21
32	Oxford	25
33	Peterborough	11
34	Plymouth	6
35	Preston	8
36	Portsmouth	10
37	Reading	25
38	Sheffield	9
39	South West Scotland	1