

**Total Quality Management Plan in Non-profit Translation
Service Providers in the United Arab Emirates: Identifying
Critical Success Factors for Improvement**

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The candidate confirms that the work submitted is her own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.

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Abstract

The notion of quality has become an important topic in the translation domain, especially as most translation projects are no longer just the outcome of the work of a single expert translator, but rather a corporate activity, consistent with the norms of the structural environment and bureaucratic workflows of the organisation that is responsible for the work. Managing quality across this value-chain is therefore one of the most challenging areas in 21st century translation. In such a complex process, the notion of Total Quality Management (TQM), originally a quality management tool in mass production, has started to be implemented effectively in many diverse sectors, such as medicine and education (Hansson, 2003); and translation project organisations have themselves become interested in applying TQM in their own quality assurance processes, especially as their activities also include digital translation mechanisms (DGT, 2009; Mitterlehner, 2012; BSI ISO 17100, 2015).

The starting point of this research was to understand the existing quality management mechanisms and processes across English to Arabic translation companies and how they could be improved in a corporate context. *Kalima*, a translation project organisation, was selected as the leading case study, given its well-established reputation in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), as well as the wider Arab World, as a serious contributor to the body of translated into Arabic. Two other non-profit translation service providers (TSPs) of the sector were also analysed, so as to have a sound overview and to provide a broader insight into managerial practices concerning quality assurance within translation processes, and thus to determine whether TQM in its wider state-of-the-art sense could be relevant for the translation sector in the UAE.

This research has developed a framework for implementing TQM in TSPs based on three main dimensions of critical success factors (CSFs); namely, leadership commitment and strategic direction; managerial and structural reforms; and procedural changes. The proposed framework suggests appointing a *portfolio manager* as suggested by Giammarresi (2011) in order to regulate the organisational strategy and optimise resources for effective and efficient quality in TSPs performing in a similar context to those particularly studied in this research. The researcher's critical analysis is the basis for a novel framework that may be of interest for TSPs, and may be used as a benchmark for further research.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ACTS	Acquired Capabilities for Translation Systems
ADACH	Abu Dhabi Authority for Culture and Heritage
ASTM	American Society for Testing and Material
ATA	American Translators' Association
BC	Before Christ, i.e. before Anno Domini 1 in the Julian or Gregorian calendar.
BPIR	Business Performance Improvement Resource
BSI	The British Standards Institute
CAT	Computer-assisted translation, computer-aided translation
CD	Compact Disc
CE	Common Era
COER	The Centre for Organisational Excellence Research
CSF	Critical success factors
DGT	Directorate General for Translation (European Commission)
DIN	Deutsches Institut für Normung (German Institute for Standardisation)
DVD	Digital Versatile Disc
EFQM	European Business Excellence Award
EGEC	Emirates Government Excellence Council
EN	English
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GILT	Globalisation, Internationalisation, Localisation and Translation
GS	General Survey
GSP	General survey participant
IEC	International Electrotechnical Commission
IP	Interview participant
ISO	The International Organisation for Standardisation
LISA QA	Localisation Industry Standards Association Quality Assurance model
LSP	Language service provider

MBNQA	Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award
MSA	Modern Standard Arabic
MT	Machine translation
NA	The National Archive
NCDR	National Centre for Documentation and Research (National Archive) of the UAE
OHSAS	Occupational Health and Safety Assessment Specification
PACTE	Process of Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation
PDCA	Plan-do-check-act
PMBOK	Project Management Body of Knowledge
PMI	The Project Management Institute
PRINCE	PRojects IN Controlled Environments
QA	Quality assurance
QC	Quality control
SC	Source Culture
SKEA	Sheikh Khalifa Excellence Award
SKGEP	Sheikh Khalifa Government Excellence Program
SL	Source Language
SMEs	Small and Medium Enterprises
SS	Specified survey
SSP	Specified survey participant
ST	Source Text
TL	Target Language
TM	Translation memory
TQA	Translation quality assessment
TQM	Total quality management
TSP	Translation Service Provider
TT	Target text
UAE	United Arab Emirates

Transliteration System

The Library of Congress Transliteration system for Arabic will be adopted in this thesis for Arabic expressions. Table 1 below presents the transliteration of Arabic consonants and vowels.

Arabic	Transliteration	Arabic short and long vowels	Transliteration	Arabic case endings	Transliteration
ا	A	َ	A	ِ	an
ء	'	ُ	U	ُ	un
ب	B	ِ	I	ِ	in
ت	T	آ	Ā		
ث	Th	و	Ū		
ج	J	ي	Ī		
ح	Ḥ	و	aw		
خ	Kh	ي	ay		
د	D				
ذ	Dh				
ر	R				
ز	Z				
س	S				
ش	Sh				
ص	Ṣ				
ض	Ḍ				
ط	Ṭ				
ظ	Ẓ				
ع	C				

Arabic	Transliteration	Arabic short and long vowels	Transliteration	Arabic case endings	Transliteration
غ	Gh				
ف	F				
ق	Q				
ك	K				
ل	L				
م	M				
ن	N				
ه	H				
و	W				
ي	Y				

Table 1: System adopted for transliteration of Arabic vowels and consonants

System for the presentation of Arabic text in Chapters Six and Seven

This section explains the rules for interlinear glossing applied in Chapters Six and Seven to compare English source texts and translated texts in Arabic, as well as for the presentation of Arabic words in the body of the thesis and in tables.

Presentation of Arabic words

- Arabic words and sentences are put in-text between round brackets (), whereby each one is followed by a slash/, followed by a transliteration according to the Library of Congress Transliteration system of Arabic, followed by a dash – to introduce an English gloss. It is as follows: (Arabic / transliteration – English gloss) or (English / Arabic – transliteration). The English glosses may include notes in square brackets, i.e. (Arabic / transliteration – English glosses-[plural marker]). The square brackets are attached to the designated word by a hyphen, as shown in the example above.
- Phonetic transcription is used in some instances to support the explanation, such as when transliterating English proper names.
- Transliterations of single sounds are provided between slashes.
- According to the documents on Arabic romanization in the Library of Congress, the initial hamza following a definite article is not represented in Romanization. However, it is added in examples related to initial hamza issues as /' / for illustration purposes.

Presentation of English glosses

- An English gloss presents an English literal back-translation of the Arabic version. This reflects the translator/ proofreader decisions when rendering an English ST into Arabic in a TT.
- The structure of an Arabic sentence is followed in English glosses only when required. For example, to show the absence of verbs in the case of Arabic nominal sentences, an English gloss will be absent for auxiliary verbs which are required when rendering such sentences idiomatically in English.

Likewise, the Arabic structure is followed by English glossing in some cases to show redundant repetition or weak structure.

- English glosses also reflect definiteness and indefiniteness, attached Arabic particles that may be embedded in a word, such as pronouns, tense, dual and plural markers, feminine markers, gender and number agreement, case inflections, when illustration is required.
- The attachment of particles, suffixes and phonemes is linked to a word by hyphens (-) which are also attached in some cases to square brackets. These square brackets include notes related to the hyphenated word, such as nunation, case inflection, number and gender markers.
- Some Arabic particles share the same meaning, so they are English-glossed in the same way, such as (إِذْ / idh), (أَنَّ / anna), (حَيْثُ / ḥaithu) to (that is)
- Some Arabic particles and phonemes cannot be English-glossed owing to the absence of equivalents in English, such as feminine, dual and plural markers.

Tables of examples

- Tables of examples include a given example as it appeared in the ST (if relevant), as it appeared in the TT produced by the translator, followed by its transliteration between slashes and an English gloss within round brackets, then the TT produced by the proofreader, followed by its transliteration between slashes and an English gloss within brackets.
- The context of given examples is included when required for the issue under consideration.
- Examples are numbered with reference to the target text number and subsection number. For instance, an example from target text 2 (TT2) within the section covering case inflection (2.1.2) would be given the example number TT2.2.1.2. If more than one example is given within a particular section for a particular target text, they are given letters according to the examples' order of appearance, so the first example would be TT2.2.1.2a and the second TT2.2.1.2b.
- Some examples are not presented along with their ST equivalent for one of the following reasons:

- The content being proofread is part of additional parts that do not have equivalence in the ST, such as the translator’s preface/foreword
- The word or sentence being proofread is related to linguistic issues that are not concerned with English and cannot be compared to it, such as those related to 4. orthography and typographical errors, including hamza, definiteness and nunations, which all are studied unilingually within the rules and system of Arabic according to the new constructed Arabic sentence which is different to the English.

Format and highlighting

- Words are underlined as well as bolded to highlight a specific issue in a general matter under discussion. For example, to highlight nunation in (فشعبيتها تجعل منها مصدر سرورٍ خطراً) / fa-sha^obīyatahā taj^oal minhā maṣḍar **surūrīn khaṭaran** – so-its-popularity makes it a-source of-a-dangerous-[marked with nunation in the accusative case] pleasure-[marked with nunation in the genitive case]), the words in nunation are highlighted by bolding, whereas the nunation markers are underlined to show the case-inflection forms. However, these issues are only highlighted in such a format when they are relevant to the discussion.
- For clear illustration, square brackets besides bolding are used to highlight punctuation marks when discussed. For instance, to highlight a semicolon, the researcher opted for the following format: (civilization refers to the nation as a whole[;] cultivation is the property of a small minority, whom he calls the ‘clerisy’).

1 Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Research background

The idea of this research grew out of the researcher's experience as a translator in one of the government-funded and non-profit translation service providers in the UAE. Despite there being clear workflow for managing translation projects, there were notable unidentified problems related to the absence of clear guidelines, regulations and formalization. Translation professionals were always unhappy and dissatisfied as they constantly complained about work pressure, deadlines, the difficulty of texts, unconstructive feedback, and overlapping tasks. The management, on the other hand, seemed to be clear about meeting the organisation's objectives and targets of production. However, there was a clear imbalance between the objectives and the real potential of the available resources.

Despite the presence of a common understanding about the quality of the expected end product (translated text), there seemed to be rather hazy criteria for determining the quality of the translation. This may have been due to the absence of established documentation of guidelines and parameters that define the quality of translation through the perspectives of the organisation. The final judgment when evaluating translation in that TSP (mentioned above) was usually based on idiosyncratic parameters received from senior translators who have 'long years of experience' in practising translation. When completing translation projects in teams, such idiosyncrasy about translation quality was sometimes a source of conflict with the other colleagues, who may, arguably, have developed another mindset about translation quality over the years. These issues may justify the dominant unhealthy corporate culture of frustration and dissatisfaction that affected employee motivation and probably performance as well. It is worth noting that the contribution of translation professionals within such contexts has serious repercussions on the organisation's performance and also its image at some point (Samuelsson-Brown, 2006; Drugan, 2013).

The issues presented above may point to the interlinked complexity of different resources, which play a vital role in the structure of the entire organisation. Addressing these issues therefore should take into account the complexity of

translation projects being mostly a corporate activity within an organisation of established and defined objectives. This raises the need for finding a compatible, comprehensive approach encompassing different aspects, including management, culture, and the actual product (translation). This research, therefore, is a step forward for quality assurance as it seeks investigating total quality management (TQM) as a holistic management approach in translation service providers in the UAE.

1.1.1 Total Quality Management

Total Quality Management (TQM) is a relatively new management philosophy that has been adopted by organisations around the world looking to improve their performance by means of valuing the contribution of all existing resources (see Chapter Three). It was developed between the 1920s and 1960s with American and Japanese contributions and it was initially aimed to improve the manufacturing industry in Japan after World War II (see 3.1.2). Despite its original manufacturing mindset, TQM has been widely embedded in the service sector as a fundamental element of managerial strategies for achieving a continuous improvement of organisational performance (see 3.1.6). The necessity of TQM integration in various areas of service sectors is due to the fact that the quality parameters of products or services undergoes continuous changes that are dictated by the requirements of customers (see 3.1.3.1). Furthermore, the strong presence of competition in terms of performance puts the corporate world in a continuous race in which they are expected to ensure their own survival through innovation and continuous development (Al Ali, 2012; Mansour and Jakka, 2013).

TQM is viewed in different ways (see 3.1.3.1). However, it will be briefly introduced here for the sake of contextualising this research at this level. Total Quality Management (TQM) is a holistic management philosophy that deals with the resources and structure of an organisation in line with its objectives, and may be defined as per Hellsten and Klefsjo's (2000, p.243) definition: "(...) a management system in continuous change, which comprises values, techniques and tools and that the overall goal of the system is increased customer satisfaction with decreasing resources"; or, according to the definition provided by the British Standards Institution in their standard BS-7850-1:1992 (BSI, 1992, p.1), as "management philosophy and company practices which aim to harness the human and material

resources of an organization in the most effective way to achieve the objectives of the organisation”. In Reid and Sanders’ terms (2016, p.137), TQM is “an integrated organisational effort designed to improve quality at every level”. TQM, thus, is a comprehensive management philosophy that attempts to integrate all of an organisation’s functions, human and material resources effectively to meet its objectives (Mehra *et al.*, 2001; Dale *et al.*, 2016; BSI, 1992).

1.1.2 The translation industry in the context of TQM

The translation industry is one of the most thriving industries in the world nowadays (Sauberer, 2011, p.236), both in its size and in the annual turnover of the companies working in this industry. It was able to achieve US\$3.08 billion in revenue in 2016 in the United States (Statista, 2016a). Revenue increased in the United Kingdom from 2008 to 2016 by 112% (Statista, 2016b). Furthermore, the global revenue of the language industry, which includes translation and interpreting, reached US\$40 billion in November 2016 and is forecast to reach US\$45 billion by 2020 (Statista, 2016c). Globalisation and technology have given this industry an opportunity, but they also present a great challenge, as there is a growing demand for content to be translated from the original languages for the purpose of international and trans-national businesses (Dunne, 2012, p.143). This competitiveness certainly requires translation service providers (TSPs) to structure their organisational systems in a way that operates and manages efficiently the workload, provides thorough and high-quality products (translations) whilst meeting the organisational values and objectives (Harabi, 2007).

The actual profit, however, may differ from one organisation to another, depending on whether its orientation is for profit or non-profit activities. Based on the distinction established in the literature between profit and non-profit organisations (Hunt *et al.*, 1997; Frumkin and Kim, 2002; Rothschild, 2012), profit TSPs are profit-driven and their actual profits go to the benefit of stakeholders. The non-profit TSPs could be independent entities or internal units in government and international organisations which are established to provide translation services to these entities or serve the public community for a specific cause such as cognitive goals (Ishida *et al.*, 2008). While the success of the former is determined by the size of the profit they make, the latter’s success is measured by the extent to which they meet the needs of their end-users and achieve the agreed goals of the organisation.

Profit is also important for non-profit TSPs as it is used to sustain their growth and goals (James, 1983). Despite these differences between profit and non-profit organisations, “both types of organizations must have effective governance, leadership, robust planning, quality services to constituents, competent and committed personnel, and cost-effective operations” (Authenticity Consulting, 2008, p.2).

TSPs are similar to other organisations where interlinked processes are formulated under the objective of quality. TSPs are project-driven (Dunne, 2012, p.143). ASTM F2575 (2014, p.1070) defines a TSP as a “company, department, or individual approached by the requester, providing professional translation services into one or multiple languages for the requester”. This includes “Translation companies, translation agencies, freelance translators, in-house translators, revisers, reviewers, translation organizations (profit, non-profit or governmental)” (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.3). However, the translation-specific International Standards ISO 17100 (BSI, 2015, p.4) and 11669 (BSI, 2012, p.3) draw a distinction between translation service providers (TSPs) and language service providers (LSPs) since the former are specialised in providing translation services only, including revision and reviewing, whereas the latter provide “translation, interpreting and/or other language-related services such as transcription, terminology management or voice-overs” (ibid., p.3). The scope of this research is limited to TSPs in the terms defined above.

The literature (Petersen, 1996; Drugan, 2013; Thomson-Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson, 2004) shows how the translation service providers have been integrating various quality management systems that consider quality beyond the product level such as ISO 9000 (2015), ASTM F2575 (2014), and ISO 17100 (2015). Further, there is a recent notable orientation towards studying different aspects of managing translation projects on the basis of the corporate complexity of such translation projects as those compiled by Dunne and Dunne (2011), where they presented topics on translation and localisation project management, thoroughly discussing interesting aspects related to managing translation projects, for example human resources management, risk management, project management and challenges facing TSPs, including outsourcing and virtual teams. Other contributions in translation literature have established a reference to total quality management (TQM) by Petersen (1996) and Thomson-Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson

(2004) (see Chapter Two). In practice, there is evidence for referring to TQM in the translation industry. For instance, the European Commission Directorate-General for Translation issued a document outlining 22 quality actions to establish a quality management system for the Directorate-General for Translation, titled ‘Programme for Quality Management in Translation’ (DGT, 2009, pp.3-59). The actions of this document are “closely linked to the Total Quality Management (TQM) exercise” (Lönnroth, 2009, p.2) and share the holistic aspect of TQM as the quality of translation “must be ensured before, during and after the translation” (Lönnroth, 2009, p.1). However, there seems to be almost a complete lack of empirical studies that place translation service providers in the context of TQM, a deficiency which this research attempts to address.

1.1.3 Total quality management (TQM) in the United Arab Emirates (UAE)

Western studies and efforts to develop and embed TQM in various areas have been gaining interest in other parts of the world. For instance, the United Arab Emirates (UAE) established the importance of incorporating quality management systems at all levels and areas in the government sector in its constitution (UAE Government Strategy 2008-2010, cited in Mansour and Jakka, 2013, pp.98-99). Similarly excellence, which is another form of referring to TQM (BPIR, 2002), is one of the leading principles in UAE government strategic plans (McAdam, 2013, p.427). According to Mansour and Jakka (2013), TQM and its other derivatives such as Lean¹, Six Sigma², and business excellence (Metaxas and Koulouriotis, 2014, p.506) are:

(...) in high vogue in both UAE public and private sectors thanks to the proliferation of TQM consultants and business experts. The public sector in particular is currently subjected to ambitious reforms based on one or the other of TQM perspectives. In the UAE context TQM in [sic] reveals itself in different dressings.

(Mansour and Jakka, 2013, p.100)

¹ A systematic long-term customer-oriented management approach that centers around minimising waste and continuous improvement to achieve efficiency and quality (Jackson and Jones, 1996).

² Data-oriented management approach to eliminate defecteliminating defects and errors (www.isixsigma.com).

These ambitions have been echoed by empirical studies relevant to the implementation of TQM in different sectors in the UAE. For instance, Badri *et al.* (1995) studied the critical factors for quality in the private sector in the UAE, while AlMarri *et al.* (2007) analysed the critical success factors for implementing TQM in the country's banking sector. Furthermore, Al Ali (2012, pp.iii, 94), who conducted case studies of different organisations from various UAE sectors, found that quality procedures exist but that there is a need for more investigation to regulate TQM through identifying critical success factors in different sectors. Another recent explanatory study on the UAE's public sector by McAdam *et al.*, (2013, pp.426-445) found that there is a positive attitude towards improving the public sector by using TQM. On the other hand, the same study revealed the need for focusing on the soft components of TQM that are relevant to people and corporate culture (*ibid.*) (see 3.2.2). In addition, the study concluded by stating that "there is a need for UAE organisations to develop bespoke culturally based approaches for implementing business excellence and self-assessment" (McAdam *et al.*, 2013, p.443).

Mansour (2012) argues that the UAE government has stimulated the competition towards excellence for both private and public sectors by the introduction of TQM-relevant awards such as the Sheikh Khalifa Excellence Award (SKEA), the Dubai Quality Award, and the Sheikh Khalifa Government Excellence Program (SKGEP).

As stated on the website of SKEA, it was founded in 1999 in Abu Dhabi and "aimed at enhancing the competitiveness of the Business Sector in Abu Dhabi and the UAE" (SKEA, 2016). The award covers different categories of the economy of Abu Dhabi, including sectors of manufacturing, service, trade, construction, finance, tourism, and healthcare. The Dubai Quality Award was founded in 1994 and, like SKEA, covers construction, education, health, finance, manufacturing, trading, services, tourism, Government, retail, free zone, transport, and logistics (Department of Economic Development, 2016). As for SKGEP, it was founded in 2006 and offers different award categories, while aiming at continual and sustainable high-quality performance of the government sector services in the UAE (SKGEP, 2016). There are other excellence awards of interest in the UAE such as the Ajman Excellence Program, the Sheikh Saqr Program for Government Excellence and the Abu Dhabi Award for Excellence in Government Performance, which are all regulated by the Emirates Government Excellence Council (EGEC, 2016).

The criteria of these awards are based on a model of excellence developed by the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM), which is one of the prominent models for implementing TQM (see 3.1.8.5). Besides the recognition these awards provide, they aim in their core principles at sustaining continuous development. The Department of Economic Development in Dubai (2016), for instance, states that applicants for the Dubai Quality Award should “focus on the improvement process and not only on winning the award trophy. That is because the journey for excellence and the improvement activities will be much more valuable for organisations than winning a trophy”.

The continual drive to achieve excellence in the UAE at all levels of different sectors is one of the main motivators of this research, which attempts to place the translation industry in such a competitive perspective and environment.

1.1.4 Quality and contexts of translation

According to ASTM F2575 (2014, p.1067), there are three contexts through which translation can be viewed and thus affect perception of translation quality (see Chapter Two). These different contexts are presented here in a different order to the document of ASTM (ibid.) in order to help contextualise the subject of this research.

One of the contexts in which translation can be viewed is in the translations of government formalities, “that is, not altering the message even slightly for individual locales, and, in information gathering, retaining the original flavor of the source text, purposely avoiding localization” (ASTM F2575, 2014, p.1067). The second context is when the task of translation is carried out “for the understanding of materials” such as journal and news texts (ibid., p.1067).

Another view of translation refers to what is known as GILT – an acronym standing for interdependent practices incorporating Globalisation, Internationalization, Localisation, and Translation (Dunne, 2006, pp.4-5). This is the common context in which translation is viewed mostly. It refers to the practices adopted to tailor translation in order to target various readerships (ASTM F2575, 2014, p.1067). To lay the ground for the context of this research, the four concepts of GILT are explained below.

1.1.4.1 Globalisation

Globalisation of a product or service in the translation context refers to “the business processes and allocation of resources necessary for taking a product to various markets around the globe” (ASTM F2575, 2014, p.1068). However, Cadieux and Esselink (2004, p.3) argue that Globalisation under GILT practices should be aligned with how ‘Globalisation’ is perceived in other fields, where it centers around the applicability of anything (i.e., product, service or strategy) in any country. And on that same paragraph they continue “Another important aspect to globalization is that it is never all-encompassing; the target is never all the countries nor all the languages of the world. In fact, of the approximately 6,000 languages on the planet today, typical globalization efforts rarely target more than six at a time” (ibid., p.3). This is very important to translation service providers (TSPs) in general, even though in the specific scope of this thesis it is not as relevant, but worth noting nevertheless. These authors highlight the importance of updating the definitions of these four terms, and refer for instance to the value of the concept localisation in the context of present day translation, going beyond its original meaning (i.e., a group of people with a common language and cultural conventions; whilst the individual members of the group being or not in the same physical location) expanded to refer to “a virtual location, more akin to the concept of culture” (Cadieux and Esselink, 2004, p.2).

1.1.4.2 Internationalisation

The second term of GILT is defined by Gambier and Doorslaer (2009, p.145) as “a process whereby a product is designed in such a way (both in technical and linguistic terms) as to facilitate any subsequent localization”. Internationalisation is a preparation stage for localisation as O’Hagan (O’Hagan, 2005, p.76-77) emphasises that it is a “pre-localization process” aiming at decreasing the need for reproduction in terms of design or engineering. Esselink (2000, p.3) states “Central to internationalization is the ability to display the character sets and support local standards of a particular language and country”. Internationalisation therefore is about eliminating the cultural-locale, language-specific, and technical-specific elements so the product is localised easily with the minimum engineering (Gambier and Doorslaer, 2009, p.154; Tarquini *et al.*, 2010, p.352).

1.1.4.3 Localisation

Localisation is “the adaptation and translation of a text (like a software program) to suit a particular reception situation” (Pym, 2004, p.1). Schäler likewise (2011, p.157) defines it as “the linguistic and cultural adaptation of digital content to the requirements and locale of a foreign market, and the provision of services and technologies for the management of multilingualism across the digital global information flow.” Localisation includes changing “nontextual materials” of products or services to conform with the requirements of specific locale (ASTM F2575, 2014, p.1069). Further, it encompasses aspects of language (e.g., supporting the feature of right to left direction for Arabic language), culture (e.g., alternating content to fit cultural considerations such as time zones and currencies), and technology (e.g., changing keyboard input or the format of scripts) to fit specific market or audience (Tarquini *et al.*, 2010, p.350). Cadieux and Esselink (2004, pp.1-5) emphasise the need to precede localisation by internationalisation.

1.1.4.4 Translation

Translation is part of localisation. When explaining this generic relationship, Pym states (2004, p.4): “when the two fall together in a business model, translation is just a part of localization, since localization encompasses the broader range of processes”. This research is concerned with translation service providers (TSPs) specialising in producing written translation rather than language service providers (LSPs), which include translating digital content and providing other language related services. It is important therefore to define ‘translation’ in the context of this research.

Translation can be defined in many ways, but for the scope of this research, we may consider the following definitions in chronological order:

- i. “The essence of translation lies in the preservation of ‘meaning’ across two different languages” (House, 1981, p.25);
- ii. Nida and Taber define translation as “reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style” (Nida and Taber, 2003, p.12).
- iii. Christiane Nord defines translation based on the functional approach to translation which was introduced by Katharine Reiss in 1971 as “the production of a functional target text maintaining a relationship with a given

source text that is specified according to the intended or demanded function of the target text (Translation skopos)” (Nord, 2005, p.23).

- iv. “Translation is a complex dichotomous and cumulative process that involves a host of activities drawing upon other disciplines related to language, writing, linguistics and culture” (Darwish, 2003, p.23).
- v. “A linguistic mechanism to process meaning identity from one language to another, through the study of their linguistic behaviour as a whole but out of the sum of the different parts that compose the pieces of language to be translated” (Oro-Cabanas, 2012, p.93).

The definitions above agree on the core principle of ‘message transfer’. However, translation is differently defined in terms of perception. For instance, maintaining ‘meaning’ is the main spirit of translation for House (1981). Yet ‘style’ is equally important in Nida and Taber (2003) terms. On the other hand, preserving the ‘function’ behind the message is more important for the functionalists (Reiss, 1971; Nord, 2005). While Oro-Cabanas (2012) perceives it as a merely linguistic, Darwish (2003) observes the process of translation as a multidisciplinary activity.

Munday (2016, p.8) puts translation, therefore, as the process of changing an original source text (ST) from its source verbal language (SL) to another target verbal language (TL), producing the target text (TT). Other authors, Nida and Taber (1969/2003, p.33), perceive translation in multiple stages, starting with studying and analysing criteria against which the message and the relationships between grammar and meaning are assessed; followed by decision-making and considerations in the translator’s mind; and finally transferring these decisions in line with the purpose of the target text.

Translation can be traced back as far as the long debate over ‘word-for-word’ and ‘sense-for-sense’ by Cicero and Horace during the first century BC, and by St. Jerome in the fourth century CE (Aranda, 2007, p.19; Munday, 2016, p.19), and, most particularly, sense-of-sense approaches have persisted as the leading views on translation till the present day.

Referring to the definitions suggested by the authors above, it can be stated that translation is a multi-disciplinary communicative process, in which meaning is transferred, and communication is achieved from one language to another. Darwish

(2003, p.23) suggests that this process involves three major activities: the synchronisation of text-translation-research of the subject-matter; the transfer of data from the source language (SL) to the target language (TL); and a continuous self-development and learning process (ibid, p.23). This is the approach on the significance of translation the researcher will take throughout the thesis.

1.2 Research questions

The main idea of the current research is to investigate how far TQM will be a step forward for quality assurance in non-profit Translation service providers in the UAE. Furthermore, it aims at identifying the critical success factors for the translation industry in the UAE from management, process and translation perspectives so that an integrated approach towards implementing TQM can be suggested. Therefore, the overarching research question is “How to integrate all resources of a TSP in the most effective way to achieve the objectives of the organisation according to the philosophy of TQM?” This objective can be reached by answering the following research questions:

- i. How important could TQM be to translation service providers (TSPs) in the UAE?
- ii. What are the processes, standards and practices which can be noticed currently in the work of TSPs in the UAE?
- iii. What are the managerial technologies and practices that are adopted in UAE TSPs to ensure translation quality?
- iv. How may the gap be bridged between the current practices and TQM?

1.2.1 Research Steps

These objectives will be pursued by means of the following intended research steps:

- i. identifying the main managerial aspects of UAE TSPs – with particular focus on non-profit organisations - to provide a clearer overview of the managerial, structural and procedural aspects in relation to the management philosophy of TQM;
- ii. studying the current management systems in non-profit TSPs in the UAE in order to determine the critical success factors for such TSPs towards TQM;
- iii. evaluating the quality measures adopted at the procedural level in non-profit TSPs in the UAE to assure the quality of translation;

- iv. defining the management practices, strategies, and parameters that provide the basis for an operational framework for embedding TQM in non-profit TSPs in the UAE.

Details of how the research questions will be addressed, as well as details of the research methodology and strategy used, are presented in Chapter Four (Methodology).

1.3 Significance of the study:

Translation quality has become enormously important with the advent of Globalisation and advancements in information technology that have augmented its prominence for the prosperous growth and development of nations, with a notion in mind that it is necessary for nations to understand and recognize the importance of literature and books in their own language in order to achieve prosperity and progress for the country.

The situation is no different in the UAE, where for the past decade government institutions and leading thinkers have established translation service providers (TSPs) in order to translate a wide variety of texts into Arabic so as to enrich the Arabic content and support knowledge and research. After operating for several years, they seem to be facing unanswered questions related to managing quality amid the complexity of translation as an activity in the corporate environment.

Translation project managers have been embedding quality concepts and associated tools such as Quality Control (QC), Translation Quality Assessment (TQA), and Quality Assurance (QA) for the past decade, to assist in the process of ensuring quality (Mateo, 2014; Brunette, 2000; Williams, 2004; Gouadec, 2007). Furthermore, there is a significant integration of international standards for translation services such as ISO 17100 and ISO 11669 in the TSPs to assist management in regulating the process and managing quality. The present research focuses on identifying the extent to which these and other quality management tools impact on the overall value-chain of non-profit TSPs, particularly in the English-to-Arabic translation processes in the UAE. Moreover, this thesis is an effort to understand the gaps in the TSPs in the UAE from the structural right through to the operational levels, as regards the prospects of total quality management (TQM) for enhancing the organisational performance. TQM is one of the management

philosophies that is known for its holistic approach towards quality and is thus considered as a guidance umbrella for the research.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis consists of nine chapters summarised below.

1.4.1 Chapter One: Introduction

This is the current chapter that summarises the motivation and scope of the research. It introduces briefly the philosophy of TQM and the significant forces facing TSPs in the current economic context. The chapter highlights the role of quality management systems in improving different industries and sectors in the UAE and the necessity of placing government-funded non-profit TSPs in the context of excellence and competition.

1.4.2 Chapter Two: Quality in translation project management

This chapter consists of two parts; the first presents an in-depth discussion of the theories and perspectives on translation quality, while the second provides a starting point to understand the complex practices translation service providers have to undertake and manage in order to achieve high-quality translations. This includes discussion of the theoretical evolution of quality concepts in the context of translation, exploring the characteristics of translation projects and associated challenges, descriptions of the key actors who are usually managed within a translation project, the requirements at different stages of the translation process as well as different forms of quality evaluation such as quality control (QC), translation quality assessment (TQA), and quality assurance (QA) in order to contextualise and introduce the role and relevance of Total Quality Management (TQM) as an approach to the quality management of TSPs.

1.4.3 Chapter Three: Total quality management and critical success factors

This chapter also consists of two parts outlining TQM in a detailed manner, beginning with its historical evolution and the philosophical views of the pioneers behind TQM's formulation. This is followed by a detailed presentation of the various views on TQM resulting in a set of different definitions. The chapter then discusses the principles of TQM with relevance to managing TSPs and highlights the significance of embedding it in the translation industry. The second part, on the

other hand, provides further discussion on critical success factors (CSFs) as an approach to implementing TQM in various industries. It thoroughly discusses various CSFs in the context of translation and quality management in TSPs, based on existing relevant models from the literature.

1.4.4 Chapter Four: Research methodology

The research approach is explained, based on a non-positivist and interpretivist philosophy. The reason for using mixed research methods and the particular cases chosen are then presented, followed by a presentation of the specific qualitative and quantitative data sought for this research. A variety of methods were used to derive the data and the framework for implementing TQM developed through the research, and each is explained in this chapter.

1.4.5 Chapter Five: Findings – general survey and case studies

In this chapter, the findings from the general survey and case studies including interviews and specified surveys for each studied TSP are presented. It attempts to investigate the quality management practices in the UAE with relevance to TQM practices. Based on the presented findings, this chapter ends with a discussion of the three major departmentalisations affecting managing quality in the TSPs, namely managerial aspects, organisational culture and procedural perspectives.

1.4.6 Chapter Six: Findings – proofreading and editing text analysis

The sequence of Chapters Six and Seven follows the order of quality control processes opted for in Kalima. This chapter text-analyses the proofreading and editing procedures of three books before and after proofreading and editing in order to understand the methodology used at Kalima to improve the quality of their translation. This analysis aims at identifying procedural aspects to consider under TQM. The chapter therefore concludes by discussing issues related to the proofreading and editing activities of Kalima.

1.4.7 Chapter Seven: Findings – revision text analysis

As with Chapter Six, this chapter aims at identifying the important issues at the procedural level. It therefore text-analyses the processes of revising translations at Kalima. The chapter begins with a literature review on translation revision. The analysis covers studying the revision of three books in the revision process before and after revision, and follows Brian Mossop's (2014) revision parameters. This

chapter concludes with a section discussing issues raised by the analysis on the revision process at Kalima.

1.4.8 Chapter Eight: Developing a framework of CSFs for implementing TQM in TSPs

In this chapter a framework for implementing TQM at non-profit TSPs derived from the research is presented. The framework originated from both the findings summarised in Chapters Five, Six, and Seven and also the existing literature review presented in Chapters Two and Three on the available quality tools. The framework is constructed based on proposing three levels of changes including leadership commitment, managerial reforms and procedural changes. These levels encompass areas arising from the findings of Chapter Five. The thorough text- analysis of Kalima proofreading, editing and revision (in Chapters Six and Seven) resulted in developing a model for procedural changes around a core value of providing procedural excellence, supported by six constructs which together contribute to the quality of the translation process in a corporate context under the umbrella of TQM.

1.4.9 Chapter Nine: Conclusions and recommendations

The concluding chapter summarises the relevance of TQM to TSPs and the significance of its implementation in the UAE. It also summarises the current quality processes, standards, and practices adopted in UAE TSPs, while reviewing the role of the managerial practices in place to ensure the quality of translation in the realm of TQM. This is followed by recommendations as to how to bridge the gaps between the current practices in TSPs and TQM by means of the proposed framework. The chapter also identifies opportunities which support the implementation of such a framework, the benefits it might provide and appropriate steps towards its application. The limitations encountered in this research are also outlined in this chapter, along with recommendations for further research.

2 Chapter Two: Quality of translation project management in TSPs

This chapter aims at understanding translation quality within the context of management projects undertaken by translation service providers (TSPs). The chapter encompasses two parts; the first part (2.1) begins by outlining perspectives on translation quality, followed by distinguishing between product-based and process-based approaches to translation quality, whereas the second (2.2) presents a literature review on how quality is managed in the established frameworks of translation project management in TSPs. This covers sections on key players and stakeholders, translation competence, translation phases and quality concepts such as quality control (QC), translation quality assessment (TQA), and quality assurance (QA).

2.1 Part One: Perspectives on Translation Quality

Be it in the context of translation training or in a business context, irrespective of whether we are dealing with human translation or machine translation, we continuously struggle to get a grip on the concept of “quality” and search for an adequate methodology to gauge and improve the quality of the translation output.

(Depraetere, 2011, p.1)

Translation quality has been debated for centuries (Brunette, 2000, p.169; Williams, 2004, p. xiii). The motive behind such long debate is to find an objective judgment to evaluate and assess translation (Kesseiri and Bani-Hashem, 2013, p.55). This in turn has led to the proliferation of many approaches to quality in translation. However, despite these attempts, there is no agreement on what defines a “good”, “satisfactory”, or “acceptable” translation (Williams, 2004, p.xiv). Instead, “theorists and professionals overwhelmingly agree there is no single objective way to measure quality” (Drugan, 2013, p.35).

Generally speaking, ‘quality’ refers to “the standard of something as measured against other things of a similar kind” (*Oxford Dictionary of English*, 2015). It is also defined by the International Organisation for Standards in its ISO 9000: 2015 as the “degree to which a set of inherent *characteristics* of an *object* fulfils

requirements” (BSI ISO 9000, 2015, p.18). According to ISO 9000: 2015 the ‘inherent characteristics’ denote those existing features of the object, which can be a product, process, service, resource, person, or organisation, whereas ‘requirement’ refers to the specifications identified by the requester (BSI EN ISO 9000, 2015, p.18-19, 26). Both definitions imply that the concept of ‘quality’ is characterised by ‘relativity’ that is in turn outlined by ‘requirements’. In the context of translation, this suggests that translation quality is not absolute. Rather, it should be measured against specified requirements that may differ from one project and context to another.

When reflecting on the meaning of ‘quality’ in regard to the translation, Mossop (2014, pp.23-25) considers three main views on quality:

The first view defines quality of translation as based on the client’s satisfaction, by focusing on aspects that could be of interest to the client such as terminology. However, these aspects cannot be determined unless they are pre-outlined clearly in agreement with the client prior to commencing translation. This view conforms to the definition of translation quality stated by ASTM F2575-2014 (a standard guide for quality assurance in translation that is published by ASTM International³) as the “degree to which the characteristics of a translation fulfill the requirements of the agreed-upon specifications” (ASTM, 2014, p.1070). This indicates the importance of specifying these requirements so as to establish a yardstick for the quality of translation and guidance for translation strategies. However, Petersen (1996, p.218) argues that “customer focus has to be the governing principle of translation but translation practice needs to satisfy both producer [translator or TSP] and customer requirements”. Petersen (1996, p.217) perceives the producer’s requirements as “implied customer requirements” in cases where they are not stated clearly by the customer, which should be balanced with the established “detailed and explicit translation ethics” (ibid., p.218). The producer’s requirements (translator or TSP) in this sense could refer to the established criteria and standards derived from both the translator’s knowledge that may put him/her in a position of superior competence

³ ASTM is an international organisation for standards that was previously known as the American Society for Testing and Materials (see www.astm.org).

over the client when it comes to translation-related considerations (Pym, 2014, p.59) and the TSP's internal perception of quality (Mossop, 2014, p.23).

The second view of translation quality is determined by considering whether the translation is "fit for the purpose" (Mossop, 2014, p.24). In this view, "The translation needs to be 'good enough' to serve its purpose and no better" (ibid., p.24). This is in line with the functionalist approaches to translation which perceive translation as a purposeful activity and one in which quality is therefore evaluated based on meeting the text's purpose (Schäffner, 2011, p.115). Functionalist approaches are represented by contributions such as Vermeer's 'Skopos Theory', which defines translation as being "to produce a text in a target setting for a target purpose and target addressees in target circumstances" (Vermeer, 1987, p.29); and Reiss's text typology, where she developed a quality typology for translation quality based on text types that reflect their purpose (1976/2000).

On the third view of translation quality, Mossop (2014, p.24) states that present-day TSPs have "advanced a procedural concept of quality that is focused not on the relationship between the source text and the translation, or on the quality of writing in the translation, but on the process used to prepare the translation", referring to a process such as QA which will be discussed in further sections (see 2.2.4.2 and 2.2.4.3). For its holistic integration of the translation process, this constitutes the quality view on which this research is formulated. But before presenting these procedures, it is useful to illustrate how quality has been perceived in translation studies.

Translation researchers have discussed translation quality through two main perspectives. The first, which dominates the literature of translation quality, is the quality of translation product in terms of linguistic and extra-linguistic aspects, including the text and its readership, function, and medium. The second perspective concerns the quality of the procedures and processes associated with the creation of translation, which arguably begins with accepting the ST and goes beyond the delivery of its TT (Petersen, 1996, p.215). Equally, Wright (2006, p.254) quotes Schnitzlein (2003, p.4) who makes a distinction between the product quality and process quality in evaluating translation. In Wright's translation, the former is concerned with the translation product formally and linguistically, whereas the latter denotes the quality of all the processes and operations involved in the translation,

starting from the acceptance of the ST, through translating, editing and revising to the actual delivery of the TT (Wright, 2006, p.255). This distinction is in fact a reflection of the two approaches to quality mentioned above; the product-based approach and the process-based approach. The latter, which many existing approaches to translation quality failed to address (Drugan, 2013, p.45) highlights the scope of this research. Process-based approaches to translation quality perceive quality in the corporate context of producing the end product (translated content), which may involve different players who work together towards the production of the translated content.

2.1.1 Product-based approaches to translation quality

As a final product, the notion of quality has been discussed throughout the literature of translation studies on the level of linguistic competence, where the question of quality is raised linguistically between the ST and the TT (Kesseiri and Bani-Hashem, 2013, p.56). Gouadec (2007, p.6) states that the ultimate test of quality in translation is the effectiveness of the communication. House, however, argues that translation quality theories have resulted in various conceptualizations of translation quality (1977/1997, p.1). Translation quality has been subject to different approaches in translation studies under the notion of translation quality assessment (TQA). TQA here is used in the sense of evaluating the quality of the translation as a product (Drugan, 2013, p.36; Williams, 2004, pp.3-20). House (2011, p. 222) divides the existing translation quality assessment approaches into three categories: (1) anecdotal and subjective approaches; (2) response-oriented approaches; and (3) textual and pragmatic approaches.

2.1.1.1. Anecdotal and subjective approaches

Approaches at this level place value on the translator's experience and knowledge, which constitute their conceptualization of quality upon general criteria such as the TT's faithfulness to the original and its readability to the target readers (House, 2011, p.222). House argues that such criteria, which are developed subjectively by "practicing translators, philosophers, philologists, writers and many others" are "theoretical in nature, and the possibility of establishing general principles for translation quality is generally rejected" (ibid., p.222). Further, Colina (2008, p.100)

listed certification exams such as ATA⁴ and LISA QA model⁵ for localisation as examples of anecdotal and subjective approaches as they are applicable to certain environments and industries, yet are invalid in others. The subjectivity of such criteria lies in the fact that they were developed based on opinions rather than empirically evident theoretical models (ibid).

2.1.1.2. Response-oriented approaches

These centre on the behavioural and receptor's response as a yardstick for translation quality. This approach is developed under different concepts such as Nida's dynamic equivalence, i.e., the idea of producing an effect upon the TT's reader equivalent to that produced on the ST's (Nida, 1964, p.182). Maintaining this kind of equivalence is based on three criteria, namely: (1) the efficiency of the communication process; (2) comprehension of intent; and (3) equivalence of response (ibid). House (2011, p.222) claims that these three criteria are "vague and non-variable", which adds more complexity to the yardstick's implementation.

Carroll's approach is another example of a response-oriented approach, as she suggests measuring the quality of translation by testing informativeness and intelligibility - how accurate and adequate the TT is in terms of the information it transfers and how understandable and normal it sounds in the target language (Carroll, 1966, p.57). However, this model was designed mainly to assess the translation of scientific texts in which information is paramount, rather than rhetoric and style (Al-Qinai, 2000, p.498).

Furthermore, Nida and Taber (1969/2003, p.173) developed three criteria for assessment: "(1) the correctness with which the receptors understand the message of the original, ... (2) the ease of comprehension, and (3) the involvement a person experiences as the result of the adequacy of the form of the translation". Yet, House (2011, pp.222-223) argues that "the tests suggested for implementing such criteria,

⁴ A certification exam developed by the American Translators' Association to test professional translation skills (see www.atanet.org)

⁵ A translation quality metric which is designed for localization industry by LISA (Localization Industry Standards Association) It lists criteria for reviewing/ grading translation quality such as mistranslation, accuracy, terminology, layout, and typography. The grading system of this metric falls under three main categories: critical, major, and minor errors. However, LISA does not exist anymore.

such as cloze or elicitation of a receptor's reaction to different translations, are not rigorous enough to be considered theoretically valid or reliable". This approach is also criticised for the absence of the ST in evaluating the translation, which in turn allows more room for relying subjectively on personal impressions and background (Al-Qinai, 2000, p.498).

According to Colina (2008, p.101) the response-oriented approaches to quality assessment should be praised for highlighting the role of the readership as a yardstick for translation quality. However, these approaches have limitations that she has summarised in a few points (*ibid.*). For instance, not all texts are reader-oriented, and so the role of the reader is not important, such as in the case of legal texts. Further, while prioritising the effect upon the reader, other important criteria may be neglected such as the function of translation, which in some cases leads to changing the reader's response to the TT (*ibid.*, pp.100-101).

2.1.1.3. The text-based approaches

Text-based approaches cover linguistic, comparative literature, and functional models of translation quality assessment (House, 2011, p.223). The linguistic branch of translation gives value to the relationship between the ST and TT by building a quality analysis on identifying the semantic, lexical, syntactic and stylistic levels between the two (House, 2001, pp.243-255). For instance, Koller (1979/1992) calls for preceding the assessment of the quality of translation by assessing the quality of the ST. Further, Koller (*ibid.*) suggests that the translation comparison to the source text should be followed by studying the methods of translation and evaluating the translation from a native speaker's perspectives (*ibid.*). It is worth noting here that Lauscher's models has two branches: (1) an equivalence-based approach, and (2) functional approaches (2000, p.151). Drugan argues that the first one may belong to text-based approaches as it highlights the relationship between the ST and TT and makes a distinction between the process of producing translated texts and other activities, whereas the latter is closer to being part of response-based approaches given the fact that it evaluates translation mainly on the basis of the target culture (Drugan, 2013, p.49; Lauscher, 2000, p.156).

Assessment models that rely on comparative literature (House, 2011, p.223) do not give value to the ST. That is, the quality of the TT is assessed based on its fitness in

the target culture and is considered to be a fact of the target language system (Toury, 1985, p.19) and “an activity dependent on the relations within a certain cultural system” (Even-Zohar, 2012, p.167).

The functional approach to translation quality assessment is represented by different views, yet it is mainly concerned with the function or the purpose of the translation. Among these approaches is Reiss’s typology of assessment (2000). As mentioned above, Reiss views the ST’s text-type and function as the most important yardstick of translation evaluation. But this model has been criticised for not proposing any norm that can be measured objectively for implementation (Al-Qinai, 2000, p.498; House, 2011, p.224). In the “Skopos Theory” proposed by Vermeer (1987) the translation process also falls under the text-based approaches (House, 2011, p.224) as the quality of translation is evaluated based on maintaining the purpose (Schäffner, 2011, p.121).

To address the failure to acknowledge the relationship between the source text and target text in the existing models of translation quality assessment, House (1977/1997) introduced a functional-pragmatic model based on Halliday’s systemic functional model (Halliday, 1978)⁶. House’s functional-pragmatic model analyses the linguistic-situational particularities of both ST and TT, compares them, and assesses the matches and the mismatches (House, 1977/1997). Furthermore, the ST function that is concluded by analysing the linguistic-situational dimensions of the text is the norm against which the translation is assessed (ibid., pp.38-46). House (2011, p.225) points to the importance of supporting the proposed models of translation quality assessment by considering the translators’ experiences and the strategies they adopt during the process of translation.

Colina (2008, p.102) argues that another approach such as Williams’ (2001) approach to quality falls under the textual approach to quality since it evaluates quality based on the argument and structure of the text (Williams, 2001, p.226). Williams’ approach focuses on qualitative and non-qualitative aspects that centre on the categorization of errors (Williams, 2004, pp.3-19). Drugan, however, argues that although objectivity can be drawn from the quantifiable errors of Williams’ model,

⁶ Halliday’s systemic functional model conceives language as a means of communication through the interrelationship between linguistic choices and sociocultural context (Munday, 2016, pp.142-143).

subjectivity will always lie in the unquantifiable and unclear degrees of standards and criteria of quality (Drugan, 2013, p.48).

Colina (2008, pp.103-125) has also developed a functionalist-componential approach to quality. Quality here is evaluated based on function as well as other aspects specified by the requester. Colina sees the model she proposes as functionalist, as “the translated text is evaluated on the basis of how well it exemplifies the text type and function required by the translation brief, thus integrating textual and pragmatic approaches in its design”; and as componential for combining different proposed components of quality assessment models such as “functional, pragmatic, textual, effects on the reader” (ibid., p.105). Other recent views of translation quality include that of Lauscher (2000), who is of the view that translation decisions are tied to agreed upon “values” with “interested parties” against which translation quality evaluation should be carried out. Therefore, she perceived translation quality as “a matter of agreement and consensus” on which quality can be judged (ibid., p.149). Paloposki (2010, p.47) considers that the models proposed by Lauscher (2000) and Colina (2008) for translation quality assessment “allow for variable notions of quality, depending on case-specific values, customer-defined and negotiated quality criteria and may thus be more flexible and adaptable to various purposes and translation views”. Unlike other models, which do not take any extratextual variables into consideration, both Lauscher (2000) and Colina (2008) involve external factors, which consider the requester’s specifications as a parameter for the quality and an important driver of translation strategies. In this regard, Nord (2005, p.9), who is one of the prominent representatives of functionalism and views translation in accordance with Vermeer’s “Skopos” perception, stresses that “purpose” in translation should be perceived, as she puts it, as “the prospective function or skopos of the target text as determined by the initiator’s needs” (Nord, 2005, p.10). Although not explicitly stated, this approach therefore considers other extratextual factors of translation quality which may justify Petersen’s argument in that “quality management” in translation that involves textual and other extratextual factors (e.g., the customer’s and producer’s opinions, time constraints, translation briefs) “is just a further step in the development of the functionalist approach” (Petersen, 1996, p.213).

Although criticism of some of the models mentioned above has been received either for their being too subjective or for the absence of a practical norm against which

the quality of translation is assessed, they have nonetheless established the principles for developing other attempts towards more objective models of assessment today, which continue to evolve. Yet, House (1977/1997, p.47) states that “it seems unlikely that translation quality assessment can ever be objectified in the manner of natural science.” That is due to the relativity of the concept of quality in general and to the nature of perceiving and interpreting texts in particular, as Larose (1998, p.163) in Bowker (2001, p.347) stresses on the subjective nature of translation evaluation. Moreover, Al-Qinai (2000, p.498) has noted that as “there is neither a definitive reading of a text nor a perfect rendering which achieves the goals of the ST, translation assessment and criticism could go on forever”. Thus, a good translation remains dependent upon how a translator or a translation entity realises the concept of quality upon which the models listed above were developed.

While identifying requirements and standards for translation quality is significant, the yardstick of measuring the quality of translation in professional settings remains relative since its degree is subjected to the preferences and viewpoints of the translator, project manager or requester/client (Gouadec, 2010, p.270; Bowker, 2001, p.347). At the same time, however, the fact of zero defects and errors in the sense of mistranslation and translation mistakes at the linguistic competence level continues to be a prominent indicator of translation quality that cannot be overlooked (Gouadec, 2010, 2007; Matis, 2011).

2.1.2. Process-based approaches to translation quality

Neubert and Shreve (1992, pp.43-52) state that translation is a kind of text production, which is a result of activating the competence of procedures that comprise the translation process. Similarly, Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson (2004, p. 256) argue that “how the translation is performed is dependent not only on the interaction between the organisation and its customers but also on the internal policies and aims of the organisation”. Arguably, analysing the methods of production and controlling the process of translation can assure quality of translation (Neubert and Shreve, 1992, pp.43-52). However, Samuelsson-Brown (2006, p.59) argues that while it is difficult to apply quality management systems to intellectual output such as translation, they can more easily be applied to the “processes that support translation production”, which involve different stakeholders and procedures. Further, Mossop (2014, pp.129-130), says that it is challenging to

control quality at the product level in TSPs of high productivity, and therefore it is important to provide translation processes with a quality system that prevents errors from occurring at the early stages of production. Mossop (ibid., p.227) notes that QA in the context of the translation process in TSPs means that all members of a translation organisation collaborate to meet its objectives. These objectives should consider three levels of achievement: *quality of service* (e.g. meeting deadlines); *quality of the physical product* (e.g. layout); and *quality of the text* (e.g. language quality, terminology, etc.) (ibid, p.118).

Additionally, Bass (2006, p.92), notes that a quality management system provides translation organisations with a framework that regulates the processes of translation and ensures continuous high quality services. Gouadec in this regard (2010, p.270) points to a strong correlation between quality standards and good translation practices. Similarly, Salice and George (1994, pp.42-46) conclude that applying quality management systems is possible by following the process approach, but only when standards and specifications of procedures are defined.

On these bases, and due to the advent of globalisation, more emphasis has come to be placed on “total quality” management systems and standards certifications being applied to the field of translation, which in turn results in process-based assurance systems (Williams, 2004, p.xiii). Further, many process-based approaches and models of translation quality have been developed over the years that conceive of quality within its corporate and procedural context. Such models, in the form of documents, standardise procedures and provide frameworks for TSPs to achieve quality of the process, which then reflects on the quality of service (Mossop, 2014, p.130; Petersen, 1996, p.210). These documents cover different aspects of TSPs, including qualifications and competences of translators and other professionals involved in the translation process, definitions of main terms used in the translation industry, specifications of the translation stages and workflow in TSPs, interaction between requester and TSPs, and criteria and parameters for developing translation briefs or specifications. Examples of these standards are presented below.

The German Institute for Standardisation in 1998 published **DIN 2345** entitled “Translation Contracts” as the standard for quality of translation in Europe (Bass, 2006, p.91). This standard was developed to be submitted to “a European or International Standard” such as the International Organisation for Standardisation

(ISO) (Pastor, 2006, p.49). It specifies characteristics for translation such as consistency of terminology, correctness of language, and compliance to style (Bass, 2006, p.91). Interestingly, DIN 2345 is one of the earliest standards developed for translation industry (Dunne, 2006, p.334) and has influenced recent formulation of translation guidelines and standards (Pastor, 2006, p.49).

Yet DIN 2345 was replaced by **DIN EN 15038** in August 2006 and entitled “Translation services – service requirement” (European Committee for Standardization, 2006), which was in turn superseded in 2015 by **EN ISO 17100** (published by the British Standards Institution), entitled “Translation services – requirements for translation services”. This document “specified requirements for all aspects of the translation process directly affecting the quality and delivery of translation services” (BSI 17100, 2015, p.vi). Quality of translation is not defined; rather it is implied in meeting the specifications agreed upon between the TSP and requester (ibid., p.8) and following QA tools at the various stages of the translation process (ibid., pp. 5-12). ISO 17100: 2015 covers terms and definitions related to translation services, its workflow, and the professionals and stakeholders involved in the process. It also specifies the minimum qualifications required for the professionals working for TSPs, including in-house or freelance staff and their responsibilities. Further, the document gives details about the different stages of the translation process, which starts by selecting texts for translation and ends by collecting feedback and closing the administration (ibid., pp.1-18).

In 2006, ASTM International, which was previously known as the American Society for Testing Materials) released **ASTM F2575-2006** which was updated and published in 2014 as **ASTM F2575-2014**. It provides a detailed list of parameters for TSPs such as relevant terminologies, stakeholders, translation project phases, competences, and translation specifications (ASTM, 2014, pp.1067-1077).

In 2012, the British Standards Institute published **ISO 11669** entitled “Translation projects - General guidance”. This standard provides a framework with specifications for translation projects. It specifies in-process QA and gives significance to the interaction between TSP and requester in developing translation specifications and translation parameters (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, pp. 12-13). This standard (ISO 11669) defines translation quality similarly to ASTM F2575-2014: “When both requesters and TSPs agree on project specifications, the quality of a

translation — from a workflow and final delivery perspective — can be determined by the degree to which the target content adheres to the predetermined specifications” (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.v). It provides guidance concerning best practices for all phases of a translation project. It is intended to improve communication among all relevant stakeholders in a translation project, including the persons requesting the translation service, those providing the service and those who make use of the resulting translation product.

Beside these standards, Drugan states that the translation industry is witnessing growing interest in quality management systems and philosophies such as management and industry standards certifications, Total Quality Management, Kaizen⁷ and Six Sigma⁸ (Drugan, 2013, p.75; the researcher’s notes).

Embedding quality management systems in translation has had a significant impact on the translation industry. For instance, a case study by Petersen (1996, p.219) on a translation project that achieved ISO 9001 certification⁹ for its quality-management procedures, concludes that total quality management, which is the core management philosophy of this research, is applicable to professional translation. Further, this certification, in Petersen’s case study, proved able to change the translation service provider from being reactive into proactive in satisfying both customers and employees, integrating technology, improving the process and quality of translation, and increasing cost-effectiveness and profitability (ibid., pp.212-213). ISO documents have arguably been used as tools for TQM implementation. However, Petersen (ibid., p.209) emphasises that, under the umbrella of TQM, a TSP “will be expected to subject all parts of its activities to quality management, which ISO series do not require”. Such certification nevertheless encourages

management commitment to quality and to continuous quality development and if this is taken seriously, the likelihood is that all parts of an ISO certified firm will eventually be subjected to quality, which, in the long run, should reduce costs through standardisation of procedures, to the benefit of both customers and the producer (Petersen, 1996, p.209).

⁷ Kaizen is a Japanese management philosophy with a continuous development approach to quality that was developed by Masaaki Imai in 1986. (See www.kaizen.com).

⁸ Data-oriented management approach to eliminate defects and errors (www.isixsigma.com).

⁹ A general set of international standards for quality management systems that can be applied to firms regardless of their scope and size. The certification of ISO does not assure compliance to these standards; rather, it assures that there are regulated management systems in place.

Similarly, empirical studies conclude that ISO certifications create good organisational environments and better performance towards implementing TQM (Terziovski and Samson, 2000, p.144; Shafiq, *et al.*, 2014, p.19). However, for other studies, ISO certification makes no difference to the implementation of TQM (Sila, 2007, p.83). Some other studies, however, view standards certifications as contradictory elements to TQM implementation as they may add extra levels of bureaucracies and costs for registration and implementation (Martinez-Lorente and Martinez-Costa, 2004, p.274).

Interestingly, Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson proposed a model for translation businesses entitled ‘Acquired Capabilities for Translation Systems’ (ACTS) (Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson, 2004, pp.243-285). This model integrates the organisation’s functional (environmental) aspects with the technical aspect of translation on the basis that “translation cannot be performed successfully without taking into consideration the constraints imposed by the environment in which it takes place” (*ibid.*, p.256). ACTS is derived from a study conducted on the IT industry and Deming’s 14¹⁰ principles of management that constitute the building block philosophy of TQM (*ibid.*, p.255).

Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson (2004) formulated the model around five “capabilities”, namely:

- (1) Professionalism (a. Commitment of translators to work and policies and of other professionals to employees’ involvement in the organisation; b. Discipline and compliance with procedures);
- (2) Organisation (a. The documentation and strategies related to policies, standards, responsibilities, training plans, decision-making, project planning, management and its assessment; b. Communication and interaction between all stakeholders; c. Teamwork planning);
- (3) Consistency of quality (process and service);
- (4) Refinement (measuring performance and self-reflection through providing feedback);

¹⁰ See Deming, 1992.

(5) Innovation by embracing change (ibid., pp.258-277).

These five capabilities should be considered by the TSP in order to “create an effective, disciplined process so as to meet the requirements of its customers, minimising internal costs and in the hope that everyone in the organisation can take pride in their work” (ibid., p.257).

Another closer conception of TQM is seen in the ‘Programme for Quality Management in Translation: 22 Actions’ by the European Commission Translation Directorate (DGT, 2009). Its introductory part highlights “the holistic dimension of quality management by defining basic principles for a series of key components, i.e.: human resources management; linguistic and thematic resources management; work allocation; quality control; critical self-evaluation; risk assessment and control; communication” (DGT, 2009, p.33).

It establishes “a framework for quality assurance in Language Departments” (ibid., p.54). This document, which applies to the EU’s Directorate-General for Translation and may arguably apply to other contexts of translation, states that “processes which were established for years had to be re-thought in an effort to improve service quality, cost-effectiveness, transparency and traceability” (ibid., p.12).

Karl-John Lönnroth (2009, p.2), Director-General of the Programme, states that the 22 Quality Actions highlight “the chosen pattern of quality assurance before translation starts (training, support, purpose and customers' needs, programming), during translation (preparatory tasks, work allocation, risk assessment, IT tools and quality control) and after translation ends (customer feedback, traceability, ex-post evaluation and benchmarking)”.

In summary, TQM, as introduced earlier in Chapter One (see 1.1.1), is a process approach that gives significance to assuring the quality of a product by means of managing the quality of the procedures (Fiegenbaum, 2015; Mukherjee, 2006; Evans and Lindsay, 2016). Similarly, with regard to translators and translation organisations, Williams (1989, pp.13-33) emphasises the need for a consistent and valid system to evaluate quality in the translation workplace that should take into account the procedures of production which, in turn, include the customers’ requirements, timelines, language quality and accuracy, etc. Moreover, Gouadec (2010, p.273) insists that meeting procedure-based codes of good practices (process), along with complying with the conditions for QA (standards), leads to a

good quality end-product, echoing a central concept of total quality management (TQM), where the process is central to QA and management (Mukherjee, 2006; Evans and Lindsay, 2016). This research therefore intends to investigate the organisational practices and aspects of TSPs in relation to the TQM elements that will be presented in detail in the next chapter. It is useful, however, to understand the process of translation, its management, phases, workflow and stakeholders through which process-based quality management systems integrate.

2.2 Part Two: Translation Project Management

TSPs are “project-driven” as characterised by Dunne (2012, p. 144); therefore it is important to define what a project means in the context of this thesis. The PMBOK[®] guide¹¹ defines a ‘project’ as “a temporary endeavour undertaken to create a unique product, service, or result” (PMI, 2013, p.5). Similarly, Bouchereau (2016, p.66) defines it as “a temporary endeavour designed to produce a unique product, service or result with a defined beginning and end undertaken to meet unique goals and objectives”. Other definitions such as the one by PRINCE2[®] (AXELOS, 2012, p.10) adds the commercial benefit, as it is “a temporary organization that is created for the purpose of delivering one or more business products according to an agreed Business Case.” Yet this aspect is not specified in PMBOK[®]’s definition, which may involve non-profit projects.

Dunne and Dunne argue that a project is characterised by temporariness and uniqueness. The former means that a beginning and an end point define it. Uniqueness, on the other hand, refers to the fact that its own aspects and characteristics distinguish it, although it can be similar to other projects (2011, p.4). These characteristics in turn determine the required effort for its scope, specified degree of quality, required time and resources, and the associated risks (Marasco, 2004, p.3 cited in Dunne and Dunne, 2011, p.4). Amid the strong presence of outsourcing today, the activities of TSPs centre on project management, which is described by Stoeller (2004, p.3) as the “hub of the wheel”. These management

¹¹ A book published by the Project Management Institute (PMI) that outlines terminologies and guidelines for the best practices in project management.

activities make sure projects meet the required criteria, are completed within the allocated budget and are delivered on time (Dunne and Dunne, 2011, p.5).

Project management is defined by the PMBOK[®] guide (PMI, 2008, p.334) as “the application of knowledge, skills, tools, and techniques to project activities to meet project requirements”. Therefore, translation project management refers to employing efforts, skills, techniques and knowledge made to ensure the delivery of translation- related activities in accordance with the required specifications within the allocated budget and time.

2.2.1 Features of contemporary translation service providers

2.2.1.1 Size and scope

Translation projects are completed by TSPs that may be individuals, companies, or agencies who in turn may be freelance or in-house and profit or non-profit (BSI, 2012, p.2). TSPs also vary in size as some may be managed from home or offices with 2-3 employees, whereas others could be large international companies with several branches which may include developing translation-related software. TSPs may also vary in specialisation; some of them tend to focus on certain domains such as legal, medical or financial translations. Specialisation can also refer to the language combination or direction (Matis, 2014, p.8).

2.2.1.2 Outsourcing

Studies have reported that 90% of TSPs outsource their translation (Beninato, 2006, p.4; DePalma and Beninato, 2008, p.1). This is argued to be due to the growth of the translation industry, thriving technology and the internet, all of which have made this a favourable arrangement for commissioning translations (Dunne and Dunne, 2011, p.3; Matis, 2014, p.7, Kesseiri and Bani-Hashem, 2013, p.54). Further, Samuelsson-Brown (2006, p.54) argues that outsourcing is mainly used in TSPs because it is “mutually-beneficial” as it is more costly for TSPs to maintain a full-time in-house translator who is, for instance, specialised in legal documents while 80% of the commissioned projects are literary. Freelance professionals have the luxury of working at their convenience anytime during the day yet still being able to meet the deadlines. On the other hand, it could be argued that working in-house has more advantages than freelancing as the former is not associated with working

overnight to meet deadlines. Besides, TSPs charge clients more than they pay for freelancers which affects the financial position of freelancers (McKay, 2015, p.18).

Further, outsourcing has increased awareness about the quality of translation, as Rodríguez-Castro (2015, p.31) observes: “Outsourcing has not only afforded clients the opportunity to focus on their core competences, but has also been the recourse to find the appropriate expertise for higher levels of complexity”. Freelancers in the translation industry are individuals that provide proactive and dynamic services to clients. They are independent contractors who can also work for translation companies on a project-by-project basis (Gouadec, 2007, p.101).

Outsourcing today in TSPs is not limited to translation but may extend to commissioning other tasks relevant to translation projects such as revision, editing, and desktop publishing (Dunne and Dunne, 2011, p.4; Matis, 2014, p.2). In this regard, Nancy Matis (*ibid.*, p.7) argues, “in the age of the internet, it is increasingly harder to say that freelance translators work completely alone”. She stresses that technology today enables them to exchange ideas and get linguistic consultations from other translators when they encounter any problematic issues with their projects. This has been expanded further as some TSPs have developed their own private forums and platforms to promote communication and teamwork (Matis, *ibid.*, p.7; García, 2009, p.201).

Dunne and Dunne (2012, p.4) are of the view that outsourcing is the most dominant strategy in the translation industry; it becomes a requisite competence for the professionals of this industry to be able to work efficiently with teams of diverse cultures and geographic distribution (Dunne and Dunne, 2011, p.4; García, 2009, p.200). Samuelsson-Brown (2006, p.54) emphasises that a TSP should develop its freelance resources database that specifies freelance professionals’ specialties and suitability to which TSPs refer before assigning projects. Matis (2014, p.9) argues that this database involves saved contacts and information on previously assessed professionals of different expertise in areas related to the production of translation.

2.2.2 Infrastructure and Technology at TSPs

According to ISO 17100 (BSI, 2015), every TSP should have technical equipment necessary for completing translation projects and/or facilitating research into the required resources. This also includes “translation technology tools, translation

management systems, terminology management systems and other systems for managing translation-related language resources” (ibid., p.7). Risku (2007, pp. 91-92) argues that technology has had a great impact on translation quality management, in the form of machine translation (MT), computer-aided translation (CAT), translation memories (TM), and terminology management systems.

2.2.2.1 Machine translation (MT)

Machine translation (MT) is used to save time and increase terminological and stylistic consistency (Trujillo, 1999, p.203; McKay 2015, p.39). MT tools rely on employing previous translations to help produce new ones. Because MT does not have the human ability to realise the ST’s context, using it alone may result in inaccuracies and grammatical mistakes. Translations made by these tools are followed by ‘post-editing’. Post-editing involves reviewing raw machine translation in terms of language and content while consulting the ST, which adds to the time and cost of the whole process (Allen, 2003, p.299; BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.4). Researchers (Guerra, 2000, pp.66-67; Risku, 2007, p.93) argue that alongside their advantages, machine translations have limitations such as in their accuracy. Rather, they can be used to create pre-translation and get the gist of the content of the text, as they cannot replace the human ability to understand the context, nor can they provide 100% accurate or high-quality translation (ibid.).

2.2.2.2 CAT tools

Unlike MT, which replaces human translators to a certain extent, **computer-aided translation (CAT) tools** “support the translator by preventing repetitive work, automating terminology lookup activities, and re-using previously translated texts” (Esselink, 2003, p.79). CAT tools consist of translation memory (TM), terminology management tools, and software localization tools (ibid.).

2.2.2.3 Translation memories

Integrating **translation memories (TM)** in the translation process raises cost-effectiveness (Risku, 2007, p.92). Further, they help in “managing projects, coordinating team efforts and building glossaries and dictionaries” (Webb, 2000 p.12). Translation memories have been used widely in TSPs following awareness of their benefits for improving the quality of translation and cost-effectiveness for all stakeholders involved in the translation project (Matis, 2014, p.3). However it is also important to train translators and project managers to use them effectively (Lagoudaki, 2006, p.27). Risku argues that it is also important to choose the right

translation memory for the given project and make sure it is compatible with other teammates' software in case they work virtually on the same project (Risku, 2007, p.92). So users of translation memories should be aware of the risks associated with using them, as they could lead to mistranslations (ibid.).

2.2.2.4 Terminology management

Terminology, also known as 'terminology work' (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.31), is defined by Bowker (2011, p.288) as "the group of practices concerned with the collection, description, processing and presentation of concepts and terms in a specialized field". She notes that terminology management in translation today relies heavily on technology (ibid.). Bass (2006, p.93) states that managing terminology is the "most important type of knowledge management" as it facilitates controlling the quality of translation (Samuelsson-Brown, 2006, p.72). Yet it remains one of the TSPs' responsibilities to develop terminology management systems and tools that should be accessible to all professionals working on a shared project in order to maintain terminology consistency (Samuelsson-Brown, ibid., p.97). However, developing a terminology database for projects is an extra cost which clients should expect to add for quality of translation (ibid.). Interestingly, terminology management is being addressed by technology today as there are a lot of systems and software that are used to "ensure that uniform terminology is used throughout translation or by project teams and can make a significant contribution to the quality of a translation by ensuring consistency" (Risku, 2007, p.92).

Although many TSPs nowadays are not equipped yet with traditional tools such as translation memories, technology in translation management has moved to the next generation by developing advanced cloud-based management systems such as Trados (SDL, 2015). Such software integrates a number of systems that enhance the management of translation projects in TSPs. The sophistication of these systems is summarised by their ability to speed up the process and enhance the quality of work at the management and process levels such as word counting, invoicing and research. Further, other advanced software enables translation project managers to manage their cross-functional projects that may include a team of freelance professionals who are geographically distributed. It assimilates professionals who benefit from the integrated systems such as TM, allows them to exchange ideas and give feedback, and gives the manager an updated status of the process. Interestingly, some developed cloud-based translation software such as Crowdin (Crowdin.com)

allows an agile style of work. In other words, sequential changes can be addressed by the other team members who work on them accordingly as soon as changes are made and updated in the system (Esselink, 2003, p.81; Risku, 2007, p. 93).

2.2.3 Key actors and stakeholders in translation service providers

Due to the growth in translation and publication, translation projects nowadays involve a number of professionals such as translators, revisers, proofreaders, editors and administrators who manage and supervise the workflow of the process (Mossop, 2014; Gouadec, 2010; Samuelsson-Brown, 2006). Besides the advent of technology, the widespread practice of translation has taken new forms, such as machine translation (MT) and computer-assisted translation (CAT) (Matis, 2014, p.9). As mentioned earlier, the practice of translating has become a corporate rather than an individual task.

In its guideline document ISO 11669 for translation projects (BSI, 2012, p.9), the international British Standards Institute identifies four main stakeholders in TSPs, namely the project manager, translators, revisers, and reviewers (all can be either in-house or freelance) as the main constructs of translation projects. It also points to the fact that some translation projects may entail other professionals such as desktop publishers and proofreaders (ibid., p.9). The document also distinguishes between two terms that are used interchangeably and ambiguously (ibid., p.3): requesters and end-users. The former refers to the “person or organization requesting a translation service from a TSP” (ibid., p.3), whereas the latter refers to “person or group of persons who ultimately make use of the translation product” (ibid., p.3). The section below presents the key stakeholders in today’s TSPs.

2.2.3.1 Translator and translation competence

The **translator** is the person who renders information from the ST into the TL in the written form (BSI, 2012, p.1; BSI, 2015, p.4) (see **1.1.4.4**). The quality of translation has been tied to translation competence (Hague, Melby and Zheng, 2011, p.224). The roles of translators, however, may require many competencies that may go beyond mere linguistic competence reflected in this definition. ‘Translation competence’ is defined by PACTE (Process of Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation) (2000, p.100) as “the underlying system of knowledge and skills needed to be able to translate”, whereas Pym (2003, p. 489) defines it as

“the ability to generate a series of more than one viable target text (TT1, TT2 ... TTn) for a pertinent source text (ST)” and “the ability to select only one viable TT from this series, quickly and with justified confidence”. Arango-Keeth and Koby (2003, pp.120, 129) are of the view that although there is a lack of consensus over the criteria of translation competence amongst researchers, it should be possible to develop a common definition. There are attempts to develop detailed models for translation competence into sub-competences. Hague, Melby and Zheng (2011, pp.246-250) surveyed some of the models proposed by Neubert (2000), PACTE (2000-2008), and Kelly (2005) as “the most widely cited” (Hague, Melby and Zheng, *ibid.*, p.246). These models will be presented here along with those specified in the translation-specific standards by the British Standards Institute (BSI), namely ISO 17100 (BSI, 2015) and ISO 11669 (BSI, 2012), as significant documents in the context of this research.

For Albrecht Neubert (2000), translation competences are: (1) language competence, referring to mastering both SL and TL in terms of grammar and lexis; (2) textual competence, which refers to knowledge about arranging different text types; (3) subject competence, which refers to domain and subject-matter of the ST; (4) cultural competence, which refers to understanding ST and TT within different cultural practices; and (5) transfer competence, which acts as the main competence and denotes the knowledge and strategies related to translating the ST’s content into the TL (*ibid.*, 2000, pp.6-10).

PACTE’s (2008, p.106) model of competence also has five competences, yet these are more detailed, namely: (1) bilingual sub-competence, referring mainly to the “procedural knowledge” of the SL and TL; (2) extra-linguistic sub-competence, which includes “declarative knowledge” in general and subject-matter of the ST specifically; (3) translation sub-competence, which includes knowledge about translation as a practice and profession; (4) instrumental sub-competence, referring to knowledge associated with the documentation of translation and the required technologies and tools involved in translation and its process; and (5) strategic sub-competence, which refers to the “procedural knowledge to guarantee the efficiency of the translation process and to solve problems encountered” (PACTE, 2008, p.106). These sub-competences interrelate other sub-competences and dominate the process of translation (*ibid.*, p.107). Further, the PACTE model gives significance to the “psycho-physiological components” (*ibid.*) which refer to elements of the

translator's cognitive attitude such as memory, creativity, and logic (ibid., p.107). However, these psycho-physiological components are considered one of the competences in Kelly's model as presented below.

Dorothy Kelly's model (2005) consists of seven sub-competences, namely: (1) "communicative and textual competence", which refers to mastering skills in the relevant languages and text types; (2) "subject area competence", which denotes the degree of knowledge on the ST's topic; (3) "professional and instrumental competence", which refers to technical knowledge for practicing translation; (4) "psycho-physiological" or "attitudinal competence", which includes psychological components such as memory; (5) "interpersonal competence", which refers to the translator's social and communication skills that enable him/her to work with other professionals; (6) "strategic competence", which refers to the attitudinal abilities related to problematic issues in translation; and (7) "cultural and intercultural competence", which refers to the knowledge of cultures and communities in terms of their "values, myths, perceptions, beliefs, and behaviours" (2005, p.32-33).

The translation industry standard ISO 17100 (BSI, 2015, p.6) also lists a number of competences required for translators, which are (1) translation competence: the ability to translate based on the purpose and specifications of the assigned project, and to meet the linguistic conventions of the TL; (2) linguistic and textual competence in the SL and the TL: ability to understand the ST, fluency in the TL and text-type agreement knowledge; (3) research competence in research, information acquisition and processing: the ability to use research tools efficiently, understand the ST and produce the TT; (4) cultural competence: using updated terminology and conforming to cultural value systems and cultural elements properly in the TL; (5) technical competence: possessing the required knowledge and skills to use the technical resources and IT systems needed for the translation process; (6) domain competence: the ability to understand the content of the ST and reproduce it in the TL while conforming to the appropriate conventions relating to style and terminology (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.6). Interestingly, ISO 11669 adds other competences such as (7) experience competence on the assigned project type (e.g., fiscal reports, software, etc); (8) understanding of the translation process and phases; and (9) social competence: the ability to work and interact in teams and with other stakeholders involved in the translation process (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.7).

The different models of translator's competence presented above list criteria which can be summarised in several clusters of competences: (1) linguistic; (2) translational; (3) domain; (4) cultural; (5) technical; (6) procedural; (7) psycho-physical; and (8) social competences, as presented in Table 2 below:

Competencies Clusters	Neubert (2000, pp.6-10)	PACTE (2008, p.106)	Kelly (2005, pp.32-33)	ISO 11669:2012 (BSI, 2012, p.7) and ISO 17100:2015 (BSI, 2015, p.6)
Linguistic competence	- language competence - textual competence	- bilingual sub-competence	- communicative and textual competence	- linguistic competence
Translation competence	- transfer competence	- knowledge about translation sub-competence	- professional competence	- translation competence - research and information acquisition competence to understand source content
Domain competence	- subject competence	- extra-linguistic sub-competence	- subject area competence	- domain competence
Cultural competence	- cultural competence		- cultural and intercultural competence	- cultural competence
Technical competence		- instrumental sub-competence	- instrumental competence	- technical skills
Procedural competence		- strategic competence	- strategic competence	- understanding translation phases

Psycho-physical competence	- psycho-physical components	- psycho-physiological or attitudinal competence	
Social competence		- interpersonal competence	- social skills

Table 2: Clusters of the four translation competence models (developed by the researcher)

2.2.3.2 Project Manager

The Project Manager is the person who runs the translation projects and supervises the full process of translation, including preparing the source content, managing the finance and administration, assigning translators and other human resources for the job, and controlling quality through workflow (Gouadec, 2007, 121; BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.4). The project manager, however, does not have to be working in-house since s/he may work for the TSP, the requester, or the translator (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.9). Chamsi (2011, p.51) argues that TSPs are “highly projectized” and their success relies heavily on effective management. To complete the expected tasks, the project manager should have a good understanding of translation processes and know how to use translation and software tools that are related to terminology management and translation project management (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.9). Additional sub-competences such as previous experience in translation and mastering a second language are preferred to improve the effectiveness of his/her role (ibid.). On the other hand, Zounourides-Lull (2011, p.92) argues that having management knowledge for project managers in the translation industry is of equal importance to technical and linguistic skill. She adds that project managers in TSPs should even opt for the established managerial standards and tools that provide effective frameworks for implementing an efficient process of management such as management software and PMBOK[®] guide (ibid). According to Zounourides-Lull (2011, pp. 81-87), management knowledge includes project budgeting, quality management systems, human resources management, communication management (effective use of channels for interaction with the translation project’s stakeholders), risk management, and procurement.

2.2.3.3 Reviser

A reviser is defined by Gouadec (2007, p.118) as “a highly skilled experienced translator whose job is to upgrade the translated materials to all applicable quality standards and requirements”. Gouadec argues that the quality of translation is highly dependent on the work of both translator and reviser. The revision procedure has a significant impact on the final shape of the translated work as it is the ultimate opportunity in the process to check for any mistakes, add any necessary modifications to the translated document, check reliability, ensure accuracy, style and consistency (Mossop, 2014, p.3). But even though revising/editing are terms often used in parallel, Brian Mossop (2014, p.10) highlights the difference between Reviser and Editor, stating that they are not really parallel terms. The British Standard Institute document for translation services, ISO 17100 (BSI, 2015, p.4) states that a reviser is the “person who revises target language content against source language content”. However, as Mossop points out, some revisers tend to read the “draft translation without reference to the source text”, what Mossop calls ‘unilingual re-reading’ (Mossop, 2014, p.38). He further points out that “Unfortunately revision is often - perhaps increasingly – used as a way of dealing with the problems that arise when translation is outsourced to cheap but unqualified contractors” (Mossop, *ibid.*, p.37). This poses a challenge in terms of quality of translation for translation organisations nowadays and has to be addressed. Mossop (*ibid.*, p.134) suggests that questions such as “Is the text completed in 12 hours as good as the text completed in 15 hours? Does it serve its purpose adequately? Are there more undiscovered errors in it (...)?” have to be considered in order to fully evaluate the quality of such a revising process.

In order for them to accomplish the required tasks of revision, revisers are expected to possess certain skills and qualifications. In the organisational context, a translation project manager usually is the one who commissions the task of revision (Gouadec, 2010, p. 61). This is usually given to senior translators. According to BSI (2012, pp.8-9 and 2015, p.6), revisers should have all the defined competences required for translators (see Table 2).

Nevertheless, the reviser’s skills are expected to exceed those of translators, as revisers are among the most competent and experienced translators (Mossop, 2014, p.134). Mossop argues that a reviser’s competence is acquired over time and with practice. However he emphasised that there are some skills revisers have to learn,

such as knowing how to evaluate and determine the required degree of revision, i.e., full or less than full revision, and restrain themselves from making unnecessary substitutions and changes (ibid., pp.127, 206).

2.2.3.4 Reviewer

The reviewer is defined by Mossop (2014, p.228) as “a subject-matter expert who examines a manuscript to determine whether it contributes to its field, to suggest additions or subtractions from coverage of the topic, or to identify conceptual or terminological errors”. In translation, the reviewer is responsible for evaluating the target content’s fitness for purpose according to the project specifications (see review in Table 5 (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.2). Since reviewing is a monolingual activity, the competence required as stated by the BSI (2015, 2012) is that the reviewer should be qualified with “a high degree of proficiency in the target language” (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.8), be an expert in the domain of the subject-matter with an academic qualification in the domain (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.6), and be able to access the project specifications provided to the translator (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.8).

The term *reviewer* may overlap with *editing*. However, Mossop (2014, p.29) argues that the task of an **editor** in a non-translation domain is concerned mainly with assembling and preparing a text for publication, while editing should be distinguished from ‘unilingual re-reading’ which refers to the activity of revising a translation without referring to the ST (ibid., p.28). In translation, however, Mossop (ibid., pp.30-31) establishes that among the very many duties editors may have, in regards to TSPs, their main task is that of “textual amendment”, and he distinguishes four broad types of amending work in this context, namely:

- i. Copyediting – “correcting a manuscript to bring it to conformance with pre-set rules – the generally recognized grammar and spelling rules of a language community, rules of ‘good usage’ and the publisher’s ‘house style’” (...);
- ii. Stylistic editing – (...) “tailoring vocabulary and sentence structure to the readership, and creating a readable text by making sentences more concise, positioning the main verb near the subject, and so on”;
- iii. Structural editing – (...) “reorganizing the text to achieve a better order of presentation of the material (...);

iv. Content editing – (...) “suggesting additions to or subtractions from the coverage of the topic. The editor may (perhaps with the assistance of a researcher) personally have to write the additions (...). Aside from such ‘macro-level’ work, content editing also includes the ‘micro-level’ tasks of correcting factual, mathematical and logical errors” (ibid., pp.30-31).

The editor needs therefore to be an expert in language and his/her field and have substantial knowledge of various disciplines and of the translation work. Editors are one of the important professional players in the translation industry as they are critical to the entire translation process in TSPs.

As stated above, the translation team may involve certain other professionals: a proofreader, who checks and corrects the target content to exempt it from all linguistic errors such as spelling and grammar (Gouadec, 2007, p.118); a desktop publisher, who designs and creates documents based on layout skills by using a desktop computer (ibid., 2007, p.387); a terminologist, who creates translation memories, updates terminologies of the company and advises translators on terminology (ibid., p.116). Furthermore, in some cases some of the stakeholders such as the ‘client’, ‘requester’ and ‘project manager’ may refer to the same person (ASTM F2575, 2014, p.1070). Therefore it is important to identify the stakeholders in order to determine the workflow of the translation process and its stages.

2.2.4 Phases of the translation project in TSPs

Translation project (in the context of 21st century translation service providers) is an extensive process as it involves many steps. Such projects are, however, classified differently. For instance, Chai (2010, p.55 cited in Lin, 2015, pp.380-381) summarises the translation project in 12 stages, namely “negotiating, signing contract, receiving order, reviewing source text, determining terminology, splitting and assigning source texts, translating, combining translated texts, reviewing translated text, typesetting, final review, delivery”. On the other hand, Gouadec (2007, p.13) presents a number of detailed steps under three main phases: pre-translation, translation, and post-translation. Drugan (2013, pp.77-79) argues that these three phases include processes with a direct effect on the quality of the translation. Similarly, the translation industry guide ISO 11669: 2012 (BSI, 2012, pp.11-14) puts the phases of pre-production, production, and post-production as a framework towards process-oriented quality. These stages are explained in detail by

Gouadec (2007) and ISO 11669 (BSI, 2012). Table 3 below summarises these phases as examples of translation project phases in order to provide a basis for this research:

Translation process	
Pre-translation	<p>Daniel Gouadec (2007, p.21-85)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Getting the translation and preparing, planning and organising the job: TSP receives all material and translation kit (includes all relevant material, information and source material for the project), checks and corrects all material if required, compiles terminologies and phraseologies, integrates required resources to TM (if applicable), checks suitability of material for translation, makes any corrections and amendments to material. <p>The requester should provide all relevant material and assure the quality of the source content, making sure to back-up source material.</p> <p>The project managers search for documentation relevant to the project and send it to the translator(s).</p> <p>The project managers assign the project to translators with relevant experience and specialty.</p> <p>The requester provides a translation brief and complete set of instructions and guidelines.</p> <p>Agreements are reached between requester and translator to work together on the project's specifications, translation options and parameters, cost and deadlines.</p>
Pre-production	<p>ISO 11669 (BSI, 2012, p. 11-14)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Identifying and preparing ST (by requester): Source content selection, identifying reasons for translations, checking if the source content is a translation (if yes, quality and intellectual property issues should be finalised), eliminating ambiguities and conciseness by author of source content for cost effectiveness of translation process, resolving issues regarding cultural content transfer into target language and changes to register, preparing source content for translation memories (if applicable). - Preparing preliminary project specifications (by requester): This covers setting the deadline for delivery, specifying linguistic translation parameters (ST and TT: languages, text type, target readers, purpose, subject, volume, complexity), and the required qualifications for completing the translation (if applicable). - Selecting TSP: This includes TSP selection, providing preliminary project specifications and having them approved by the TSP, negotiating deadlines based on TSP capacity, specifying financial compensations. - Gathering materials: The TSP collects and receives from the requester all relevant glossaries, terminology databases, TMs in related subjects. - Final specifications: This includes preparing the final specifications of the project by both requester and TSP interactively and finalizing translation parameters accordingly, by selecting human and technical resources for the project. - Approval of specifications:

Translation	<p>This may be completed by signing contracts (but may not apply in the case of internally translated projects).</p> <hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Preparing the translation: This includes (by the translator): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⇒ assuring that the quality of the source content is good, although this step is skipped if the requester confirms in the pre-translation stage that the source materials are up to standard; ⇒ initial translation by either human or machine translation; ⇒ analysing the source material to check errors, terminology and phraseology required for processing for creating the translation and aligning them in TM if applicable. - Translating material - Quality control (QC): 1. QC by the translator; 2. QC by the reviser; 3. QC by the requester; 4. Corrections and adaptations by the translator and/or reviser; 5. Final checks (Gouadec, 2007, p.82) 	Production
Post-translation	<hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Editing: Editing here covers page layout, illustrations, formatting, screen captures, message integration, and code reassembly. - Installing the translated material to a suitable medium (website, DVD, CD, etc.) and converting it to the required format; - Evaluating the project by testing; - Carrying out an online TQA and QA testing (for localisation projects); - Archiving the project. - Delivery 	Post-production

Table 3: Summary of translation project phases by Gouadec and ISO 11669 (BSI, 2012) (summarised from the two mentioned sources and developed by the researcher)

As presented in Table 3, the translation process cover different phases and important aspects, which are described below.

2.2.4.1 Pre-production stage

Pre-production, also called pre-translation, includes all the activities before commencing translation, including receiving the task, estimations of rates and deadlines, agreeing on project specifications, identifying the required resources, collecting terminology work, and all other formalities (Gouadec, 2007, p.13; Drugan, 2013, p.78). ISO 11669 (BSI, 2012, p.11), however, perceives pre-production as starting earlier, from the initial step of source content selection. Since all categorizations apply to translation including localisation, the term ‘source content’ is used instead of ‘source text’.

Terminology work

One of the important steps in the pre-production/ pre-translation stage is to develop a translation glossary as this is crucial to the adequacy of the translation and is “a sign of knowledgeability and technical competence and even the slightest error may have quite impressive consequences” (Gouadec, 2007, pp.23-24). Preparing a terminology or glossary bank or translation memory (TM) should ideally be provided by the requester; yet it is very unusual for this to happen in practice (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.v). Matis, however, states that not all translation projects require them to be created (Matis, 2014, p.22), although ISO 11669 emphasises that this aspect is “crucial to nearly all translation projects” and is not limited to the pre-production stage since TSPs should consider other “terminology work” throughout all stages of translation (BSI, 2012, p.11, 31). Similarly, ASTM F2575-2014 emphasises that terminology should be specified at the beginning with the requester, yet it should also be integrated into the production stage (2014, pp.1073-1076). However, when terminology specification is applied, Matis (2014, p.22) argues that it is important for the TSP to inform the client about the time and cost of including this stage. Samuelsson-Brown (2006, p.103), on the other hand, draws attention to prioritising any glossaries or documents provided by the requester, unless they need to be corrected –something that should be done in coordination with the requester.

Project specifications and translation brief

Both requester and TSP should have a detailed understanding of the TT specifications by identifying both ST and TT in terms of text type, audience, purpose, and subject matter (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.11). This is equivalent to what is known as the translation brief. Nord (1997, p.47) defines a translation brief as “the definition of the intended purpose of the translation process”. Nord adds “each translation task should thus be accompanied by a brief that defines the conditions under which the target text should carry out its particular function” (ibid.). It should identify areas such as the purpose, addressee, medium, and time and place of reception. These specifications should include both ST and TT to enable the translator to understand the communicative situation which indicates translation decisions related to “verbal and nonverbal features of the text” since “the situation in which the source text fulfils its function is, by definition, different from that of the target text” (ibid.). Without these specifications, translators, lacking experience, would not be able to deliver the text in accordance with the intended purpose in the TL (ibid.; Fraser, 2000, p. 53). Mossop (2014, p.121) states that the significance of a translation brief extends to other in-process QA procedures such as revision since they function as a yardstick for translation specifications and requirements, which should be constantly considered throughout all stages.

The following Table 4 presenting the components of a translation brief is reproduced from a workshop entitled *Revision and Quality Assurance in Translation*, run as part of the 7th Annual International Translation Conference (Alaoui, 2016, p.11). It will be used later as a general yardstick for revision analysis:

	ST	TT
	English	Arabic
Function	What is the intended purpose/use of the text?	Will the TT be used in the same way?
Audience	Who is the recipient of the ST?	Are the characteristics of the target audience similar or dissimilar to [those of] the source audience?
Time of Reception	When and by what means is the ST given to a patient and by whom? Is key information explained?	Will the TT be given in the same way and by whom? Will key information be explained?
Place of	Where does the reader encounter the	Will the target audience

Reception	text? Is the text given to the reader, picked up in the doctor's office, etc.?	encounter the text in the same way?
Medium	Leaflet/TV/Commercial, internet	Will the target audience encounter the text in the same way?
Purpose	Why was the ST written? Is there a desired reader response/action?	Why is it being translated? Is the desired target reader response the same as for the source audience?
Tone of Voice	Passionate, formal, encouraging, patriotic, helpful, inspirational, caring, arrogant, welcoming, friendly, inclusive, factual, warm, human, poetic, reserved, unconventional, modest, sincere, emotional, insightful, humble, sincere, boastful, supportive, proud	
Comments		

Table 4: A sample of a translation brief template for English to Arabic translation (Adapted from Alaoui, 2016, p.11)

In Gouadec's explanation of the pre-production phase (2007, pp.13-15), he gives significance to establishing an interactive relationship between the translator and the requester when agreeing upon the specifications of the project. Pym (2014, p.59), however, argues that some elements of specifications should be identified by translators for their superior translation-related knowledge. In this case, the translator may present a proposal of decisions and specifications for the requester to approve (Pym, 2014, p.59; Gouadec, 2007, p.16). Developing these specifications in teamwork (translator and requester) establishes "agreement (possibly on equivalents) and thus reduces areas in which translators have to decide for themselves" (Pym, 2014, p.59). This interaction is emphasised in industry standard ISO 11669 at the pre-production and production stages to resolve problematic issues regarding specifications and parameters which may be subjected to change during the process (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, pp. 12-13).

2.2.4.2 Production stage

The production stage for Drugan (2013, pp.78-79) commences when the source content is sent to the translators and then delivered to the requester. The same applies to the production stage in translation ISO standards (11669: 2012 and 17100: 2015). Yet for Gouadec (2007, pp.21-85) it ends with the in-process quality procedures which have preceded delivery.

Initial translation and creating translation

After approving the specifications of the translated project, translators may need to analyse the source text and check any errors and correct them in coordination with the requester (Gouadec, 2007, pp.73-74; Drugan, 2013, p.79).

It becomes important sometimes to conduct an initial translation in the form of traditional human translation or machine-based translation to determine the required resources. This also allows project managers to select translators with the suitable specialty (if not completed in the pre-production stage), and determine in more detail the type of TM or other CAT tools to be embedded in the process of translation (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.31). This is followed by the process of transfer, i.e., translating the source content to the required target language. Gouadec argues that the requester is expected to provide any material or information needed by the translator (2007, p.75). In practice, this may occur with some limitations.

In-process quality assurance

The production phase, which equates to the translation phase in Gouadec (2007, p.13), involves translation and in-process QA such as self-checking, revision, proofreading, and reviewing. However, the production stage in the translation industry standards (ISO 17100: 2015 and 11669: 2012) includes the delivery of the project to the requester, whereas for Gouadec (2007, p.27), delivery is part of the post-translation stage. In the production stage, ISO 11669 emphasises the importance of continuing the interactive relationship between the requester and TSP, represented by the translator, in case the process of creating the translation is interrupted by questions (BSI, 2012, p.12).

The production phase for both models of translation project phases (Gouadec, 2007; BSI ISO 11669, 2012) involves in-process QA procedures such as checking, revision, and proofreading. QC procedures are part of QA, which are applied to the translated project in the form of revision, proofreading, post-editing (Gouadec, 2007, p.25) or other steps for compliance with translation and localisation industry standards such as ISO 11669: 2012 or ISO 17100: 2015. Drugan (2013) and Mossop (2014) emphasise this generic relationship between QC and QA as QC refers to “checking aspects of the translation product” (2013, p.76). Similarly, Mossop (ibid., p.116) considers in-process QA procedures such as revision and proofreading to be synonyms of QC. On the other hand, QA is a comprehensive approach to quality in

TSP since it includes the quality of the product, the process, and long-term performance of the organisation (TSP) (Drugan, 2013, p.76; Mossop, 2014, p.129) (see 2.1.2 and Figure 1).

Gouadec argues that this phase for many TSPs is classified under post-translation/post-production. Similarly, for Mossop, QC involves in-process quality checks perceived in checking, re-reading, revising, and proofreading translation (2014, p.116). ISO 17100 (2015, p.13) lists check, revision, review, proofreading and final verification as the main standards for quality-controlling translation. ‘Final formatting’ appears in ISO 11669 (BSI, 2012, p.17) as one aspect of in-process QA that precedes ‘proofreading’. However, Mossop is of the view that terms under QC may refer to different meanings and be used interchangeably. Therefore, they should be specified both to professionals within TSPs and to other subcontracted outsiders who work for them (*ibid.*). Table 5 below summarises the in-process QA definitions as they appear in translation specific standards (ISO 11669: 2012 and ISO 17100: 2015). These definitions will be adopted in this research.

1 Check	Checking in translation refers to “the translator’s overall self-revision of the target content for possible semantic, grammatical and spelling issues, and for omissions and other errors, as well as ensuring compliance with any relevant translation project specifications” (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.10).
2 Post-editing	Post-editing refers to the translator’s check of his/her work (self-checking), or to the process of checking a raw output of machine translation (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.26; Allen, 2003, p. 297).
3 Revision	Revision is a bilingual evaluation in which the target content is compared with the source content for its fitness for the purpose (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.10). It also involves “comparing the target content to the source content to ensure that all of the designated source content has been translated and that content designated as “do not translate” is left in the source language, and a terminology check — verifying the terminological consistency of the target content, often using an external terminology database” (BSI ISO 11669, p.26). It is worth noting that this process is sometimes referred as a “bilingual editing” (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.2); yet the researcher here will opt for ‘revision’.

4 Review	Reviewing is a process applied when the requester asks for it. It is a monolingual activity that includes evaluating the accuracy of the target language content in terms of its fitness for the specified domain, purpose and text-type conventions (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, pp.2,11). This process is sometimes called ‘monolingual editing’; however, this researcher will adopt the term ‘review’ in this research (ibid., p.2).
5 Final formatting	This process includes formatting the target content for the required medium (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.26).
6 Proofreading	Proofreading is an optional process whereby “the target content is proofread on its own and a final global comparison is made with the source content” (ibid., p.26). This process includes applying corrections of errors found in this examination (BSI 17100 2015, p.3). However, it is not identified in the standard whether the proofreader needs to be bilingual or not, although the process includes a “global comparison” with the source content (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.26). Therefore, this research will opt for defining proofreading as a monolingual process of checking and correcting any linguistic defects appearing in the target content, including spelling and grammar mistakes, and adjusting faulty formatting (Gouadec, 2007, p.25).
7 Final verification	This process is where the project manager checks the target content in its final version against the agreed specifications and approves it for release (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.11).

Table 5: The in-process QA in the translation process (production phase: between translation and delivery, developed by the researcher)

Samuelsson-Brown (2006, pp.52-53) argues that although TSPs are responsible for the quality of translation, the level of QC procedures should be agreed upon with the requester as they are associated with additional cost and time. The case may be different in TSPs that publish their own translations (such as those related to this research). In this case, QC-specific procedures would be customised according to the requirement of each project (BSI, 2012, p.13) for the sake of greater cost- and time-effectiveness.

Delivery

The production phase in ISO 11669 (BSI, 2012, pp.13, 28) ends with delivering the translation to the requester in the agreed mode, i.e. by email, in person, by post, etc.

However, delivery for Gouadec (2007, p.85) is part of the ‘post-translation’ phase, as shown in Table 3 above.

2.2.4.3 Post-production

In Gouadec’s terms (2007, p.85), ‘post-translation’ involves final checks, archiving and delivery. On the other hand, the post-production phase, according to ISO 11669 (BSI, 2012, p.14-15), goes beyond delivery since it starts after delivering the translated project to the requester and involves ‘third party review’, feedback, and closing administrations, as presented below.

Reviews and feedback

The translation may be sent to a third party reviewer if the requester so desires. This review is conducted on the basis of the specifications agreed at the pre-production stage. Any comments and recommendations for changes are sent to the TSP. Such recommendations may be applied if the TSP approves them.

This stage involves also acquiring feedback from the requester (BSI ISO 17100, 2015 p.11), from users of the end-product (readers), and from all professionals involved in the process of translation. The TSP is expected to achieve this by conducting surveys and questionnaires. Both third party reviews and feedback are important for the TSP’s continuous improvement, as such feedback should be integrated to the specifications of future translation projects conducted by the same TSP (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.14).

Closing administration

ISO 17100 (BSI, 2015, p.11) adds this step under the post-production stage so that the TSP complies with all the legal obligations regarding data protection. Gouadec (2007, p.83) notes that the TSP should complete a ‘post-project review’ specifying for future consideration the strengths and weaknesses that have accompanied the project processing. This review, which reflects the opinions of all professionals involved in the project including the requester, should include recommendations for dealing with issues encountered (Gouadec, 2007, p.83; Drugan, 2013, p.80). This stage should also include finalizing all formalities regarding invoicing and payments (Gouadec, 2007, p.83).

Quality assessment towards quality assurance

This stage also involves quality assessment that leads together with the QC to QA (Mossop, 2014, p.128; Gouadec, 2007, p.23; Drugan, 2013, p.79-80) (see Figure 1). According to Mossop, quality assessment is carried out after delivering the translation by assessing randomly selected translated passages (Mossop, 2014, p.128). Unlike QC, which is a “text-oriented” process that is applied during the production phase, quality assessment is “business-oriented” (Mossop, *ibid.*, p.129). It aims at evaluating the TSP’s degree of compliance with the professional and required standards. Furthermore, managers use quality assessments for hiring, appraisals and promotion purposes (*ibid.*). It helps managers recognize areas of strength and weakness, understand the potentials and levels of competence of employees and design training plans accordingly (*ibid.*). Quality assessment is important to foster future development at the organisational level into a continuous quality cycle (Drugan, 2013, p.79).

QA, on the other hand, is defined by Mossop as “the full set of procedures applied not just after (as with quality assessment) but also before and during the translation production process, by all members of a translation organisation. To ensure that quality objectives important to clients are met” (2014, p.129). These procedures include evaluating aspects such as meeting deadlines, customer-TSP relations, and quality of translation at the physical and textual levels (Mossop, *ibid.*, p.227). TSPs today have been employing different tools for assuring the quality of the translation process such as ISO 11669: 2012, ASTM F2575-2014, and ISO 17100: 2015 that will be presented later in this research.

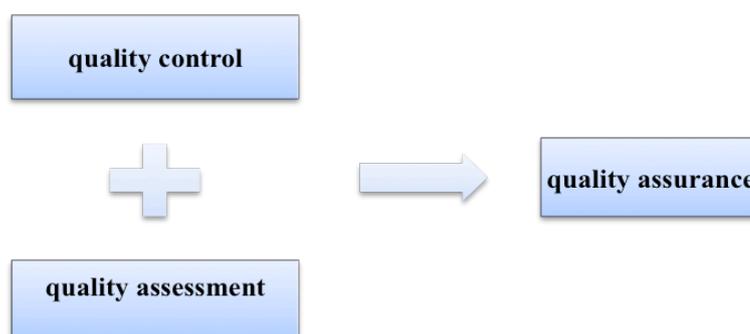


Figure 1: Quality assurance (QA) in the translation process (developed by the researcher).

The categories above present the traditional phases in translation projects that may not be followed by all TSPs due to the emergence of new technologies and management systems which offer more agility and flexibility in managing work and

assuring quality. Moreover, some of these phases may be excluded if the requester deliberately asks for a translation that is not fully edited or quality-controlled in the translation specification (ASTM F2575, 2014, p.1073). However, quality remains the centre or core concern around which the workflow or phases are formulated (Drugan, 2013, p.80).

Despite the variety in perceptions of the translation project phases in TSPs, it can be concluded from the illustration above that there is a consensus that translation includes many professional players, stages and steps even though these may differ relatively as to their details. The most common components of translation project management should be taken into account when integrating quality. Nevertheless, the size of the organisation and its objectives determine the workflow of the translation process as well as the tasks of each player who may get involved in the process (Bass, 2006). For instance, when the objectives of the TSP centre on profit and satisfying customers, quality should therefore be given more significance and more effort spent on it at the stage of pre-translation (Gouadec, 2007, pp.21-22; ASTM F2575, 2014, p.1074; BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.11), during which management understands the project requirements; as well as in the post-translation phase, which assures the fulfillment of the project and development of the TSP's performance in the long run.

2.2.5 Common problems in managing Translation Service Providers

Durban (2014, p.28) points out that “there are hundreds of ways a translation project can go off track”. She lists, for example, “ridiculous deadlines, misapplied machine translation (MT), no proofreading of typeset text by a native speaker, poor coordination of large projects, poor cheap freelance translator, poor expensive freelance translator, poor cheap translation company, poor expensive translation company, no client input” (ibid., p.28). Drugan (2013, pp.25-30), on the other hand, notes that today's translation profession faces many challenges amid increasing pressure over productivity and awareness about translation quality. These challenges are related to the quality of translation in the TSPs which is affected by provision management, managing human resources in terms of competence, training, capacity, and rights, effective integration of technology, interaction and relationship among team members and external stakeholders (customers), engaging freelance employees, standard and non-standard tasks, and meeting deadlines (Drugan, 2013, pp.25-30; Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson, 2004, pp.243-285; Samuelsson-

Brown, 2006 and 2010; Giammarresi, 2011; Zounourides-Lull, 2011; Dunne, 2011). These challenges raise the importance of having a structured process to manage them, while adopting a continuous improvement approach.

2.3 Conclusion: Managing TSPs and TQM

The literature presented above indicates that views on translation quality have evolved to cover textual and extratextual factors, and from being text-oriented to process-oriented. There are attempts, albeit very limited, to integrate (total) quality management systems into the translation industry such as the introduction of translation-specific ISO standards, process-based QA, and models such as ACTS (Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson, 2004, pp.243-285; Petersen, 1996; Samuelsson-Brown, 2006; Drugan, 2013; Mossop, 2014). This research attempts to extend these efforts by testing the relevancy and effectiveness of the philosophy of TQM, which has been integrated successfully in different industries, to non-profit TSPs in the UAE by containing the corporate nature of translation service providers presented above. For its holistic nature, TQM will be examined in this research in relation to the existing norms of TSPs in the UAE. The implementation of TQM, which was briefly introduced in Chapter One, will be presented in more detail in the next chapter.

3 Chapter Three: Total Quality Management and Critical Success Factors

This chapter involves two parts aiming at introducing total quality management thoroughly, and also presents the critical success factors (CSFs) of its implementation. The first presents an introduction to the philosophy of total quality management (TQM), including its evolution over time, definitions and extant frameworks, and establishes the relevance of TQM to the service sector in general and to translation management in particular. The second part is devoted to presenting the literature on CSFs for implementing TQM, while attempting to cross-reference these factors to the extant literature on the context of TSPs as reviewed in the previous chapter.

3.1 Part One: Introduction to TQM

3.1.1 The Evolution of Quality Management into Total Quality Management: and implications for the translation industry

In management science, the literature dates quality management back to 1920 (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.419), although Kanji (2002, p.2) argues that quality in the organisational context can be traced much earlier to the Egyptians in the ‘inspection’ process during their building of the pyramids. Quality management has evolved over history through four stages starting from inspection, then becoming quality control (QC) and quality assurance (QA), and finally arriving at total quality management (TQM) (Dale *et al.*, 2016, p.24; Kanji and Asher, 1996).

3.1.1.1 Inspection

Inspection refers to the “determination of conformity to specified requirements” (BSI ISO 9000, 2015, p.26). It is described as “the simplest process of a quality system” as the product, service or activity is examined against its conformity to certain characteristics (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.419). According to Dale *et al.*, (2016, p.16), inspection is a process that is carried out at the final stage of production after the completion of a given task, and it does not involve suppliers or customers. Inspection in translation, for instance, could be exemplified by checking the translation product after its completion while deciding if the final TT is conforming or not conforming to given standards such as accuracy and layout. Inspection, however, became costly and unacceptable with the complexity of aircraft technology

during the Second World War, which accordingly led to the introduction of quality control (QC) (Kanji, 2002, p.2).

3.1.1.2 Quality control (QC)

Quality control (QC) is defined as being a “part of quality management focused on fulfilling quality requirements” (BSI ISO 9000, 2015, p.14). Developing quality standards, documents, manuals, self-inspection, and statistical tools to check the quality of the product, service, or activity characterise this level of quality management (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.421; Kanji, 2002, p.2; Dale *et al.*, 2016, p.16). QC is a process-based level of quality management, aiming at detecting problems occurring at the operational level of developing the product (Dale *et al.*, 2016, pp.17-19).

Published standards by the International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) are examples of the standards documents against which companies evaluate their procedures. The usefulness of such standards lies in the fact that they are designed to assure the service beneficiaries (customers) that the company in question meets the established industry standards and has quality policy in place (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.421). QC in the translation industry may be expressed by the presence of documents which regulate the quality of translation at the procedural level such as translation industry standards (examples being ISO 17100:2015, ASTM F2575-2014, and ISO 11669:2012), internally developed documented guidelines for each phase (such as translation, revision, editing, proofreading, etc), and translation briefs which specify details on the project against which in-process (translation process) checks can be evaluated (Gouadec, 2007, p.25; Mossop, 2014, p.116). Samuelsson-Brown (2007, pp.42-43) highlights the importance of integrating and seeking the accreditation of quality management systems in TSPs such as ISO 9001:2000¹² (replaced now by ISO 9001:2015) and ISO 9004:2000¹³ (replaced now by 9004:2009) since this helps TSPs to identify their goals, assure customers about the seriousness of TSPs regarding quality, and offer a reference guide for all employees. Despite its importance for establishing a more efficient and cost-effective process,

¹² ISO 9001: 2000 is replaced by 9001:2015; it provides all organisations with requirements for quality management systems.

¹³ ISO 9004:2009 provides guidance on the effective use of a quality management system.

seeking ISO accreditation might be expensive and frustrating for companies, which are flexible about running their processes (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.422). Seeking ISO accreditation is not compulsory (Samuelsson-Brown, 2007, p.42), yet it might be a business requirement in some countries (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.422). Therefore, compiling ISO standards at levels suitable for firms is useful, while seeking ISO accreditation is a question of choice and demand.

Nevertheless, quality control focuses on detecting errors and mistakes, yet does not prevent them from occurring. Further, focusing on the quality of the product only by means of QC does not carry future improvement since the source of problems is not addressed (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.422). In this regard Dale *et al.* (2016, p.19) state that “a lasting and continuous improvement in quality can only be achieved by directing organizational efforts towards planning and preventing problems from occurring at source”. This resulted in moving to a level of focus on the quality of the system under the so-called quality assurance (QA) (Kanji, 2002, p.2; Dale *et al.*, 2016, p.19).

3.1.1.3 Quality assurance

Quality assurance is “part of quality management focused on providing confidence that quality requirements will be fulfilled” (BSI ISO 9000, 2015, p.14). Unlike QC which is a detective-based approach, QA assurance is a “preventive-based system” that embraces activities of both inspection and quality control, while bringing more emphasis on continuous improvement and error-prevention procedures such as “advanced quality planning, training, critical problem-solving tasks, improving the design of the product, process and services, improving control over the process and involving and motivating people” (Dale *et al.*, 2016, p.19). This is inline with Mossop’s concept of QA in translation which covers all the quality procedures carried out before, during, and after translation and thus entails the integration of all members of TSPs into the task of maintaining quality objectives and the TSP’s continuous development (Mossop, 2014, pp. 129, 227). Zounourides-Lull (2011, p.83) also stresses that QA procedures in TSPs should be incorporated at the management level planning of translation projects. Encompassing non-operational aspects under QA requires the top management support and the engagement of all departments to work cross-functionally to address the source of problems (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.422). QA procedures have in turn led to introducing a philosophy of change at the top-management level that integrates QA efforts in the objectives and

strategies of the organisation, developing the concept of Total Quality Management (TQM) as a holistic management approach (Dale *et al.*, 2016, p.20; Kanji, 2002, p.2) that “embraces all aspects of inspection, quality control and quality assurance” (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.411). Before defining TQM, it may be useful to briefly introduce the philosophical approaches that integrate the main components of its conception.

3.1.2 Philosophical approaches to TQM

TQM was a result of Japanese and American efforts that originated between the 1920s and the 1960s (Martin, 1993, p.13). One of the early contributions towards TQM was by Walter Shewhart who developed a statistical-based approach to quality control in 1924 in manufacturing (Gupta and Valamathi, 2009, p.2; Roger *et al.*, 2009, p.2119). This was progressed later by the contributions of the four principal founders, namely W. Edward Deming (1986/2000), Phil Crosby (1980), J.M Juran (1988) and Armand Feigenbaum (1991/2005) (Martin, 1993, p.13; Gupta and Valamathi, 2009, p.2). These are referred to as ‘quality gurus’ (Miller, 1996, p.152) as their contributions impacted upon the development of TQM.

3.1.2.1 Deming’s Approach

W. Edwards Deming’s contributions to the development of TQM highlights the role of management in quality systems and the comprehensive integration of all departments and employees. Deming is known for outlining seven serious factors affecting quality and the famous 14 points of quality principles (Deming, 1986/2000, pp.23-24), as seen in Table 6 below.

Deming’s 14 quality principles

1. *Create constancy of purpose toward improvement of product and service, with the aim to become competitive and to stay in business, and to provide jobs.*
 2. *Adopt the new philosophy. We are in a new economic age. Western management must awaken to the challenge, must learn their responsibilities, and take on leadership for change.*
 3. *Cease dependence on inspection to achieve quality. Eliminate the need for inspection on a mass basis by building quality into the product in the first place.*
 4. *End the practice of awarding business on the basis of price tag. Instead,*
-

minimize total cost. Move toward a single supplier for any one item, on a long-term relationship of loyalty and trust.

5. *Improve constantly and forever the system of production and service, to improve quality and productivity, and thus constantly decrease costs.*
 6. *Institute training on the job.*
 7. *Institute leadership (...). The aim of supervision should be to help people and machines and gadgets to do a better job. Supervision of management is in need of overhaul, as well as supervision of production workers.*
 8. *Drive out fear, so that everyone may work effectively for the company.*
 9. *Break down barriers between departments. People in research, design, sales, and production must work as a team, to foresee problems of production and in use that may be encountered with the product or service.*
 10. *Eliminate slogans, exhortations, and targets for the work force asking for zero defects and new levels of productivity. Such exhortations only create adversarial relationships, as the bulk of the causes of low quality and low productivity belong to the system and thus lie beyond the power of the work force.*
 11. *Remove barriers that rob the hourly worker of his right to pride of workmanship. The responsibility of supervisors must be changed from sheer numbers to quality.*
 12. *Remove barriers that rob people in management and in engineering of their right to pride of workmanship. This means, inter alia, abolishment of the annual or merit rating and of management by objective.*
 13. *Institute a vigorous program of education and self-improvement.*
 14. *Put everybody in the company to work to accomplish the transformation. The transformation is everybody's job.*
-

Table 6: Deming's 14 principles of quality, copied from Deming (2000, pp.23-24)

These 14 points may arguably be summarised as having four fundamental aspects: (1) constancy of purpose, which refers to understanding an organisation's nature and its targeted market; (2) continuous improvement, which helps an organisation to pursue its purpose; (3) understanding of variations, which refers to the degree of nonconformity to the standards aspired to; and (4) profound knowledge, which

denotes the theoretical knowledge behind the adopted philosophy, understanding variations in the system that should be reduced, and knowledge of psychology for motivation (Dobyns and Crawford-Mason, 1991, p.59; Gabor, 1990; Martin, 1993, p.14). Additionally, Deming formulated the PDCA (Plan-Do-Check-Act) cycle for continuous improvement; yet Deming chose to call it Shewhart's cycle to acknowledge the latter's contribution in planting the first seed of this cycle (Kaynak, 2011, p.77). 'Plan' refers to the stage of planning, establishing objectives and standards; 'Do' refers to the implementation of the planned process; 'Check' refers to measuring the conformance of processes and results with respect to the established standards and objectives; and finally, 'Act' refers to the stage at which the nonconformance is tested and analysed to figure out the problem source. The cycle then starts up once again from 'plan', based on the outcomes of the previous cycles, until reaching the required quality of performance (Beckford, 2010, p.67; Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.416).

3.1.2.2 Juran's Approach

Joseph M. Juran's approach to quality is basically a customer-focused one defined on the basis of 'fitness for use', which denotes understanding how well a product or service conforms to the specifications from customers' perspectives (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.417). This approach is carried out while focusing on increasing conformance and decreasing costs to quality (Dale *et al.*, 2016, p.43; Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.417; Beckford, 2010, p.107). Juran sees that the level of quality reflects the quality of management, and he called for an extensive approach where management becomes involved significantly in embedding quality concerns in the objectives and strategies of companies through planning (Dale *et al.*, 2016, p. 43; Gupta and Valamathi, 2009, p.2). Nevertheless, Juran takes the view that middle management and other employees also hold responsibility for leading quality, and that therefore organisations should improve cross-functional work and teams (Dale *et al.*, 2016, p.43). Interestingly, Juran emphasises that managing quality does not require a managerial revolution overturning existing management frameworks (Juran, 1989, p.42).

3.1.2.3 Crosby's Approach

Crosby's approach to quality centres on 'zero defect' and 'doing it right the first time' to achieve what he called 'quality is free' (Crosby, 1980). Crosby believes that correcting errors is associated with expensive costs (Goodpasture, 2016, p.73). His

contributions to quality management are more technical than philosophical; so that he provided practical tools and “action plans” (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.418) for the implementation of TQM in private and public sectors (Martin, 1993, p.15). These action plans are outlined in 14 points, namely: (1) management commitment: identifying quality within management priorities; (2) quality improvement teams: allocating teams to manage and improve quality; (3) quality measurement: providing an objective evaluation by means of analysing present and potential nonconformance issues; (4) cost of quality: studying the cost of quality as a managerial tool; (5) quality awareness: raising awareness about quality among employees and underlining the importance of conformance to quality to the product and organisation’s reputation; (6) corrective action: establishing a systematic approach to address and correct quality- related issues; (7) zero-defects planning: implement all necessary procedures before starting zero-defect actions; (8) employee education: tailoring and providing the requisite training programmes for employees so they contribute effectively in the process of quality management; (9) zero-defect day: letting employees know that change has been implemented in a meeting or event; (10) goal setting: turning goals into actions by encouraging all employees to work together to set goals for themselves toward the desired improvement; (11) error cause removal: encouraging employees to share with the management the obstacles they face to achieve improvement; (12) recognition: setting appraisal and reward systems; (13) quality councils: setting regular meeting for quality experts and professional to communicate and exchange ideas for improvement; (14) do it all over again: repeating the actions stated above to highlight the continuous state of improvement (Crosby, 1980, pp.112-119; Ghobadian and Speller, 1994, p.60; Beckford, 2010, p.60).

3.1.2.4 Feigenbaum’s approach

Feigenbaum’s philosophy of quality is illustrated through his contribution in coining the expression ‘total quality control’ (Martin, 1996, p.17), which he defines as a cohesive system in which an organisation integrates all quality efforts of its resources to meet the customer’s expectations, while delivering marketing, engineering, manufacturing and maintenance in the most cost-effective way (Feigenbaum, 1991/2005; Dale *et al.*, 2016 pp.41-42; Paton *et al.*, 2011, pp.418-419; Oakland, 2004, p.5).

Feigenbaum’s main contribution is to introduce quality as a responsibility shared by

everyone in an organisation (Dale *et al.*, 2016, p.42; Beckford, 2010, p.86). An effective management of quality, according to Feigenbaum, is the best return on investment, since customer satisfaction is achieved in the most economical way (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.418). Martin (1993, p.17) points out that Feigenbaum was praised for outlining the costs of quality which are caused by nonconformance to specifications; quality control procedures such as inspection, testing and auditing; and error prevention measures such as training and regular maintenance of technology and tools in use (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.418).

The quality elements presented in these philosophies echo concepts from product-based translation quality approaches such as ‘customer focus’ in the response-oriented approaches (Reiss, 2000; Nord, 2005; Vermeer, 1987) and ‘fitness to the purpose’ in the textual and functional approaches, while integrating other nontextual and process-based views of translation quality presented (see 2.1.1.3) by Colina (2008) and Lauscher (2000). This is in line with Petersen’s view (1996) that the functional approaches by Vermeer (1987) and Nord (2005) in particular “match similar fundamental considerations in the field of quality management” (Petersen, 1996, p.214). However, as presented above, the quality experts’ philosophies harness considerations towards preserving the quality of the product to serve a further level of quality. The translation quality assurance processes and process-based models to translation quality presented in the previous chapter (such as QA, ISO standards, and the ACTS model) align with quality management philosophies in terms of striving for conformance to standards, meeting customers’ requirements, and integrating all staff into the effort to sustain the continuous development and success of the entire organisation. However, there seems to be an absence of any empirical approach that studies translation quality management under the heading TQM.

3.1.3 So what is Total Quality Management?

The different views of quality management set forth by the founding exponents of ‘quality’ mentioned above led to the introduction of TQM, which has become the centerpiece of many academic works in different disciplines and has spread from its original industrial scope to embrace healthcare organisations, educational institutes, public entities and non-profit organisations (Hackman and Wageman, 1995, p.309). Owing to the different perspectives of its founders presented above (Deming, 1986/2000; Juran, 1988, 1989; Crosby, 1980; Feigenbaum, 1991/2005), the concept

of TQM remains ambiguous and unclear (Knights and McCabe, 1997, p.376; Dean and Bowen, 1994, p. 394).

For instance, Dean and Bowen (1994) summarise that the difficult conception of TQM derives from the degree of variation in the following perspectives: 1. Deming's (1986/2000) perspective on TQM focuses on leadership, and the nature of the organisation's systems, while minimising the procedural variations; 2. Juran's TQM view underpins the use of statistical tools, while giving importance to planning, controlling, and improving quality (Juran, 1989; Juran and Gryna, 2010); 3. Crosby's (1980) view, however, focuses on improving quality processes in order to reduce costs which, in his view, increase quality of both high- and low-end products (Dean and Bowen, 1994, p.394), while 4. Feigenbaum (1991/2005) views it as a management tool that seeks the customer's satisfaction economically, while it is an ethical responsibility which is placed upon all employers and employees (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.418; Dale, 2016, p.41).

Some authors claim that, despite its attractiveness, TQM is just a management fashion or fad which adds nothing new to the existing management philosophies (Rich, 2008, p. 1146; David and Strang, 2006, p. 229). However, this view has been disputed by many studies that outline TQM as a unique initiative, in comparison with other management initiatives, as regards its theory, principles and assumptions (Hackman and Wageman, 1995, pp.310-321; Dean and Bowen, 1994, pp.397-410; Evans and Lindsay, 2016, p.66). Furthermore, Hackman and Wageman (1995, p. 318), who conducted a convergent validity test on these views, conclude that "there is substantial agreement among the movement's founders about the key assumptions and practices of total quality management". Oakland (2004, p.10) states that although quality 'gurus' introduced total quality management through different philosophies, they refer to the same fundamentals where quality has to be understood, effectively managed, led and operated in cross-functional teams throughout all of an organisation's activities and employees.

3.1.3.1 Defining TQM

In view of its evolution and philosophies presented above, Total Quality Management (TQM) is therefore seen as a management 'philosophy' which is derived from concepts, beliefs and attitudes of a group of quality experts (Martin, 1993, p.20). The literature of TQM involves a number of attempts to define it. For

instance, in his paper titled ‘*A Working Definition for Total Quality Management (TQM) Researchers*’, Miller (1996, p.157) defines TQM, as based on the theoretical views of quality gurus, as:

An ongoing process whereby top management takes whatever steps necessary to enable everyone in the organization in the course of performing all duties to establish and achieve standards which meet or exceed the needs and expectations of their customers, both external and internal.

In this definition, Miller (1996) underlines certain aspects of TQM which make it a holistic and continuous approach that highlights the role of leadership in managing quality by means of harnessing the entire organisation to conform to standards and satisfy customers. Further, Miller here stresses his reference to employees as “internal customers” who “produce a product or provide a service” (ibid., p.156). The ‘holistic’ aspect is also emphasised in Porter and Tanner’s (2011, p.4) definition, since they view TQM as “an approach that focuses on improving the organisation’s effectiveness, efficiency and responsiveness to customers’ and other stakeholders’ needs by actively harnessing people’s skills and competencies in the pursuit of achieving sustained improvements to organizational performance”. Paton *et al.* (2011, p.422) likewise underline that TQM is a long-term approach towards success, which is achieved through ensuring customer satisfaction by means of integrating the efforts of the entire organisation in providing “high quality”.

3.1.4 Quality Management Principles in TQM: reference to Translation Project Management in TSPs

Following inspection, quality control, and quality assurance as mentioned above (see 3.1.1), TQM is described by Dale *et al.* (2016, p.21) as a fourth level of quality management, while embedding ISO 9001: 2015 in its formulation as it “involves the application of quality management principles to all aspects of the organization, including customers and suppliers, and their integration with the key business process”. They emphasise that TQM is “a company-wide approach to quality, with improvements undertaken on a continuous basis by everyone in the organization” (ibid., p.21). The quality management principles stated in the definition are further illustrated by Dale *et al.* (2016, p.21) as those laid down in ISO 9001 (BSI ISO 9001, 2015, p.vii). They may be presented in the context of TSPs as follows:

- (1) Customer focus: to meet the translation requesters' specified requirements of the translation project and to strive to exceed their expectations by providing a competitive service, such as in smooth communication and meeting deadlines (Samuelsson-Brown, 2006, p.80; Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson, 2004, p.267). Customers in TSPs could be internal from another department within the organisation, or external (Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson, 2004, p.271);
- (2) Leadership: the leadership in TSPs at all levels, whether represented by senior managers, project managers, or quality managers (Samuelsson-Brown, 2006, p.67), should identify a unified objective and direction, while establishing processes that connect all employees to the purpose as suggested by Terhar (2016, p.131) in her paper on the relationship between leadership and translation in healthcare units;
- (3) Engagement of people: to engage and empower employees and customers. According to Samuelsson-Brown (2006, p.18), such involvement plays a significant role in the success of TSPs. This may include involving participants such as customers, staff, partners, and suppliers (freelancers) (*ibid.*, p.17);
- (4) Process approach: to opt for consistent and well-managed coherent processes for effective results (Dale *et al.*, 2016, p.21). In translation, this may include establishing consistent processes managing quality (such as QC processes) and translation framework outlines in ISO 17100 (BSI, 2015, p.11-12) and ISO 11669 (2012, pp.13, 17, 30);
- (5) Improvement: to underpin continuous development for TSPs by means of QA procedures mentioned above (see 2.1.2 and 2.2.4.2);
- (6) Evidence-based decision-making: to opt for a data-driven decision-making to achieve the required outcome (Dale *et al.*, 2016, p.21). As stated in Chapter Two (see 2.2.4.3), such data could be driven from post-project reviews, third-party reviews, and customers and end-user feedback (Giammarresi, 2011, p.43; Gouadec, 2007, p.83; BSI ISO 11669, 2012, pp.14-15); and
- (7) Relationship management: to maintain good relationships with the involved parties and suppliers (Dale *et al.*, 2016, p.21). Samuelsson-Brown (2006, p.18) points out that maintaining relationships with suppliers (freelancers) is important for the TSP's success (2006, p.18).

These principles constitute some of the critical success factors to implementing TQM, as will be presented in further detail in part two of this chapter (see 3.2).

3.1.5 Why TQM?

What makes total quality management different from other management processes is the concentrated focus on continuous improvement. Total quality management is not a quick management fix; it is about changing the way things are done within the organization's lifetime. To improve the process, therefore, people must know what to do, how to do it, have the right methods to do it, and be able to measure the improvement of the process and the current level of achievement (Kanji and Asher, 1996, p.1).

TQM has been adopted in many organisations around the world in different areas. Studies have proved its ability to increase productivity, improve organisational performance (Tanninen *et al.*, 2010 p.182; Kaynak, 2003, p.428) and solve issues related to process by identifying the source of the problem (Flynn *et al.*, 1995, p.683). Further studies have verified the positive implications of implementing TQM for leadership and employees' empowerment and satisfaction. For instance, a study by Ugboro and Obeng (2000, p. 264) shows that TQM is associated with developing a sense of employment security and belonging to the organisation. It also establishes a direct relationship between leadership commitment to TQM and employees' empowerment, which results in job satisfaction. That is because a successful implementation of TQM fosters communication and creates a consultative and participative environment that reflects on the employees' performance and thus improves customer satisfaction (*ibid.*, p.263). This is consistent with a survey study conducted by García-Bernal and Ramírez-Alesón (2015, pp.26-33) on 3951 Spanish firms, concluding that the benefits of TQM adoption reaches all stakeholders, which are not only financial as they include social and interpersonal benefits. According to this study, TQM leads to improving organisational performance by focusing on improving the operations and processes, which have a direct effect on employees' performance, thus meeting customer requirements (*ibid.*, pp.33-34).

3.1.6 TQM relevance to the service sector and translation

It may be argued that TQM philosophies are limited to manufacturing, given that they were originated in this field (Albrecht and Bradford, 1990). However, many studies have established TQM's effective adaptation in the service sector and non-profit organisations (Mohanty and Behera, 1996; Khamalah and Lingaraj, 2007;

Kennedy, 1991; Kearns *et al.*, 1994). Silvestro (1998, pp.308-320) argues that, despite being discussed differently in the literature, TQM's relevancy to the service sector is outlined in the core principles such as customer-focus, leadership, employee empowerment, continuous development, and quality management. According to Prajogo (2005, p.218), these 'soft' human-oriented elements of TQM emphasise the feasibility of TQM in service sectors. Similarly, Woon (2000, p.329) finds that although manufacturing organisations show higher levels of TQM implementation than service organisations, there is no difference between the two kinds of organisations in terms of customer focus, human resources and leadership. Prajogo (2005, p.218) argues that TQM is no longer limited to practical aspects and quality control tools as it has been developed over years to a philosophical conception around core principles that are "unconstrained by industry-unique considerations". In this regard, Dean and Bowen (1994, p.396) emphasise that TQM "is not simply a hodgepodge of slogans and tools; it is a set of mutually reinforcing principles". They argue that the three principles of "customer focus, continuous improvement, and teamwork" (*ibid.*, p. 394) are prominent in the management of service sectors more than manufacturing ones (*ibid.*, p.410). According to Prajogo (2005, p.218), the conceptual dimension of the TQM in literature supports its implementation in service organisations while enjoying its benefits "without necessary forcing the use of its tools and techniques which are not compatible to the service sector". Similarly, translation service providers (TSPs), which are part of the service sector, may benefit from the opportunities offered by TQM. This research intends to investigate the potential opportunities which TQM can offer to TSPs, with specific reference to the government-funded non-profit TSPs in the UAE. It is argued that one of the differences between the manufacturing and service sectors when applying TQM is that the manufacturing process allows more time to examine and evaluate the quality of the product based on customer needs (Silvestro, 1998, p.310; Prajogo, 2005, p.218). This is unlike the case in most service sectors, where services are delivered instantly and therefore cannot be evaluated before delivery (*ibid.*). In fact, quality management in translation in this particular respect may be similar to manufacturing, despite the differences in quality control checks, since the process of translation prioritises identifying the requester's needs in a translation brief, then carrying out the QC process and checks prior to delivery, as stated in ISO 11669 (BSI, 2012, pp.11-13).

3.1.7 Implementing TQM: practices, obstacles and failure

Given the above literature, it becomes possible to establish that adopting TQM is associated with benefits and improvements to organisations. However, implementing TQM is also associated with difficulties and may fail (Allen and Kilmann, 2001; Cao *et al.*, 2000; Mosadeghrad, 2014).

Adopting TQM is a holistic long-term approach that encompasses organisational changes at the structural, cultural and procedural levels (Cao *et al.*, 2000, p.188). As for the structural changes, Cao *et al.* (2000, p.188) state that adopting TQM may result in changing the existing organisational structures, i.e. horizontal (organic) and vertical (mechanistic) structures. This in turn may reflect on altering decision-making mechanisms, e.g. centralized decision-making: decision-making and authority is given to top management and selected individuals (McKee *et al.*, 2014, p.290); and decentralized decision-making: decision-making and authority is distributed over lower levels and relevant people affected with the decisions (*ibid.*). Cao *et al.* (2000, p.188) see that these changes may affect policies associated with managing human resources and development such as recruitment and appraisal systems. Further, cultural changes encompass “changes in values, beliefs and human behaviour in terms of relationships to social rules and practices” (Cao *et al.*, 2000, p.188). Such changes aim at fostering adaptability to change, creativity, productive teamwork, effective problem-solving, and an on-going process of learning (Moreno-Luzon *et al.*, 2013, pp.1152-1153; Cao *et al.*, 2000, p.189). On the other hand, TQM adoption includes changes to the process (Cao *et al.*, 2000, p.188), which includes all the processes performed to achieve the desired products, as process refers to “a related group of tasks that together create a result of value to a customer” (Hammer, 2001, p.180).

On the other hand, organic (horizontal) organisational structures are argued to be more fitting for implementing TQM than mechanistic authoritative (vertical) ones since the former allow embracing a culture supportive of TQM practices, where there is more acceptance of openness, participation, distributed authority, empowerment, involvement, and acceptance of change (Moreno-Lozon and Peris, 1998; Mosadeghrad, 2014; Jabnoun, 2005).

Considering that TQM adoption includes a wide range of changes that cannot be carried out overnight, perceiving the outcomes of these wide changes therefore

requires patience (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.423; Srinivasu *et al.*, 2010, p.15). Johnson and Kleiner (2013, p.29) describe how many organisations adopting TQM expect immediate results, and thus discontinue efforts and practices associated with TQM. They also argue that managers should perceive TQM outcomes in a reasonable timeframe since the ability to show immediate results is not an indicator of its failure (*ibid.*).

As shown above, although signifying one philosophy, TQM has been presented from different perspectives. The lack of agreement on TQM's principles resulted in its failure (Mosadeghrad, 2014, p.162; Cao *et al.*, 2000, p.190). This is because managers cannot implement TQM successfully unless they understand its principles and values (Cao *et al.*, 2000, p.192). Further, it is argued that the philosophy of TQM anticipates results, but at the same time fails to provide practical tools for its implementation (Mosadeghrad, 2014; Zairi and Matthew, 1995; Cooney and Sohal, 2005). This led to people proposing different models for its implementation that do not work successfully for all organisations (Mosadeghrad, 2014, p.163).

Further, Mosadeghrad (2014, p.163) also argues that TQM implementation fails for reasons related to the method adopted, namely "over use, under use and misuse of techniques and tools". According to him (*ibid.*, p.163), failure of implementation happens when managers introduce "sophisticated techniques and tools" that are not easy to use or be understood by employees. Under use, on the other hand, refers to what is explained by Hill and Wilkinson (1995, p.8) as partial implementation of TQM key values. However, Lawler (1993, p.3) stresses that "TQM isn't a one size that fits all programs. It needs to take conditions at each company into account". Therefore, Mosadeghrad (2014, p.163) claims that misuse of TQM methods occurs when the methods adopted are not balanced with the present culture, as for example when introducing consultative initiatives in a centralized decision-making culture.

Failure of TQM adoption is also said to be associated with the size of organisation. It is argued that large organisations benefit from TQM more than small ones (Terziovski and Samson, 2000; Garvin, 1988; GAO Study, 1991). Large organisations are more likely to succeed with adopting TQM because of the possibility of creating a participatory environment of teams who may effectively group together in problem solving (Hoang *et al.*, 2010, p.947). However, other authors argue that small organisations are faster and more flexible in adopting TQM

because of having less hierarchy and fewer managerial layers that affect speed of decision-making and fewer employees to train and engage in the process of implementation (Yusof and Aspinwall, 2000b; Ahire and Golhar, 1996; Axland, 1992). However, Ahire and Golhar (1996, p.10) state that small market, limited capital and lack of managerial expertise challenge the implementation of TQM in small organisations. However, in their study, which may only apply to manufacturing and industries of similar quality practices, Ahire and Golhar (1990, p.10) argue that small organisations can successfully implement TQM just like large organisations if they “capitalize on their relative strength in employee involvement and participation”. Yet this is consistent with the findings of another study which included service companies; concluding that “although most small firms have some weaknesses such as limited markets, inadequate resources and lack of managerial expertise, they still had advantages in flexibility and innovation that could allow them to implement TQM as effectively as large firms” (Hoang *et al.*, 2010, p.947).

In summary, it can be concluded that the philosophy of TQM benefits service sectors despite its manufacturing origins. However, developing a suitable and compatible model for implementing TQM in a given organisation should take into account the adopted norms and prevailing culture. As suggested by its name, TQM is “a total look at the quality of the organisation” (Jarrod, 2012, p.41). The adoption of this holistic approach incorporates structural, cultural and procedural changes (Cao *et al.*, 2000, p.188). However, to achieve the desired results, these changes should acknowledge the existing frameworks (Juran, 1989, p.42). Zairi and Youssef (1995, pp.2-10) underpin the importance of first understanding the organisation in question in order to draw conclusions about the critical success factors for TQM implementation in a given organisation.

With reference to the literature reviewed above in Chapter Two, the translation industry has established a common understanding of the translation process, which may arguably vary in size and scope. Still, there seems to be a lack of reference in the literature to the best practices with respect to structure and culture in TSPs. Under the umbrella of TQM, this research aims at identifying the critical success factors to be implemented in TSPs and the extent of structural, cultural and procedural changes to achieve the desired outcomes. The next sections of this chapter present models for TQM implementation so as to lay the foundation for

developing a compatible framework for non-profit TSPs in the UAE in light of the literature set out in Chapter Two.

3.1.8 Models for TQM implementation

Even though the TQM movement dates back only about half a century, (particularly arising from the pioneering work in this field by management gurus, as has been briefly described in previous paragraphs), there are hundreds of models and frameworks, underpinned by the latest research in business best practices and benchmarking in total quality management (TQM). This is due to the fact that TQM is integral to organisational strategy (Hansson, 2003, p.22). Therefore, it allows tailoring models to fit the specific nature of each organisation and meet its objectives and priorities, while conforming to the principles and elements of TQM philosophy (Allen and Kilmann, 2001; Kanji and Asher, 1996). Interestingly, Yusof and Aspinwall (2000a, pp.286-287) summarise the most common and widely published frameworks of TQM implementation in three categories, explained below.

3.1.8.1 Consultant-based

Consultant / Expert- based frameworks; “are those derived from personal opinion and judgment through experience in providing consultancy to organisations embarking on the TQM journey” (Yusof and Aspinwall, 2000a, p.285). This category covers, for instance, the classical approaches such as those of Deming, Juran, and Crosby, referred to in an earlier section (see 3.1.2). However, the researcher agrees with Yusof and Aspinwall (2000a, p.290) who argue that most of the approaches and frameworks that fall under this category do not provide an implementation framework for TQM. Rather, they present improvement steps for management and leave the means of implementation to be designed by each particular organisation (Zairi and Matthew, 1995; Cooney and Sohal, 2005).

3.1.8.2 Award-based

Award-based guidelines for TQM implementation: self-assessment tools that are derived from guidelines that are meant mainly for organisations seeking recognition and quality awards (Yusof and Aspinwall, 2000a, p.287). These frameworks can be seen in examples such as the Deming Application Prize, the oldest quality award that is used as an indicator of excellence in businesses (Walton, 1986); the Malcolm Baldrige Criteria for Performance Excellence, which presents principles of quality management and a tool of progress assessment (Garvin, 1991, p.81); the European Foundation for Quality Management, which is a framework that is designed to

improve organisations' competency and help them to assess their path towards excellence (Eskildsen, 1998, p.93); and the ISO quality management standards that provide guidelines for companies to deal with the world market (Yusof and Aspinwall 2000a, p.287). These frameworks do not specify the procedures towards the guidelines they present (ibid.). They are more in the way of tools of assessment under the umbrella of implementing TQM, and are of great interest in the context of the present research. This should be surrounded by commitment to quality, communication of the quality message and recognition of the need to change the culture that creates total quality management (ibid.)

3.1.8.3 Academic-based

In the third category are the so-called 'Academic-based frameworks' which may be defined as "those developed by academics and researchers through their own research and experience in the field" (Yusof and Aspinwall, 2000a, p.285). One of most famous frameworks under this category is that set out by Oakland (2004, p.35), which sets a plan of seven steps for TQM implementation, based on the customer/supplier chain and processes core within systems, tools and principles such as commitments and communication. This model incorporates a plan-do-check-act (PDCA) cycle (Beckford, 2010, p.67), which has been referred to above in 3.1.2.1. Oakland's model for implementing TQM is what he calls "the Four Ps and Three Cs" (Oakland, 2014, p.27), in which the four Ps refer to Planning, People, Processes, and Performance. According to Oakland (2014, p.30), these Ps "form the structure of 'hard management necessities' for a new simple quality management model". The three Cs, on the other hand, are Culture, Communication, and Commitment, which "provide the glue or 'soft outcomes' of the model which will take organisations successfully into the twenty-first century" (ibid.). This model aims at improving the performance of an organisation by maintaining better planning and management of people and processes.

There are many other frameworks or models of TQM implementation. Illustrating all of them is beyond the scope of this thesis, but two such guidelines are worth a particular mention: the Business Performance Improvement Resource (BPIR) improvement cycle, and the European Business Excellence Award (EFQM) Excellence Model, since they both bring insights into the best potential parameters to address in developing a TQM framework in this thesis. A brief overview of each

of these two models is given below. These will provide insightful parameters and benchmarks for the development of the proposed framework for TSPs.

3.1.8.4 BPIR

The Centre for Organisational Excellence Research (COER) developed a model called The Business Performance Improvement Resource (BPIR) that is built around a primary goal: “Don't reinvent the wheel” for continuous improvement (BPIR, 2002; Hoque, 2012, p.52). The BPIR (BPIR, 2002) website lists and explains the core concepts of BPIR model as follows: Performance Measurement, Benchmarking, Best Practices, Quality Management, and Business Excellence (ibid). The performance measurement refers to the quantified and numerical information an organisation gets from the results. Performance here can be financial and non-financial. This concept is important for organisations adopting TQM as they need to align the performance with their strategies, structure and organisational culture. Benchmarking refers to a systematic-based process to identify the best practices needed to achieve the required outcomes. The best practices, as the term suggests, refer to the adopted practices that are seen to be achieving the best results. Quality management refers to the systems opted for managing quality, starting from inspection at the product level and total quality at the corporate level. Finally, ‘business excellence’ is another way of referring to TQM in general while seeking excellence of the adopted strategy and management practices (ibid).

3.1.8.5 EFQM

The EFQM Excellence Model is an award process run by the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) (Paton *et al.*, 2011, p.425; EFQM, 2012, p.2). This model is used as the basis for business excellence and quality awards across Europe and consists of nine criteria, of which five are enablers (leadership, people, policy and strategy, partnerships and resources, and processes) and four are results (people results, customer results, society results, and business results) (Hakes, 2007, p.5), as presented in Figure 2 below.

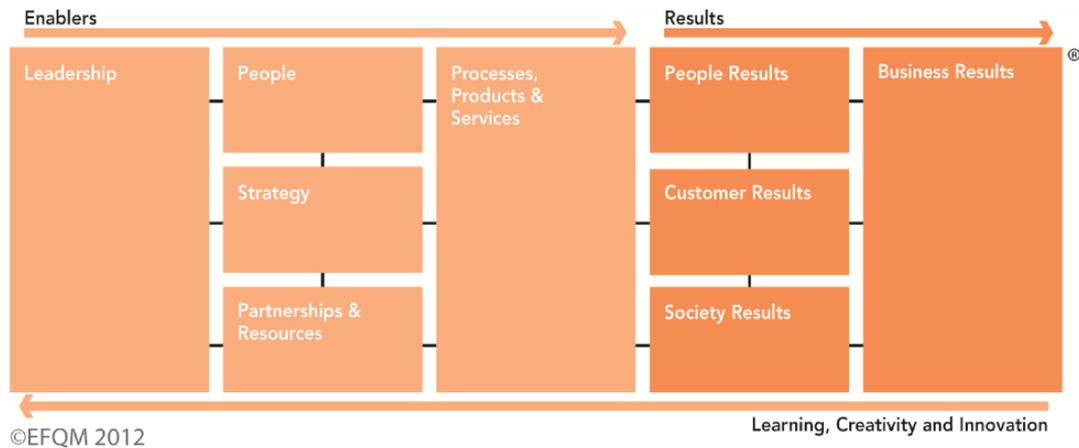


Figure 2: The Criteria of the EFQM Excellence Model (EFQM, 2012, p.4).

Table 7 below presents the definitions of these criteria as they appear in EFQM (2012, pp.4-5):

Criteria	Definitions
Enabler criterion (EFQM, 2012, p.4-5)	<i>These are the things an organisation needs to do to develop and implement their strategy.</i>
Leadership	<i>Excellent organisations have leaders who shape the future and make it happen, acting as role models for its values and ethics and inspiring trust at all times. They are flexible, enabling the organisation to anticipate and react in a timely manner to ensure the on-going success of the organisation.</i>
Strategy	<i>Excellent organisations implement their mission and vision by developing and deploying a stakeholder-focused strategy. Policies, plans, objectives and processes are developed and deployed to deliver the strategy.</i>
People	<i>Excellent organisations value their people and create a culture that allows the mutually beneficial achievement of organisational and personal goals. They develop the capabilities of their people and promote fairness and equality. They care for, communicate, reward and</i>

recognise, in a way that motivates people, builds commitment and enables them to use their skills and knowledge for the benefit of the organisation.

Partnership and resources

Excellent organisations plan and manage external partnerships, suppliers and internal resources in order to support strategy and policies and the effective operation of processes.

Process, products and services

Excellent organisations design, manage and improve processes to generate increasing value for customers and other stakeholders.

Result criterion
(EFQM, 2012, p.5)

These are the results an organisation achieves, in line with their strategic goals.

Customer results

Excellent organisations achieve and sustain outstanding results that meet or exceed the needs and expectations of their customers.

People results

Excellent organisations achieve and sustain outstanding results that meet or exceed the needs and expectations of their people.

Society results

Excellent organisations achieve and sustain outstanding results that meet or exceed the needs and expectations of relevant stakeholders within society.

Business results

Excellent organisations achieve and sustain outstanding results that meet or exceed the needs and expectations of their business stakeholders.

Table 7: Definitions of the EFQM Excellence Model's criteria. These definitions are as appeared in EFQM (2012, pp.4-5)

3.2 Part Two: Critical Success Factors for Implementing Total Quality Management

As presented earlier (see 3.1.3), quality of the products or service is not only essential for survival in the competitive organisational climate, but it also requires an optimal utilization of resources. Quality management, in this regard, has received much attention over decades from authors in different areas and there is an extensive

literature discussing the critical success factors (CSFs) for effective implementing of TQM in different industries (Saraph *et al.*, 1989; Porter and Parker, 1993; Zairi and Youssef, 1995; Salaheldin, 2009; Yusof and Aspinwall, 2000b; Talib and Rahman, 2010; Meetika and Anita, 2014). Owing to the virtual absence of any literature on CSFs for implementing TQM in the translation industry, the literature review of this section borrows from the existing literature in other fields of study.

3.2.1 Critical success factors (CSFs) defined

Ronald Daniel first introduced CSFs in 1961 in his paper, titled “Management information crisis”, in which he raised their importance as a means to manage crises and prevent threats facing organisations. Digman (1990, p.247) views CSFs as the areas that improve a business. On CSFs, Rockart (1978, p.85) states:

Critical success factors, for any business, are the limited number of areas in which results, if they are satisfactory, will ensure successful competitive performance for the organization. They are the few key areas where ‘things must go right’ for the business to flourish. If results in those areas are adequate, the organization’s efforts for the period will be less than defined.

Oakland likewise observes that CSF is “a term used to mean the most important sub-goals of a business or organization. CSFs are what must be accomplished for the mission to be achieved” (Oakland, 2014, p.41). Similarly, CSFs are viewed as the particular areas that should be maintained properly for the management and organisation’s success (Kanji *et al.*, 1999, p.137). Organisations therefore should consider and focus on these areas constantly to achieve high levels of performance (Alazmi and Ziri, 2003, p.199).

3.2.2 Soft and hard TQM factors

CSFs of TQM implementation are discussed throughout the literature under two classifications; soft and hard factors (Black and Porter, 1996). However, this distinction sometimes is hazy as some authors classify some factors differently. Soft factors in an organisation consider aspects that are related to people and behavioural aspects such as corporate culture, teamwork, empowerment, continuous development, and leadership (Black and Porter, 1996; Oakland, 2014; Calvo-Mora *et al.*, 2014), whereas hard factors encompass technical areas such as procedures, benchmarking and standards (*ibid.*). However Zairi and Alsughayir (2011, p.642) argue that training, for instance, is one of the factors that is considered as ‘soft’ by some authors and ‘hard’ by others. On the other hand, Zairi and Youssef (1995, pp.6-7) add ‘leadership’ to these classifications, which encompasses factors related

to management such as direction, goals, and strategic planning.

Regardless of their classification, however, an effective selection of CSFs should be determined and aligned with the existing specific organisational context (Zairi and Alsughayir, 2011, p.641). An important argument by Zairi and Youssef, (1995, p.5) is that to identify the critical success factor before it actually becomes critical, is a real challenge for organisations as it is not easy to change the strategy on continuation of changing indicators. Saraph *et al.* (1989, pp.812-826), who first studied CSFs for TQM implementation, argues that critical success factors are the important areas of any organisation's planning for achieving the desirable and successful TQM. Leidecker and Bruno (1984, pp.26-29) outline different sources to identify the CSFs for an organisation. These sources are derived from studying and analysing areas of an organisation such as its environment and structure.

3.2.3 Sources of CSFs for TQM implementation

The CSFs of TQM have been concluded throughout the literature from three main areas (Claver *et al.*, 2003, p.91; Hietschold *et al.*, 2014, pp.6255-6256). First, CSFs can be derived from the philosophical contributions of quality gurus such as Deming, (1986/2000), Juran, (1989), Crosby (1980), and Feigenbaum, (1991/2005). For instance, Wali *et al.* (2003, p.5) surveyed the CSFs for implementing TQM as proposed by many authors. Table 8 below adopts their summary of CSFs derived from the quality gurus.

Critical Success Factors (CSFs)	Deming 1986/2000	Juran 1989	Crosby 1980	Feigenbaum 1991/2005
1. Top management commitment	✓	✓	✓	✓
2. Strategic quality management	✓	✓	✓	✓
3. Process quality management	✓	✓	✓	✓
4. Design quality management	✓	✓	✓	
5. Education and Training	✓	✓	✓	✓
6. Supplier quality management	✓	✓	✓	

7. Customer satisfaction	✓	✓		
8. Employee empowerment and involvement		✓	✓	✓
9. Business results	✓	✓	✓	
10. Culture			✓	

Table 8: CSFs derived from the philosophical contributions of quality gurus (summarised from Wali *et al.*, 2003, p.5)

Second, CSFs can be derived from criteria set out in formal evaluation and award models such as the Deming Prize¹⁴ (1996) and Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA) (1999)¹⁵. For instance, Meetika and Anita (2014, pp.630-632) reviewed the criteria of 21 Quality Awards around the world to benchmark the CSFs of TQM implementation in the education industry. Their study found the highest five CSFs, namely: process flow management, strategic quality management, top management support, education and training, customer orientation and human resources (Meetika and Anita, 2014, pp.630-631).

The third way of identifying CSFs is through descriptive approaches and empirical research by conducting case studies, descriptive, conceptual and empirical studies to study specific contexts for implementation (Claver *et al.*, 2003, p.91; Hietschold *et al.* 2014, pp.6255-6256).

Determining compatible CSFs for organisations, however, remains a major challenge for those seeking TQM implementation (Salaheldin, 2009, p. 218). Yet it is argued that a common selection of CSFs for implementing TQM exists regardless of the industry, type or location of organisations (Hietschold *et al.*, 2014, p.6255; Zairi and Alsughayir, 2011, p.641).

¹⁴ The Deming Prize (1996) is a national quality award in Japan that dates back to 1951. The prize is named after Deming to acknowledge his contributions in helping Japan to lay the groundwork for quality systems after World War II (see <https://www.juse.or.jp>).

¹⁵ MBNQA is a national quality award in the United States of America, founded by the U.S Congress in 1987 to be awarded to successful companies implementing quality management systems (see <http://www.baldrigepe.org>).

3.2.4 Studies on CSFs for TQM

Many studies have analysed CSFs for implementing TQM in different sectors in different contexts, i.e. different countries, sectors and industries, organisation sizes, and sample sizes (Zairi and Youssef, 1995; Black and Porter, 1996; Khamalah and Lingaraj, 2007). These studies also suggest various numbers of CSFs for each case, with some are proposing less than four CSFs whereas other proposals include more than ten factors (Hietschold *et al.*, 2014, p.6255).

One of the studies is conducted by Yusof and Aspinwall (2000b, p. S461), and in it they identified ten CSFs for TQM in small and medium enterprises (SMEs), namely: management leadership, continuous improvement system, measurement and feedback, improvement tools and techniques, supplier quality assurance, human resource development, systems and processes, resources, education and training, and work environment and culture. Another empirical study by Rahman (2001) that analysed 53 Australian organisations on implementing TQM concluded that the CSFs are leadership, training and development, information and analysis, and customer management.

A study conducted on 250 banks in the UAE, by Al-Marri *et al.* (2007), concluded that there were 16 CSFs, namely: top management support, strategy, continuous improvement, benchmarking, customer focus, quality department, quality system, human resource management, recognition and reward, problem analysis, quality service technologies, service design, employees, service capes, service culture and social responsibility.

Another study (Al Ali, 2012) which included an oil and gas company, a construction company and manufacturing companies in the UAE found that CSFs of TQM implementation are leadership and commitment of management, education and training, teamwork and organisational culture, and relationships with internal and external customers, including suppliers.

Many other interesting research-based studies have been done, including those by Zairi and Youssef (1995), Black and Porter (1996), Thiagarajan *et al.* (2001), Motwani (2001), Zhang *et al.* (2000), and Khamalah and Lingaraj (2007). However, listing them here is beyond the scope of this research as each was concluded based on different contexts. That is because a study by Hietschold *et al.* (2014, p.6257)

which analysed 145 studies on CSFs of implementing TQM found that almost none of them shared the same set of factors.

One of the problems associated with the extensive literature reviews on CSFs of implementing TQM is that most of them are outdated and were published at least 10 years ago while encompassing 56 different factors (Hietschold *et al.*, 2014, p.6256). The same authors (*ibid.*, p. 2014) claim that this in turn resulted in two main problems. First, some outdated factors cannot be discussed or compared in large contexts (*ibid.*). Second, focusing on many factors isolates managers and employees from the holistic perspective of TQM (*ibid.*). A prior analysis of the organisation is therefore important before identifying the suitable CSFs for the given context (Zairi and Youssef, 1995; Leidecker and Bruno, 1984).

3.2.5 CSFs for implementing TQM in TSPs

A relatively recent model proposed by Talib and Rahman (2010, pp.363-380), based on an extensive survey of the literature review of 30 different studies between 1989 to 2009 on implementing TQM on ‘service organisations’, concluded on a set of nine CSFs, which will be presented below, namely: (1) top-management commitment, (2) customer focus, (3) training and education, (4) continuous improvement and innovation, (5) supplier management, (6) employee involvement, (7) quality information and performance measurement, (8) benchmarking, and (9) employee encouragement (*ibid.*, pp.368-369).

Given the limited literature available on TQM in relation to TSPs, this researcher will borrow Talib and Rahman’s (2010) model of CSFs for implementing TQM, considering its particular reference to the service sector. The researcher will attempt to relate this presentation to the extant literature on managing TSPs when applicable. Further, this presentation will integrate other elements (teamwork and communication) not included in Talib and Rahman’s model which are suggested in a model developed by Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson (2004) titled ‘Acquired Capabilities for Translation Systems (ACTS) and presented earlier in Chapter Two (see 2.1.2), given the fact that this model is partially based for its formulation on Deming’s approach to quality (see 3.1.2).

However, this presentation aims at laying the groundwork for CSFs as they appeared in the literature reviews both of CSFs of TQM and of managing quality in TSPs,

while taking into account that the case studies of this research may reveal additional or even different factors due to their special and different contexts.

3.2.5.1 Management Commitment and Leadership

As perceived by Deming's (1986/2000) and Juran's (1989) views of quality (see 3.1.2), management appears to be an important factor for implementing TQM. Being a management philosophy, TQM practices are initiated by the management commitment towards it (Hietschold *et al.*, 2014, p.6259). Top management commitment refers to the "factors that measure the involvement and support for quality of individuals on higher levels of an organisation's hierarchy" (*ibid.*, p.6259). The importance of management commitment and leadership as a CSF lies in the fact that they are the starting point that drives and influences the operation of the other TQM factors (Kaynak, 2003, p.409; Sila and Ebrahimpour, 2002, p.903). Top management is responsible for laying out the vision, mission and values of an organisation (Talib and Rahman, 2010, p.370).

Porter and Tanner (2011, p.4) indicate that a strong leadership lies in the manager's ability to encourage employees to embrace TQM. Talib and Rahman (2010, p.370) argue that the middle management is also responsible for spreading the knowledge about TQM principles. Adopting TQM in an organisation requires changing the corporate/ organisational culture (Ugboro and Obeng, 2000, pp.264, 270). This is only attainable when the top management opts for strategies aiming at establishing a consultative cooperative environment that fosters continuous development (Kaynak, 2003, p.409). Top management roles involve aspects related to the management of the corporate culture and employees (Zhang *et al.*, 2000; Brah *et al.*, 2002). For instance, strategies should embed TQM cultural aspects in the organisational structure as it affects the flow of information, receiving feedback, and promoting the employees' participation, which in turn sustains employees' empowerment and has a positive result in achieving customer satisfaction (Ugboro and Obeng, 2000, p.264, 270).

This means that leaders are the guides to show a road map of how to reach a specific goal. The goals and objectives, thus, need to be clearly defined and explained by the leaders in order to set priorities and plans of execution by the team. The vision that leadership provides, according to Dale *et al.* (2016, p.22), is the pathway for those

who execute the plan to effectively achieve the intended quality in alignment with the customer's needs. An effective implementation of TQM arguably relies on the organisation's acceptance, at all levels, of the management commitment to TQM (Talib and Rahman, 2010, p.371).

In TSPs, where consistent quality of translation becomes "a collaborative task" (Doherty *et al.*, 2012, p.549), Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson (2004, p.259) argue that management should place documented standards and guidelines before translators and other professionals in order to minimise variations of translation quality over projects. They argue that although standards may be known, but not documented, they could be overlooked under work pressure (*ibid.*). The absence of such documentation and understanding of the organisation's values and quality may affect the performance of the entire organisation and increase inconsistency "especially when new staff join the organisation" (*ibid.*, p.259).

Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson (2004, pp.261-263) emphasise the importance of formalization in TSPs as management should ensure the presence of the documentation of all policies, standards, documents related to the translation task (e.g., terminologies, glossaries, phraseologies), and those specifying levels of reporting, communication channels, roles and responsibilities of individuals and team members.

Interestingly, the ACTS model (Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson, 2014, p.260) discusses the notion of commitment through other non-managerial levels since it should be echoed in the staff conformance to the policies and standards in place. On the other hand, they (*ibid.*) argue that management should also be committed to responding to the employees' (non-managers') commitment through acknowledgment and reward.

Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson (2004, p.260-261) suggest that the commitment of employees towards the organisation's objectives and values could be assured when management enhances the employees' involvement and participation by empowering their choices for which they opt during the translation process, and involving them in developing these procedures. The same authors (*ibid.*, p.260) also argue that employees' commitment, including that of freelancers, increases as they feel their performance is rewarded for their personal benefit.

3.2.5.2 Customer Focus

Although quality gurus provide different views of TQM (see 3.1.2), they all emphasise that achieving quality is based on conforming to specifications that are tailored to fit the use of the customer (Silvestro, 1998, p.306; Mehra *et al.*, 2001, p.858). Customer focus refers to the degree to which an organisation continues to satisfy its customers by considering their needs and keeping customers central to the decision-making process (Dale *et al.*, 2015, p.22; Yusuf *et al.*, 2007). Customer satisfaction is a core principle in TQM that affects an organisation's performance (Mehra *et al.*, 2001, p.858). Organisations therefore should devote their efforts to studying customers' needs, as this helps in improving the performance of the organisation in both the present and future (García-Bernal and Ramírez-Alesón, 2015, p.25).

It is suggested that organisations should have a close relationship with the customers (Deming, 2000, p.10; Flynn *et al.*, 1994, p.349). This interactive relationship will allow organisations to understand the customer needs in order to deliver the required product or project (Hietschold *et al.*, p.2014, p.6262; Flynn *et al.*, 1994, p.349). Moreno-Luzon *et al.* (2013, p.1153) likewise emphasise the importance of maintaining a good relationship with customers as it helps organisations to achieve high performance and promotes innovation.

Dean and Bowen (1994, p.394) argue that organisations could maintain customer focus by maintaining a direct relationship with customers, constantly looking into their needs and expectations, and integrating their feedback into the organisation's strategies and processes. The practice of keeping data related to customers' needs and complaints supports customer orientation in organisations (Talib and Rahman, 2010, p.371).

It is interesting to note that customers in TSPs could be internal commissioners in the same organisation or external ones (Drugon, 2013; BSI 2012), while in Bowen and Lawler (1992), for instance, internal customers are in fact the employees. In all cases, it is suggested that translation production is to be preceded by identifying specifications that fit the use of the customer (BSI ISO 11669, 2012 p.11).

3.2.5.3 Training and education

Training and education is a widely agreed CSF for implementing TQM among various authors (Zhang *et al.*, 2000; Motwani, 2001). Talib and Rahman (2010, p.371), for instance, observe that “the core concept of training and education is to maintain a high level of quality through the best use of talents and activities of an organization’s entire workforce”. This factor is important as it enriches employees’ awareness (managers and non-managers) about the values of TQM and improves their problem-solving skills (Flynn *et al.*, 1994, p.348; Mosadeghrad, 2014, p.169). Further, training related to managing quality of the processes promotes creativity and innovation to improve the organisation’s performance (Kaynak, 2003, p.415; Flynn *et al.*, 1994, p.350).

Besides its benefits for improving quality (Talib and Rahman, 2010, p.372), training of employees is a highly motivational factor as it enhances their confidence and self-assurance in conducting the assigned tasks (Ugboro and Obeng, 2000, p.263; Hietschold *et al.*, 2014, p.6262; Talib and Rahman, 2010, p.372). Das *et al.* (2008) therefore argue that the management of organisations should view training as an investment rather than a waste, because it builds up employees’ capabilities and competence and constructively contributes towards improving the performance of the entire organisation (Ahire and Golhar, 1996, p.7, 10).

Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson (2004, p.263) observe that training in TSPs includes internal and external training. While the internal refers to receiving training on the procedures and tools used, external training concerns external courses and conference attendance (*ibid.*). TSPs should, however, identify the training needs of each employee on the basis of their documented job descriptions and capabilities (*ibid.*).

3.2.5.4 Continuous development and innovation

According to Dean and Bowen (1994, p.395), continuous development “means a commitment to constant examination of technical and administrative processes in search of better methods”. They argue that the importance of this factor lies in the fact that an organisation encompasses interlinked processes, and that as these improve and drive forward the organisation’s performance this results in customer satisfaction (*ibid.*). Similarly, Hietschold *et al.*, (2014, p.6261) state that “the

relevance of the process management is based on the assumption that organisations are systems of interlinked processes and that process improvement determines performance improvement". Continuous development is also important as it helps organisations to minimise errors, and eliminates time in delivery, which enhances the organisation's survival in the long run (Talib and Rahman, 2010, p.372; Kaynak, 2003, p.418).

Since TQM is process-oriented rather than product-oriented (Mehra *et al.*, 2001; Dale *et al.*, 2016), continuous improvement should therefore involve constant improvement of the process. Further, Puffer (1994, p.42) identifies outmoded equipment and processes as the cause of low product quality. Firms implementing TQM must thus be abreast of modern methods, strive to meet higher quality standards in processes and products and implement effective inventory (Zhang *et al.*, 2000). Kaynak (2000, pp.417-418) establishes a relationship between process management and high quality. In his view, performance is important to develop the processes and the preventive systems in place to avoid losses and delay in delivery (*ibid.*, 2003, p.418). This in turn improves quality and assures consistency (Saraph *et al.*, 1989; Flynn *et al.*, 1995; Kaynak, 2003). TSPs therefore should pay attention to the maintenance of the tools used in the process, such as updating software, guidelines and terminology database.

3.2.5.5 Supplier management

Supplier quality management is another important factor for success in the implementation of TQM. Talib and Rahman (2010, p.372) argue that this is an important CSF for the TQM implementation. Harrington and Voehl (2012, p.358) state that developing close and long-term relationships with suppliers achieves the best economy and quality for organisations. Further, Deming's (2000, p.23) fourth point out of fourteen, which is "end the practice of awarding business on the basis of a price tag. Instead, minimize total cost. Move toward a single supplier for any one item, on a long-term relationship of loyalty and trust" seeks to suggest that having strong ties with a small number of suppliers guarantees trust and loyalty. Organisations should focus on establishing a good relationship with high quality suppliers over time as their contributions affect the quality of the service provided (Hietschold *et al.*, 2014, p.6262; Kaynak, 2003, p.416; Flynn *et al.*, 1994, p.663). Empirical studies prove a correlation between good, established relationships with

suppliers and improving the quality of the service (Flynn *et al.*, 1995; Shin *et al.*, 2000). Further, organisations should avoid losses and damage to their reputation and image by ensuring that they count on high quality contributions from the suppliers (Zhang *et al.*, 2000). Samuelsson-Brown (2006, p.17-18) similarly notes that it is important that TSPs uphold good relationships with suppliers who include all external resources used to complete the translation project, for example freelancers, printing companies, and couriers.

3.2.5.6 Employees Involvement and Participation

To effectively establish the activities of TQM, the involvement and participation of the workforce is an essential factor for success (Mosadeghard, 2012, p.169). By employee involvement, Lu and Sohal (1993) mean that the skilled workforce should take up its responsibilities and take part in improving the functions and processing at organisational level. Employee involvement is affected by various reasons within the organisations, and Bowen and Lawler (1992) consider them as internal customers whose satisfaction leads to higher productivity and effectiveness.

A study conducted by Rodríguez-Castro (2015, pp.32-42) listed a number of aspects affecting translator satisfaction. She argues that translators' performance is determined by their satisfaction with regard to their tasks (e.g., whether these tasks are hard, not within their competence and speciality) and job (e.g., whether they have reasonable workload, remuneration, deadlines, and turnover) (*ibid.*, pp.34-37). These aspects, which are a yardstick of translators' satisfaction and dissatisfaction, correlate with their performance (*ibid.*) and therefore affect the organisation's output in general.

The extent of employee involvement under TQM includes improving the quality of the process, decision-making and problem solving (Talib and Rahman, 2010, p.373). Furthermore, adopting various skills and techniques such as fair communication, training and development enhances employee involvement (*ibid.*). Ugboro and Obeng (2000, p.263) observe that successful employees' involvement and participation is effective in different ways; for example, in as satisfying employees with minimising barriers of communications, especially at the lower hierarchy level of organisation; in clarifying job specifications and required tasks; in establishing a regulated system for promotion; in designing tailored training and development

programs; in identifying the organisation's objectives and values clearly; in setting a system for reward and appraisal; and in assuring health and safety measures within the organisation.

Hietschold *et al.* (2014, p.6262) indicate that training is a major tool for employee empowerment and involvement (*ibid.*). On the other hand, employee involvement under TQM may also mean trusting them and empowering their decision-makings and problem solving without them being constantly supervised (Moreno-Luzon *et al.*, 2013, p.1153).

3.2.5.7 Employee encouragement

Employee encouragement in Talib and Rahman's terms (2010, p.373) includes employee appraisal, rewards, and recognition. It is argued that establishing an appraisal and reward system for TQM implementation is important to encourage employees' conformance to the organisation's values and objectives, and ensure consistency of projects (Yusuf *et al.*, 2007; Ugboro and Obeng, 2000). Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson (2004, p.260) likewise contend that management commitment in TSPs should be reflected in acknowledging the employees' conformance to the policies in place through establishing appraisal and reward systems, which are both financial and non-financial. Such aspects are important as they raise the employees' awareness about their self-worth, which consequently reflects on their performance and conformance to the overall values and objectives of the organisation (Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson, 2004, p.260; Rodríguez-Castro, 2015, p.38).

3.2.5.8 Benchmarking

Benchmarking is the analysis by which organisations can make improvements in their products by measuring their performance against the best among their competitors or counterparts from other industries (Ahire and Golhar, 1996, p.10; Hietschold *et al.*, 2014, p.6263). This allows them to maintain focus and eliminate working with stale ideas. It is an innovative way of making improvement on already existing ideas in the market (Yusuf *et al.*, 2007). In the implementation of TQM, benchmarking fosters the analyses of performance to identify strengths and weaknesses in an organisation and assesses what could be done for continuous improvement (Talib and Rahman, 2010, p.374; Hietschold *et al.*, 2014, p.6262). It

also allows organisations to identify what is changing in the environment to adequately adapt so as to respond effectively to such changes (Harrington and Voehl, 2012, p.357).

The ACTS model (Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson, 2004, p.263), for instance, takes the view that TSPs should consider positioning themselves on a competitive level with others by adopting the translation international standards such as ISO 17100: 2015 (see 2.1.2). However, as stated in Chapter Two (see 2.1.2), TSPs should evaluate the advantages and disadvantages that such adoption would carry with it according to their particular capabilities and priorities (ibid.).

3.2.5.9 Quality information and performance measurement

According to Talib and Rahman (2010, p. 374), this factor means that organisations should evaluate the quality of suppliers, using in-process quality control systems and error-prevention systems. This helps in minimising variations and ensures consistency of production (ibid.). This factor also includes measuring the organisation's performance in comparison with the organisation's objectives and customer's requirements by seeking their feedback through carrying out customer surveys (Dean and Bowen (1994, p.394). Such feedback should always be analysed as it helps in constantly improving the quality of the organisation's performance (Talib and Rahman, 2010, p.374). The ACTS model (Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson, 2004, p.263) in this regard considers that TSPs should analyse their processes and establish a detective system that records errors and identify the sources of problems. As we have noted earlier, authors like Gouadec (2007) and Mossop (2014), as well as translation-specialised standards such as ISO 11669 (BSI, 2012) and ISO 17100 (BSI, 2015), likewise establish the importance of feedback as an organisational performance measurement (see 2.2.4.3).

The literature discussed in Chapter Two and the ACTS model (Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson (2004) indicate that culture and teamwork are arguably relevant to the implementation of TQM in TSPs. They are also presented in the literature as CSFs for implementing TQM (Jabnoun and Sedrani, 2005; Al Ali, 2012; Dean and Bowen, 1994).

3.2.5.10 Culture

Corporate or organisational culture refers to a holistic set of relatively established values that is historically and socially influenced and arguably difficult to change (Hofstede, 2001, p.393). Organisational culture can also be defined as the state of beliefs that prevails in the organisational functions and behaviour of the employees towards a particular goal to be achieved (Schein, 2016, p.8). In the context of TQM, Rad (2006, p.607) observes that “TQM is the culture of an organisation committed to total customer satisfaction through continuous improvement”. Collins (1994, pp. 40- 43) similarly sees TQM as a cultural-based approach.

There is, however, a disagreement over whether TQM needs to change the current culture (Lewis, 1996, p.6). That is because some believe that culture in an organisation is difficult to change and it is more feasible to embed the practices and philosophies of TQM in the existing culture (ibid., pp.13-14). The reason behind this is that employees tend to resist change, which is described by Mosadeghrad as “a primary obstacle to TQM implementation in an organisation” (2014, p.170). However, Green (2012, p.145) argues that organisations should evaluate the feasibility of implementing TQM so that it finds acceptance within the existing culture.

Supporting the argument for culture being a CSF for implementing TQM, Prajogo and McDermott (2005, p.1106) argue that “organisational culture determines the result of TQM implementation rather than the TQM implementation bringing about cultural change”. For establishing an effective TQM culture, Jabnoun and Sedrani, (2005, pp.8-18) argue that it is essential for organisations to establish a culture that is characterised by openness, participation, and teamwork. Moreover, this culture should understand the process and people involved in it through effective organisational management which gives employees a feeling of involvement, and at the same time keeps them motivated to be creative, innovative and consistently improving for the attainment of quality (Escribá-Moreno, 2008, p.57; Yusof and Aspinwall, 2000b, p. S451).

Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson (2004, p.261) observe that TSPs should establish a communication-oriented culture at two levels; external and internal. As for the former, they argue that upholding communication with the customers during

the process of production in TSPs “maintains the involvement and trust of the client” (ibid., 2004, p.261). This in turn would help TSPs to effectively and easily address problems or issues that may be encountered during translation (ibid.). They also emphasise that this relationship should be sustained after the translation project delivery, since this would increase the possibility of receiving future business (ibid.). On the other hand, the internal level of communication relates to creating a culture of openness to discuss issues they encounter “without worrying over any blame or fear of consequences” (ibid., p.265). This culture could be effective by encouraging employees to communicate in both formal and informal settings and by preparing the organisation with the suitable tools and processes such as holding regular meetings and receiving suggestions in emails or surveys (ibid.)

3.2.5.11 Teamwork

According to Dean and Bowen, (1994, p.395) teamwork as a CSF of implementing TQM includes “collaboration between managers and non-managers, between functions, and between customers and suppliers”. They explain that managers and non-managers should work together as their collaborative contributions affect the organisational performance. Furthermore, processes in organisations interlink to achieve unified objectives (ibid.). Lastly, working in a team between internal customers and suppliers enhances loyalty and improves performance and outcomes (ibid.).

In TQM terms, teamwork is an essential factor for organisations to achieve their goals. It reflects the fact that an organisation is effectively integrated with its process to achieve success (Dale *et al.*, 2016, p.43). Teamwork is found to be more effective than working individually (Daily and Bishop, 2003; Kiraly, 2000). The element of effective teamwork is essential for implementation of the TQM in the organisation as it not only improves the processes and procedures but also proliferates better ways of finding solutions to problems (Antony *et al.*, 2002). Nevertheless, it depends on the organisational needs and how teams are formed in the structure, since teamwork is unlikely to be effective in centralized structures (Mosadeghard, 2014, p.168).

For effective teamwork, employees should be able to deal with conflicts, establish positive relationships, and coordinate the efforts of different departments towards

achieving the organisation's objectives (Moreno-Luzon *et al.*, 2013, p.1152). Escribá-Moreno *et al.* (2008, pp.55-56) conclude that teamwork is effective in highly decentralized and formalised cultures as such contexts promote better coordination within and among teams.

As mentioned above in Chapter Three (see 3.1.7), decentralization refers to an organisational structure where power and decision-making processes are distributed over all levels of the organisations. Formalization here refers to the explicit and detailed identification of all procedures, regulations and responsibilities of all individuals, teams, divisions, departments and all units of the organisation, including a clear understanding of the organisation's objectives and mission (Miller, 2008, p.229). Arguably, such aspects are more likely to be created in decentralized and organic (vertical) organisational structures (Cao *et al.*, 2000, p.188).

Translation projects today are mostly completed in teams since the translation process of a single project involves different stages that are assigned to different professionals (i.e., translator, reviser, proofreader, reviewer, etc.) who may receive feedback on their tasks from either each other or other parties (Lambert, 1996, p.291; Sager, 1994, p.299; Gouadec, 2007, p.106; Kiraly, 2000, p.11). This is argued to be due to the increase in translation demand and heavy workload (Krajsco, 2011, p.279).

Working in teams on translation projects sustains translation quality (Kiraly, 2000, p.22) and motivates TSPs to working within a horizontal organisational structure (Rodríguez-Castro, 2015, p.30), which is arguably more suitable for implementing TQM (see 3.1.7). Further, it is associated with benefits such as minimising errors related to accuracy and terminology, enhancing readability through the contributions of revisers and proofreaders, developing problem-solving techniques and fostering learning, which all help the TSP to deliver a competitive service (Dunne and Dunne 2011, p.12; Thomson-Wohlgemuth and Thomson, 2004, p.266).

However, teamwork in the outsourcing context in TSPs may be faced with some limitations in terms of communication and coordination (Doherty *et al.*, 2012, pp.533-534). As explained in Chapter Two (see 2.2.2), some TSPs use project management software and cloud-based platforms to manage geographically distributed translation projects. However, the effectiveness of such virtual

collaboration depends on the degree of coordination and contact with other professionals offered by project managers. That is, despite the fact that some projects are assigned to multiple translation professionals, translators (or other translation professionals) have limited communication channels (i.e. exclusive contact to the project manager who could indeed be the client as well) (Olvera-Lobo *et al.*, 2009, p.167). Therefore, for effective teamwork in an outsourcing context, communication channels should be open among all professionals by optimally using suitable software and platforms.

3.3 Conclusion: implementing TQM in TSPs by investigating the CSFs

TQM is a management philosophy that has evolved and been developed over the years, starting from looking at quality on the basis of the product or service and moving to process and beyond process, including all aspects of an organisation. This philosophy is distinguished for its holistic perspectives towards quality, as it integrates and optimises all resources and stakeholders at all levels in order to achieve a common goal and improve the organisational performance in the long run.

The literature presented above indicates that the implementation of TQM is associated with various challenges. It is a cultural and long-term process that comprises different changes and efforts. Organisations therefore should be committed to this long process and to long-term results for its implementation to succeed. As mentioned above, there are different views over some dimensions for a successful implementation of TQM. For instance, some authors are of the view that TQM is more possible in an organic, vertical and decentralized organisational structure, whereas others believe that TQM may be constructed and embedded in the existing structure. Moreover, there is a lack of agreement on the best approach and model to adopt. Despite the different existing approaches and models available for its implementation, evaluating an organisation's context is the starting point for implementation. That is to say, such an evaluation helps to determine the critical success factors and develop the most compatible model for TQM implementation.

The literature above shows that TSPs are arguably similar to any other service sector organisations, being formulated by an interlinked process of management, culture, structure and procedures. The next chapters will empirically attempt to evaluate the relevance of TQM to the translation industry by identifying the CSFs for its implementation.

4 Chapter Four: Research Methodology

This chapter will provide the details on the research paradigm and the research strategy and design. It introduces the research methodology used for this study and how it has guided data collection and analysis. This is to be preceded by presenting an essential background and fundamental common guidelines in different approaches to grounded theory methodology (GTM).

Drawing from the general overview on managing translation projects in TSPs and TQM (Chapters Two and Three), this chapter explains how and why these models and techniques were chosen and describes the primary research methods used to collect, process and analyse the data. The subsequent section describes the data collection phases for the general survey; multi-case study analysis of three non-profit TSPs in the UAE, namely the translation department at the National Archive (NA), the translation projects at Tabah Foundation and the Kalima translation project. As a leading case study in this research, Kalima's translation and quality measures are selected to be studied in further detail by means of conducting an in-depth text-analysis of their revision, proofreading and editing output. The chapter concludes by explaining the analysis approach for the empirical data.

4.1 Philosophical approaches

Among the most commonly used research paradigms applied to the verification of theoretical propositions, two are of particular relevance to the social sciences: Positivism (e.g., experimental testing); and Constructivism, sometimes referred to as Interpretivism or naturalistic inquiry (i.e., each individual constructs his/her own reality, so there are multiple interpretations) (Collins, 2010, pp.38-39).

4.1.1 Positivism approach

Positivism is a research paradigm that creates a system for the process of knowledge generation based on the use of quantitative methods (see 4.2.1), essential for authenticating the description of parameters and for discerning how the parameters relate (Gephart, 2008). It is a tradition that holds the belief that nature comprises certain detectable regularities, thereby providing researchers with the means to infer knowledge about nature through observation (Stahl, 2007). In other words,

positivists observe the stable nature of reality which they describe from an objective viewpoint, which is to say without interfering with the phenomena being studied.

Positivists maintain that phenomena exhibit isolation in nature and are bound to repeat the same results when observed (Brown, 2008). This therefore leads to the organisation of a knowledge generation process based on quantification, which is solely aimed at promoting precision in parameter description and discernment of how they are related (Antwi and Hamza, 2015). The knowledge generation process therefore involves manipulating reality in which one independent variable is varied to reveal regularities in the reality and to identify the relationships between the components of society. There is also room for making predictions based on previous observations and explanations made on realities and their inter-connections (Gephart, 2008). Critics of this research tradition, however, state that subjectivity replaces objectivity in the scientific inquiry process, and this has led to the anti-positivism or Interpretivism paradigm (Buddharaksa, 2010).

4.1.2 Interpretivism/ Constructivism

The Interpretivist or Constructivist paradigm is complex with diverse methodologies for generating knowledge, whereby each method is built on underlying philosophies, practices and modes of interpretation (Schwandt, 2006). The grounded theory, for instance, is one of the methodologies under this paradigm (Alemu *et al.*, 2015). Interpretivism/ Constructivist suggests an individualistic perception of reality based on the ideological positions possessed by the individual (Schwandt, 2006). As such, this paradigm describes knowledge as a personal experience rather than a thing acquired or obtained from nature or the individual's surroundings (Collins, 2010, p.40). Cohen *et al.* (2007) cite the Interpretivist view of reality as multi-layered and complex and a single phenomenon with multiple interpretations. This means that in order to verify a phenomenon, the level of understanding of that phenomenon must be structured to probe into the various unexplored dimensions of the phenomenon, instead of the regular positivist approach of establishing specific relationships among the components of the phenomenon (Kemper, 1990, p.11). Contrary to the Positivists who emphasise objectivity and detachment from respondents, Interpretivists/ Constructivists argue that reality can only be fully understood when the subjective interpretation of and intervention in that reality is employed (Collins, 2010, p.40). Studying phenomena in their natural environment therefore plays the

key role in the Interpretivists'/Constructivists' philosophy (Stahl, 2007). Also crucial to this philosophy is the acknowledgement of the fact that the researcher definitely affects the processes of study (Schwandt, 2006).

Table 9 below summarises Galliers's taxonomy of research (Galliers, 1991, pp.333-336), and lists the main aspects that help distinguish between the Positivist and Interpretivist/ Constructivist paradigms.

Positivist	Interpretivist/Constructivist
Laboratory Experiments	Subjective/Argumentative
Field Experiments	Reviews
Surveys	Action Research
Case Studies	Case Studies
Proof theory	Descriptive/Interpretive
Forecasting Futures	Research
Simulation	Role/Game Playing

Table 9: Taxonomy of research methodologies (summarised by the researcher from Galliers (1991, pp.333-336).

The research approach used for this study combines the contributions of both Interpretivism and Positivism. From the Interpretivism point of view, this research uses argumentative subjective data based on case studies and surveys, which the researcher has to interpret in order to arrive at the relevant conclusions (see 4.6.2). On the other hand, from the Positivism perspectives, the research conducts a survey to position TSPs in the UAE in terms of TQM (see 4.6.1) and provides a prospective look at how the TQM philosophy could improve practices in the future.

4.2 Research methods

Below are the research methods used in this research. The use of these methods is explained and discussed in further sections (see 4.6).

4.2.1 Quantitative Research Method

Quantitative research methods are the preferred research methods for Positivism as objective attempts to answer specific questions through analytical approaches (Della Porta and Keating, 2008, pp.31-32). Quantitative methods limit the reflection of beliefs, values and perceptions from both researchers and participants, and thus increase the credibility of the research. This is due to the reason that the expectation of the researcher is set aside due to the use of different instruments involving tests and surveys which are quantifiable and objective in nature (Balnaves and Caputi, 2001). Quantitative research is described as deductive research that uses statistical tests in order to answer the research questions. It is based on the notion that “there is a single “truth” that exists, independent of human perception” (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, cited in Harwell, 2011, p.149).

4.2.2 Qualitative Research Method

Qualitative research methods focus on discovering and understanding the experiences, thoughts and perspective of the participants of the research that provides meaning, purpose or reality (Harwell, 2011, p.149). Qualitative studies are utilised broadly in social participatory theories, based on the idea that truth is socially constructed and it could have several meanings to discover (Parylo, 2012, p.298). Different approaches can be adopted for conducting the qualitative research which involves interviews, observations and field notes (Creswell, 2003, cited in Parylo, 2012, p.298). These approaches are then analysed through specialised coding, keeping in perspective the values, ideas and beliefs of the participants. An essential element of the research process is the description of the interaction of the participant and the researcher in a naturalistic manner by minimising the boundaries in order to process and reach a fair understanding of the ideas and beliefs.

Creswell (2003, pp.39-40) argues that this is important for the reason that the same participant can provide different answers depending on the situation and the researcher. Moreover, the research design can be controversial in terms of the analysis as it can be claimed that the researcher’s ideas and beliefs are reflected in the work. Nevertheless, it is the researcher’s duty to minimise these boundaries by setting aside his/her experiences and perceptions in order to conduct an unbiased piece of research. Qualitative research is also considered as an inductive approach to research in which the research constructs theories or hypotheses, explanations, and conceptualizations from details provided by a participant (Harwell, 2011, p.149).

4.2.3 Mixed Research methods

A pragmatic approach to research is to use both qualitative and quantitative types of study by suggesting a framework that suits the research questions. According to Creswell (2003, p.12), research always occurs in social, historical, political, and other contexts. In this way, mixed methods studies might include a post-modern turn, a theoretical lens that is reflexive of social justice and political aims. This means utilizing both qualitative and quantitative study and integrating the data in order to achieve the study's purpose. Mixed methods of study have been explored by Greene (2007, p.13) who states:

The core meaning in social inquiry is to invite multiple mental models into the same inquiry space for the purposes of respectful conversation, dialog, and learning one from the other, toward a collective generation of better understanding of the phenomena being studied.

In the context of this research, the researcher was expected to study the management philosophy of TQM in the context of the translation industry by understanding different gaps in the TSPs in the UAE. It seemed appropriate therefore to use the mixed methodologies to allow the researcher to integrate the data and come up with a suggested strategy to be adopted, keeping in perspective the objective and subjective elements of the situation.

4.3 Method design

Different designs were used in the research, all with specific advantages and disadvantages. There are three basic designs that research projects can address (Sachdeva, 2009, pp.4.3-4.4; Duff, 2008, p.101; Balnaves and Caputi, 2001, p.16):

- i. Descriptive: when the research is designed primarily to describe what is going on. Descriptive research describes data and characteristics about the population or phenomenon being studied. Such researches answer the questions who, what, where, when and how, and usually the data collected can be treated by means of statistical analysis.
- ii. Relational: when the research is designed to look at the relationships between two or more variables.
- iii. Causal/Exploratory: when the research is designed to determine whether one or more variables causes or affects one or more outcome variables. Exploratory research provides insights into and comprehension of an issue or situation, and is

thus the ideal type of research when a problem has not been clearly defined and it helps to determine the best data collection method.

In order to address the research problem and answer the specific research questions, this research carried out a mixed exploratory and descriptive design (qualitative and quantitative method) as will be presented in the following sections below.

4.4 The Research Questions

In Chapter One, the overall research question was identified as being: “How to integrate all resources of a TSP in the most effective way to achieve the objectives of the organisation according to the philosophy of TQM?” It was also mentioned that the research problem was to be addressed by answering the following leading questions:

- i. How important could TQM be to translation service providers (TSPs)?
- ii. What are the processes, standards and practices which can be noticed currently in the work of TSPs in the UAE?
- iii. What are the managerial technologies and practices that are adopted in UAE TSPs to ensure translation quality?
- iv. How may the gap be bridged between the current practices and TQM?

4.5 The Research Steps

The objectives were pursued following these major research steps:

- i. Identifying the main managerial aspects of UAE TSPs – with particular focus on non-profit organisations - to provide a clearer overview of the managerial, structural and procedural aspects in relation to the management philosophy of TQM;
- ii. Studying the current management systems in non-profit TSPs in the UAE in order to determine critical success factors for TSPs in the UAE.

Points (i) and (ii) were addressed by conducting a general survey that targeted UAE freelance and in-house professional linguists.

- iii. Understanding the special management norms of the non-profit dimension in TSPs, if any, and identifying the required success factors leading towards TQM.

This was sought by studying the three selected non-profit TSPs in the UAE, namely translation departments and projects at the National Archive, Tabah, and Kalima. This was carried out through conducting semi-structured interviews with selected professionals and specified surveys with all employees of each of these three TSPs.

- iv. Evaluating the quality measures adopted at the procedural level in non-profit TSPs in the UAE, such as those used to assure the quality of translation.

The aim of this was to highlight the existing practices so as to evaluate and assess translation projects. It was assumed that this could not have been achieved without analysing procedures in place (if they happen at all). Therefore the researcher sought to study the managerial and structural practices against those adopted at the procedural level such as translation, revision, proofreading and editing. To achieve this, the researcher carried on a detailed text analysis of the revision, editing and proofreading (as they were the adopted quality control procedures of the translation projects) of certain sections from six books translated by Kalima, which is the leading case study in this research. Opting for studying the strategies in place in revision, proofreading, editing as quality assurance practices (Mossop 2014, pp.129-134; BSI 17100, 2015, pp.2-11; BSI ISO 11669, 2012, pp.11-16) was aimed at understanding the quality measures at the procedural level in the big organisational picture. This was sought on the basis that such a detailed analysis would reflect their strengths and weaknesses towards developing a feasible model for TQM for TSPs of a similar nature.

- v. Defining the management practices, strategies, and parameters that provide the basis for an operational framework for embedding TQM in non-profit TSPs in the UAE.

4.6 Methods Used

The research involved conducting a general survey (GS) and three case studies (of three non-profit TSPs in the UAE) which included interviews, specific surveys (SS) and text analysis as follows:

4.6.1 General survey (GS):

Generally speaking, a survey is a research methodology that is used to obtain data concerning practices, situations or views in any instances by employing the use of

questionnaires (McMillan and Gogia, 2014). Once these data are obtained, they can be employed to be used in quantitative analytical techniques to draw inferences regarding relationships existing within the data. Another advantage of the survey is that it presents the opportunity to study more variables at one time than is normally feasible in laboratory or field experiments, whilst data can be collected about real world environments (USC libraries, n.d.).

However, a major weakness associated with surveys is the difficulty of identifying insights relating to the causes or processes involved in the measured phenomena (Curry *et al.*, 2009). In addition, there exists a possibility of several sources of bias. These include the self-selecting nature of respondents, the particular period of time when the survey is conducted, and even extend to the researcher's design of the survey itself (Sedgwick, 2013).

The main reason behind opting for the general survey (GS) in this research was to have a general overview of the managerial, structural and cultural aspects of TSPs and the translation industry in the UAE. These aspects will be presented below. This objective was carried out by designing a survey using www.surveymonkey.net which included both qualitative and quantitative questions, addressing responses from professionals working in translation fields in the UAE.

The literature review of Chapter Three indicates that although there are different views on the organisational structure and culture for TQM, there is an inclination that it is more ideal and feasible that TQM should exist or be implemented in a horizontal (organic) structure of decentralized culture and decision-making (see 3.1.7). The general survey therefore focused on investigating the 'soft' aspects or TQM factors (see 3.2.2). This will be explained further below. It is worth noting that this survey included questions to give an indication about the other 'hard' aspects of TQM in place. This includes information about the levels of formalizations, the kind of documentations and standards. This in turn was aiming at positioning the UAE translation industries within the big picture of TQM.

As mentioned earlier, this research is exploratory and descriptive (see 4.3). The survey therefore involved 20 questions on general TQM concepts at the level of managerial, structural and procedural practices. The questions aimed at giving a general overview of the organisational structures adopted, the dominant corporate culture, information on the relevance to TQM such as leadership, employee

involvement, customer focus, teamwork, development, quality standards, and level of TQM knowledge. It also aimed at concluding common perceptions on quality of translation, the negative factors in managing translation projects (e.g., outsourcing, routine, incentives, workload), the major drivers of translation projects (e.g., profit, quality, quantity, speed in delivery, customer satisfaction), and TSPs' objectives and societal contribution (see Appendix A).

Before sending this survey to the targeted participants, it was pretested in a pilot study completed by three translation professionals on August 1st 2015. This aimed at ensuring the clarity and comprehension of the questions. The pilot study helped in amending some aspects such as changing some words and estimating an average for the time the survey required for completion. The answers of these testees were excluded from the actual survey.

To gather the information described above, the general survey (GS) therefore targeted all professionals in translation who work for TSPs in the UAE. It also addressed freelance translation professionals who are geographically outside the UAE but work remotely for these TSPs in the UAE.

The GS was circulated online via email and social media networks such as emails, Facebook, and Whatsapp to reach the targeted participants through personal connections. However, the circulation was mainly carried out through LinkedIn, whereby the relevant domain and geography could be targeted. This was carried out by narrowing down the research to reach professionals working in the translation industry in the UAE. This was followed by connecting with them, and viewing their profiles to validate their work domain as required for this study.

The LinkedIn search enabled an approach being made to 113 relevant individuals whose participation was of value to the research. The researcher then sent these professionals an email inviting them to complete the survey. This email stated that the ten-minute anonymous survey was designed to study translation departments, organisations, and projects in the UAE. The email included a hyperlink directing the participants to the survey through PCs, smart tablets and phones.

Circulation of the GS started in August 2015 and participation in the survey was open till December 2015, with the ultimate participation of 74 people.

4.6.2 Case study:

A case study is defined by Stake (1995, p.xi) as “the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances”. According to Yin (2013, p.5), the case study method is distinguished for enabling researchers to study a particular phenomenon within its surroundings in place, and this in turn allows understanding relationships which may affect their constructions.

With a case study, it is important that the researcher remains passive during the research, acting mainly as an observer (*ibid.*, p.111). Another key aspect when using this research method is to remember that, even in a multi-subject case, each case must be treated individually; only after all data have been collected may the researcher inter-cross data so that relevant comparative conclusions can be drawn (Simons, 2009).

On these bases, case studies were chosen to enable testing whether the selected non-profit TSPs provide criteria for benchmarking and guiding similar organisations towards an effective and efficient implementation of TQM.

As mentioned in Chapter One, the research gap being addressed is how to integrate all resources in translation service providers (TSP) in the most effective way and according to the principles of Total Quality Management (TQM) in view of achieving the objectives of the organisation. This research was developed specifically as applies to three non-profit translation service providers in the UAE, namely the translation department at the National Archive, the translation projects at Tabah, and the Kalima translation project. This aimed at developing conclusions and providing the basis for a novel TQM framework that could be applied by other TSPs of a similar nature. Further details about the three selected TSPs are provided in Chapter Five (see 5.4.1, 5.4.2 and 5.4.3).

It could be assumed, at the early stages of this research, that Kalima has established structural norms and a quality management system for the translation process towards achieving its objectives that can be studied and analysed according to its relevance to aspects of TQM. One of the reasons behind this assumption is that Kalima was founded in 2007 and translates a huge number of publications (900 books) in record time. The website of Kalima does not reveal much information about its organisational structure, quality management systems or the workflow of

translation. However, an informal visit to Kalima in 2010 gave the impression that Kalima has established specific management practices in pursuit of its objectives.

In addition to Kalima, the researcher approached three other prominent government-funded TSPs, of which two agreed to participate in the study: the translation department at the National Archive and the translation projects at Taba foundation. The selection of the approached TSPs was within the determined scope of this research in terms of non-profitability, being funded by the government of UAE, and having an agenda within its established strategy to translate publications or internally researched studies from English to Arabic.

It is worth noting that Kalima is the only government-funded non-profit TSP in the UAE. There were other similar government initiatives such as *Tarjem* and *Tarjuman* (His Highness Sheikh Mohammed Bin Rashid Al Maktoum, 2007) but they are no longer active. The other non-profit TSPs were found as departments within non-profit government entities specialising in research studies. The other two TSPs are the translation department at the National Archive (NA) and the translation projects at the Tabah Foundation (see 5.4).

Studying Kalima as the leading case study beside the other two translation departments in this research helped towards understanding specific aspects of non-profit TSPs in the UAE and the relevance of applying TQM to their context. That is because this research had access that enabled analysis of the quality control procedures in place (see 4.6.2.3).

Therefore the case studies on three non-profit and government-funded TSPs in the UAE, were carried out as follows:

4.6.2.1 Interviews:

For its exploratory and descriptive nature, this study included conducting semi-structured anonymised interviews with professionals and linguists in all of the three TSPs in order to collect as much information as possible about the organisations in terms of managerial practices. Galliers states that interviews “provide a reasonably accurate description of real world situations from a variety of viewpoints” (Galliers 1991, pp.333-334). ‘Semi-structured interview’ refers to an open, flexible conversational interview that covers specific questions and allows two-way

communication (Collins, 2010, p.134). The open nature therefore allows the interviewer to probe further, based on certain responses, unlike in structured interviews in which the restrictions are presented by a predefined framework of proceedings.

In the context of TQM, the interview question attempted to retrieve information about the organisational perception of quality, managerial practices to maintain quality of translation as a product and processes such as translation guidelines, ISO certification, revision strategies, employment of technology (see Appendix C). The selection of these participants was planned to include both managers and other professionals who are relevant to decision-making and can influence different aspects of translation processes and efforts towards achieving the organisation's objectives, and also linguists who translate, revise, proofread, and edit.

However, despite receiving official approval from the three organisations to conduct anonymous interviews, the participation of employees was found to be optional. Some of the targeted professionals were in favour of limiting their participation to the specified surveys (SSs) only, while others refrained from participation altogether. This affected the consistency of participation among the three organisations, which in turn did not allow a descriptive analogy from the data received. It also limited the potentiality of drawing comparative conclusions among the three TSPs. The interviews covered in the three case studies were as presented in Table 10, as follows:

Interview Participants (IP)	The National Archive (NA)	Tabah Foundation	Kalima
1	Project Manager (IP1)	Project manager (IP2)	Senior editor with occasional Project Management duties (IP4)
2		Freelance translator (IP3)	Freelance translator (IP5)
3			Freelance translation reviser and editor (IP6)

4	In-house senior proofreader (IP7)
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Table 10: Interview participants from the three TSPs under study

Since most of the freelance professionals were geographically distributed, i.e., they cooperate with these UAE based TSPs while actually being located in different countries such as Jordan, Oman, and Germany, conducting the interviews with those the researcher could get hold of would have been suitable by using online video call applications such as Skype; but they preferred to receive the interview questions via email and send them back in a written form to the researcher, and did not mind any further questions on their answers via email. This option limited the benefits of the semi-structured interview that had been chosen for allowing an open two-way communication for the interviewees to express themselves (Collins, 2010, p.134).

4.6.2.2 Specified surveys (SS):

The specified survey targeted all employees in the three TSPs in order to gain more insight into how translation projects are managed with relevance to TQM and balance the views concluded in the interviews. It was designed using Bristol Online Surveys. This survey was pretested in a pilot study by sending it to three professional translators whose feedback helped clarify certain areas such as statements. Yet their answers were excluded from the study.

The questions of the SS addressed the technical aspects of the process of translation such as revision and editing, especially those raised by the initial text analysis preceding the SS of Kalima's texts. SS tried to uncover the existing and requisite aspects of TQM. It also tried to reflect the TSPs' readiness to integrate TQM's aspects with the management and other resources of the organisations so as to achieve the TSPs' objectives (see Appendix B). SSs were sent through a hyperlink to the participating TSP departments to circulate to their in-house and freelance linguists and all employees who work for their translation projects.

4.6.2.3 Text-analysis:

As presented in Chapter Two, TSPs aim at providing translated content within regulated stages and processes (see 2.2.4). Arguably, the translated content undergoes in-process quality control procedures that are built on an established

framework that defines the organisation's objectives and perception of translation quality. Identifying how quality is viewed through the procedural level was therefore one of the important priorities of this research in order to identify the existing error typology and parameters, and in order to assist in identifying the critical success factors for implementing TQM in TSPs.

Hoover (2013) states that text analysis reveals the intra-linguistic aspects involved in the translation process, and these aspects are in both ST and TT. Snell-Hornby (1988, p.31) proposed two fundamental models of text analysis, namely, "from lower linguistic levels to higher linguistic levels" and "from higher linguistic levels to lower linguistic levels". The first model analyses text from the lower levels progressively to the higher levels until the highest level which is referred to as the textual level (i.e., from lexical level, syntactical level, to textual level, respectively). However, the second model carries out analysis from the higher linguistic levels down to the lowest level.

The primary step in text analysis is contextualisation, which comprises four different aspects (Fetzer and Oishi, 2011). Firstly, there is specialisation in text topology; secondly, specialising in the specific topic of the source material; thirdly, determining the kind of material being translated, whether oral or written discourse; and fourthly, the relationship nurtured between the writer of the source material and the targeted audience. In the context of this research, text analysis therefore is an information-gathering technique aimed at studying the decision-makings of translation professionals (translators, revisers, proofreaders, etc.) based on their experience, knowledge and conceptions related to text and translation production.

As mentioned earlier, Kalima was selected to be studied in-depth. Furthermore, in order to achieve an adequate generalisability for its quality control procedures (proofreading, editing, and revising based on Kalima's workflow), the researcher asked Kalima to provide books that had been translated, proofread, edited and revised by different translators, proofreaders and revisers (versions at the end of each stage). Kalima provided drafts of six books of which three hardcopies of three books are marked with the corrections and comments of the proofreaders and editors, whereas six drafts of the other three books are sent by email, each before and after revision. However, the selection of these books was not based on text-type or genre, but rather it was a matter of availability and access to Kalima for the

proofreading and editing drafts, while based on their evaluation of very good, good and bad translation for revision. Yet the basis of this evaluation is not clear (see Chapters Six and Seven).

The text-analysis of the six books was as follows:

a. Proofreading and editing:

This includes studying the proofreading and editing strategies adopted by Kalima through carrying out a text-analysis and comparing changes and corrections by the proofreaders and editors of the full three translated books of two versions: before and after proofreading and editing. This analysis aimed at studying the proofreading and editing strategies and evaluating their proofreading errors typology. It is worth noting that proofreading and editing are put into one category as the archived proofread versions include the editors' changes as well.

Since this analysis is carried out for exploratory and descriptive reasons, the analysis was performed through tracking marked changes, corrections and comments in red pen by the proofreader and in blue pen by the editor. After tracking these changes, the researcher was able to identify common areas of typologies which all fall under lexis, syntax, textual and stylistic choices, and orthography.

b. Revising:

Revision aimed at studying the revising strategies adopted by Kalima. This was carried out by text-analysing the revision process carried out in revising a sample of three translated books by Kalima's revisers in two versions: before and after revision. Unlike the proofread drafts, revision drafts were not tracked nor marked with the revisers' changes. Rather, Kalima provided drafts of three books (before and after revision) in electronic copies in Microsoft Word format. The researcher opted for analysing the revision process based on tracking changes applied between the two versions according to Mossop's (2014, p.135) four revising parameters, namely (1) transfer, (2) content, (3) language and (4) presentation. This, in turn, helped in studying the adopted procedural practices to achieve high translation quality or 'a good translation' in Kalima's perspective. This would possibly reflect the role of procedural aspects within TQM as a management philosophy to achieve the objectives of Kalima in particular, but which may arguably be also applicable to other similar translation organisations in general.

4.6.3 Action research

Action research helps achieve a foundation for a theoretical framework in organisations based on developed results of practical value (Azhar, 2016, p. 226). The solutions and guidelines provided are based on existing situations (Denscombe, 2014, p.7).

According to the literature review presented in Chapters Two and Three and by applying the research methods presented in this chapter (see 4.6), the researcher in this regard attempted to determine the critical success factors towards implementing TQM in non-profit TSPs in UAE.

The main goal behind using this mixed method approach was to draw sufficient conclusions to adequately evaluate quality management practices, and to understand the dynamics of the organisational structure and environment in the selected non-profit TSPs in the UAE. This in turn allowed the researcher to determine a possible way in which TQM systems could be implemented in TSPs in the UAE similar to the TSPs studied in this research, as well as to indicate the validity of applying this management philosophy to the quality of translation by testing the product [translation] against the existing quality measures of revision and evaluation (see Chapter Eight).

4.7 Reflection on the implications of the findings for implementing TQM

The possibility of applying TQM to non-profit TSPs is investigated, as all of the three TSPs studied are not business oriented and are non-profit. As stated before (see 3.1.3 and 3.2.5.2), the primary objective of an organisation (independently of its profit or non-profit driver) is to meet the needs of its ‘customers’ by providing quality goods and services, and to continually improve them. In the non-profit TSPs context, therefore, customers include not only the direct recipients of services, such as clients, but the organisation’s board, elected and appointed government officials, the media, and the general public.

In this sense, it is of much value to research how TQM processes are viewed from within the organisations, and what is the perceived and true value that TQM brings to translation service providers such as those being the target-case studies in this research.

To sum up, the analysis of the collected data centres on the principles of TQM which are presented and discussed in Chapter Three of this research. This will allow discovery of the current practices in the non-profit TSPs being studied in relation to TQM and thus determining the most suitable TQM framework or model of implementation. With regard to implementing TQM, Packard (1995, p.218) states that “A preliminary step in TQM implementation is to assess the organisation's current reality. Relevant preconditions have to do with the organisation's history, its current needs, precipitating events leading to TQM, and the existing employee quality of working life”. It will be difficult before this step to choose the most suitable TQM model. Determining the kind of model to adopt will rely on the information the researcher receives or concludes from the three TSPs about their nature, size and objectives (Hansson, 2003; Reed *et al.*, 2000; Yusof and Aspinwall, 2000a; Shin *et al.*, 2000). Although TQM models and strategies of implementation are various, they hold the general principles and elements on which the preliminary assessment can be conducted that centre mainly on customer orientation, involvement of everyone and teamwork, processes orientation, improving structure, committed management, continuous improvement and learning (Evans and Lindsay, 2016; Oakland, 2004; Hansson, 2003).

5 Chapter Five: General survey and case studies analysis

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and studies quality management practices in TSPs in the UAE. This is carried out by means of (1) a general survey (GS), collected between August and December 2015, to explore various domains in the translation industry in the UAE (see 5.3). It identifies elements in the organisational management such as their structure, managerial practices, employee training, and motivational factors; (2) and specified surveys (SS) and interviews for three government-funded non-profit TSPs in the UAE, namely: the National Archive (NA), the Tabah Foundation, and the Kalima Project – a primary study for this research (see 5.4). The responses of the specified surveys were collected between April and December 2014.

5.2 Methods of inquiry

The general survey has been created based on survey questions, both qualitative and quantitative, and sent to a group of translation professionals that work in the UAE translation industry. The survey was circulated online through LinkedIn connections and emails. The invitation to the survey made sure that the targeted participants are those who work in translation fields and projects in the UAE. There were 74 responses offering participation in the survey.

To have a general understanding of the translation processes and practices, the research studies three of the main government-funded non-profit TSPs in the UAE. This was carried out by conducting specified surveys and semi-structured interviews. The specified surveys and interviews include questions related to translation guidelines, ISO certification, revision processes, practices to maintain quality, and technology used in the translation processes. The organisations requested the link for the specified survey to be sent to them by email so they could send it to their employees. The interviews are conducted in two modes, at the convenience of the interviewees: in person and by email. As presented earlier in Chapter Four (see Table 10), this covers seven interviewees with different roles as presented in more detail below.

Kalima, as the primary case study in this research, is scrutinized further by conducting a detailed text-analysis of its revision, proofreading and editing procedures (see Chapters Six and Seven).

5.3 Findings and results: general survey

This project consisted of a survey of 74 translation professionals in the UAE. Of these, two (2.7%) work in local non-profit translation organisations, five (6.8%) in for-profit local translation organisations. Six (8.1%) were members of a multinational publishing and translational firm; ten (13.5%) belonged to national firms. Nine (12.2%) said they worked freelance. The majority of the general survey participants (GSPs) were based in non-profit government entities, totalling 33 (44.6%). The distribution of the participants is illustrated below (Figure 3).

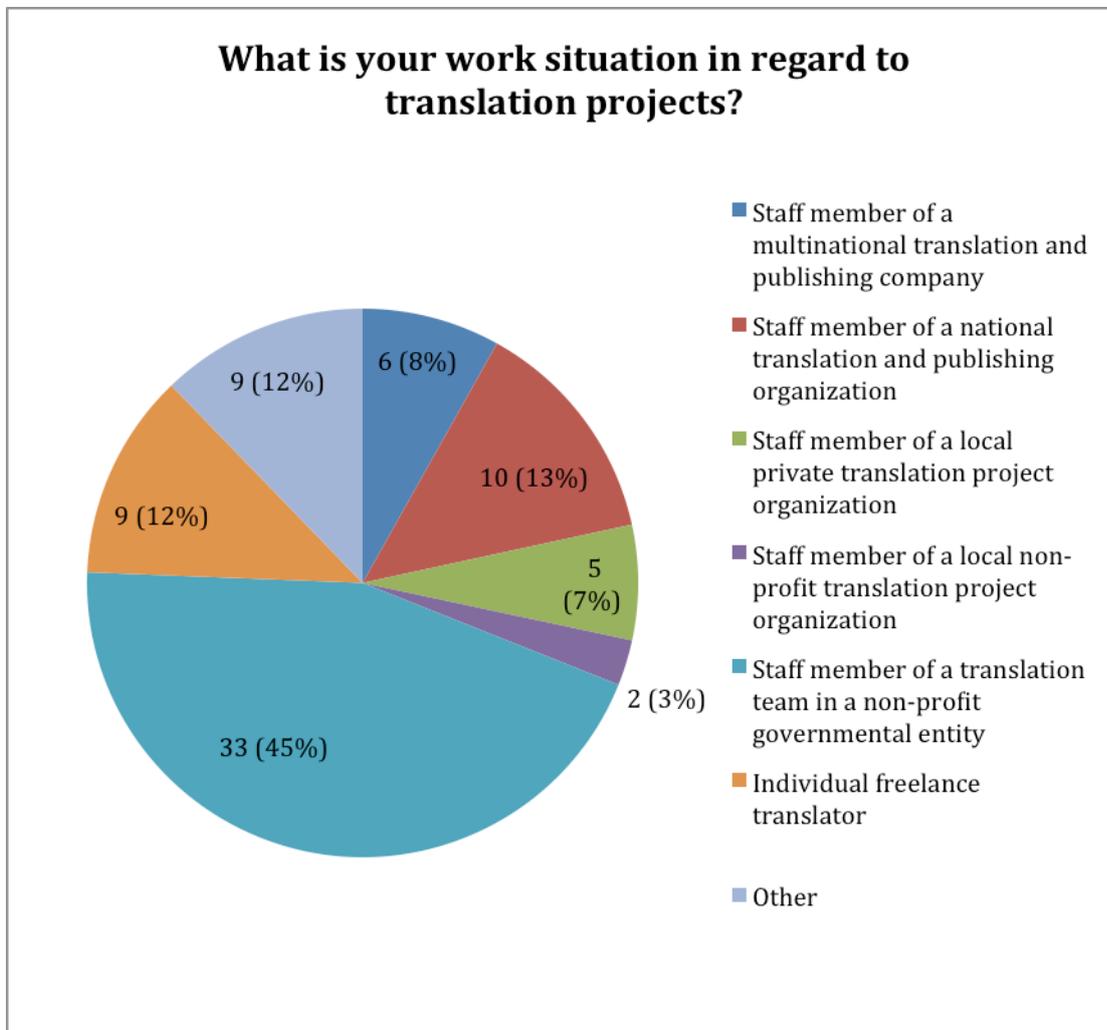


Figure 3: UAE GSPs' employment status

5.3.1 Critical Success Factors influencing the TQM in the UAE TSPs

5.3.1.1 Organisational Culture:

5.3.1.1.1 Organisational Structure

Organisational structure is an important factor that forms the organisational culture of the company and reflects the value-based choices a company makes based on different internal and external situations (Quinn, 1991, p.46). According to Quinn's (1991) competing value model, various values influence the structure of the organisation. One of these values is the control-flexibility dimension that consolidates the management and is controlled centrally by the managers. The structure forms more of a centralized organisational practice where coordination and problem-resolution occurs at a higher level of organisational hierarchy. Employees at lower levels of organisational structure are less likely to identify a problem or, even if they do, they are not authorized to correct it without approvals from the higher management (Liu *et al.*, 1990, p.11). On the other hand, companies with a flexibility-oriented value system decentralize the decision making by breaking down the work structure and making people more responsible for their tasks. This helps in solving the problem at the point where it occurs (Burns and Stalker, 2000, p.27). At the same time, decision-making is given to employees who are trained to find the problem and suggest the solutions in the cross-functional teams and are thus less dependent on the vertical structure. This structure is also referred to as 'horizontal structure' or 'flat structure' which has minimal layers of management, and employees work in groups and teams to develop innovative ideas and provide input for organisational development. This means that the employees are inter-related, well coordinated and more flexible. Studies suggest a correlation between a successful implementation of TQM in opting for horizontal organisational structure (Fojt 1996, p.66; Tata *et al.*, 1999, p. 450). Further, Laza and Wheaton (1990, p.20-21) indicate that evaluating the organisational structure is important for moving towards TQM. Literature on TQM (see Chapter Three) suggests that a working environment that is characterised by employees' empowerment and involvement, cross-functional teams, communication, continuous improvement, flexibility and continuous learning would fit more into horizontal, flat and organic structures (see

3.1.7 and 3.2.5.11). This in turn is characterised by fewer forms of hierarchy, bureaucracies and control. However, in their research, Moore and Brown (2006, pp.737-738) proved that TQM can successfully be implemented in both vertical and horizontal structures, as success is tied to other factors such as balancing quality components and the extent of organisational maturity in terms of TQM.

Thus, it is important for the companies to undergo self-diagnosis to implement TQM for its internal culture and identify how implementing TQM will help in improving the work.

In the current analysis, participants were asked a few questions to review the organisational culture in the TSPs in the UAE in order to have a general idea about decision-making. As shown in the chart below (Figure 4), the study revealed that 45 (60.8%) responded as ‘Vertical – top-down’ while 29 (39.2%) described it as ‘Horizontal’. This suggests that most of the companies are perceived to have a vertical top-down management approach in which the decision making process is focused at the top management levels of the organisations and implementation is passed down the corporate ladder. The organisations are typically thought to have a hierarchical structure.

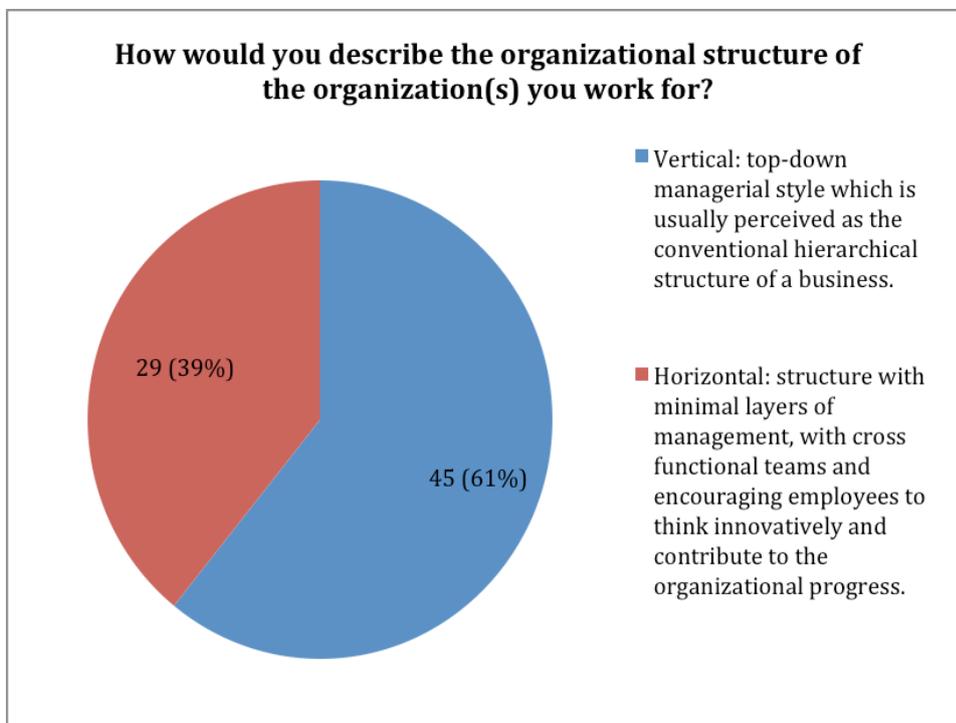


Figure 4: Organisational structure of TSPs in the UAE

The following question was whether the decision-making process in the organisations was centralized or decentralized, as presented below (Figure 5). Corresponding to the previous question, 46 (62.2%) responded 'Centralized' while 28 (37.8%) said 'Decentralized'. This again suggests that in most of the organisations decision-making is viewed as 'Centralized' where power is constituted at the top levels of management or held by a selected few individuals. This data is in agreement with the first question which also shows the majority of the organisations perceived as having vertical structure. 'Decentralized' decision-making is one where lower-level- management have equal opportunity to contribute ideas resulting in a participative and interactive workflow. The flow of communication is open and free, while the decision-making process is relatively fast.

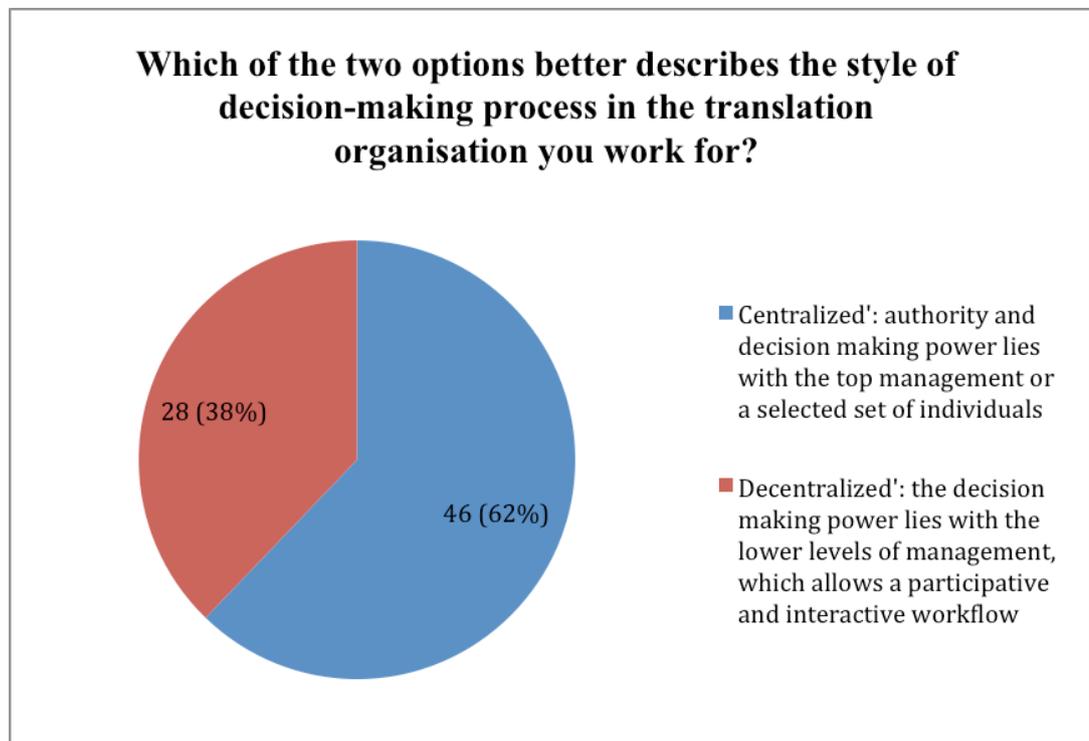


Figure 5: Style of decision-making process in TSPs in the UAE

The study shows that ten (34%) of the participants of the horizontal-structured organisations see their organisation as adopting a centralized decision-making style of management, whereas 19 (66%) said they are 'decentralized'. On the other hand, in the vertical-structured organisations, 36 (80%) said their decision-making style is better described as 'centralized', while nine (20%) described it as 'decentralized'. This is in agreement with Moore and Brown's study (2006, p.737), which suggests that soft components of TQM such as open culture of communication, cross-

functional teams, and employee empowerment may exist in both horizontal and vertical structures (see 3.1.7).

5.3.1.2 Aspects of Quality Work

5.3.1.2.1 Time Management

According to the PMBOK[®] guide (PMI, 2013, p.32), a project can easily be defined as a process that has clear starting and ending dates and that goes through extensive phases of project management to achieve continuous success in its implementation phases. One of the major problems faced by the TSPs and clients is time-efficiency. In the current setting of a highly demanding and growing translation industry, TSPs are unable to assess the constraints that accompany the translation project. Clients can come up with tough deadlines and an unclear project scope, not necessarily intentionally, but most probably for the reason that they do not understand what the whole process entails. And in the current competitive market, Sikes (2007) is of the view that TSPs face the challenge of rejecting projects. The response to any request is a positive one by default even if it poses high risks as regards reliability, customer-focus, efficiency and effectiveness. Thus, it is important to understand the most common constraints or problems that attract the highest priority among the participants of the TSPs in the UAE so as to suggest factors for TQM implementation. To this end, participants were asked to prioritise the factors to be improved in the current settings of the workplace by investing highly in them.

Figure 6 below shows that the highest priority was given to “Efficiency” and “Reliability” followed by effectiveness, customer-focus and innovation. In the graph, “1” represents the “most important”, thus the lower the bar graph the higher the choice of participants. It is probably important to highlight the distinction between some of these aspects before analysing the results. Reliability refers to the ability to work and function within the specified time and circumstances (Jain, 2006, p.191). Innovation is about “making meaningful change to improve an organization’s products, services, and processes, and create new value for the organization’s stakeholders” (Besterfield *et al.*, 2011, p.33).

Efficiency and effectiveness are two separate terms, although they may be used interchangeably (Kondalkar, 2009). Efficiency means “doing things right” (Suganthi and Samuel, 2011, p.9) and it is determined by the “level of output an organization achieves with its limited resources” (Kondalkar, 2009, p.1). Effectiveness, on the

other hand, refers to “doing right things” in terms of fulfilling the expected objectives and results (Suganthi and Samuel, 2011, p.9; Kondalkar, 2009, p.1).

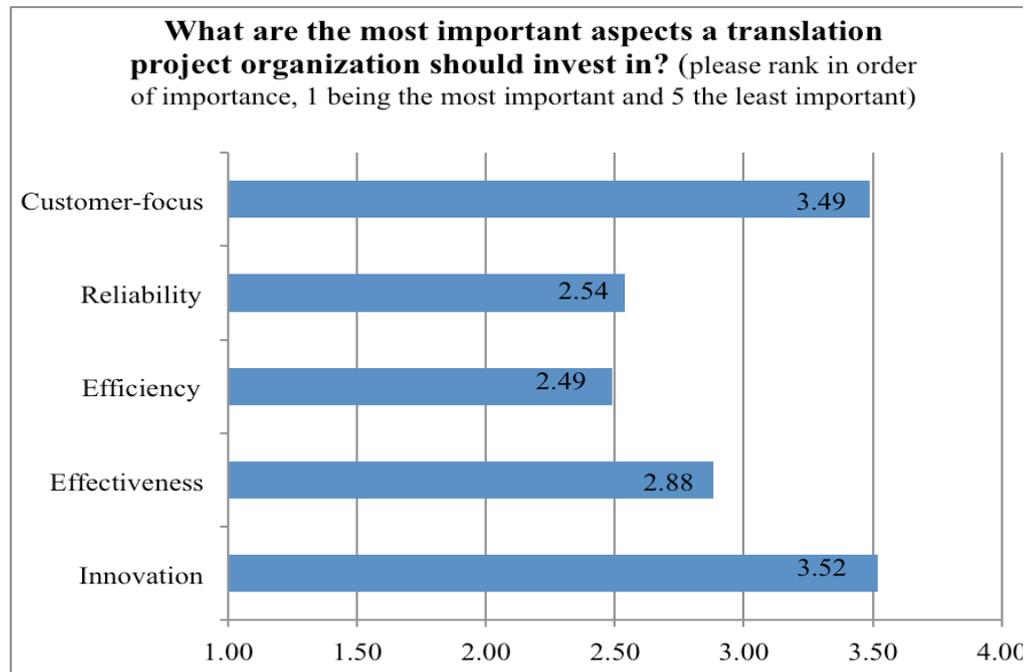


Figure 6: The most important aspects in which TSPs in the UAE invested

Based on the results shown (Figure 6), improvement in efficiency in TSPs therefore means that projects need to be completed and delivered on time. The translation project manager in such cases should hold the responsibility and have the courage to resist the temptation to accept projects with unrealistic scenarios. A proper time management strategy should be employed for each project: one that takes in hand the initiation, planning, implementation, execution and control phases of the project as detailed by the PMBOK[®] (PMI, 2013, p.21). This becomes one of the challenging issues when the targeted number of projects is not balanced against available resources.

5.3.1.2.2 Customer Focus

The literature (Samson and Terziowski, 1999; McNally, 1993; Kaynak, 2003) has extensively covered customer focus or customer management as a vital element of maintaining TQM in the service industries. According to Kaynak (2003, p.427), customer involvement, customer focus, customer satisfaction orientation, benchmarking, and communication are critical factors for achieving high quality in process management. However, it is important to define quality from an external

customer's perspectives, which involve his/her expectations, requirements and needs (Mahboob *et al.*, 2015 p.21) in order to benchmark the standards. The element of customer focus has taken on much importance in this highly competitive world. The importance of customer focus is tempered when it comes to non-profit TSPs in the UAE like Kalima and the translation department at the National Archive (NA), who are concerned more with public service, supporting translation, increasing Arabic production, exchanging knowledge and other societal and non-profitable goals. Nevertheless, it is established widely in the context of the literature that quality means not merely sticking to the guidelines and norms of the processes; rather it is customer satisfaction that should be of deep concern for continuous improvement (BSI ISO 9000, 2015). Relationships between employees and customers are found to be stronger in small and medium-sized enterprises, according to Ahire and Golhar (1996, p.4) for the reason that small companies are more focused with less workload and are enthusiastic to maximise customer satisfaction. However, this is not always the case in TSPs.

To further explore the driving aspects in translation projects, survey participants were asked to suggest the highest driving factors for the TSPs in the UAE (Figure 7).



Figure 7: The main drivers of TSPs in the UAE

The results reveal that “Quality” stood first at 41 (55.4%), “Customer Satisfaction” second at 36 (48.6%) followed by “Speed in Delivery” and “Profit” at 22 (29.7%) each. This may perhaps indicate that respondents are aware of some of the priorities shared by TQM practices, given that quality and customer satisfaction are

considered high priority choices. However, an important element for consideration here is that most of the participants are working in non-profit government TSPs, which makes it clear that for them the quantity of the project in the cause of profitability cannot be the right choice. In the absence of the profit aspect and commission of service by customers in such TSPs, translation should still comply with certain criteria to meet specifications set by commissioners (management) and satisfy the targeted audience who, to some extent, are equal to “customers” in this context.

5.3.1.2.3 *Employee Involvement*

The concept of TQM stresses the empowerment of employees to make decisions based on their experience, intelligence and situation (Mustafa Pulat, 1994a, p.45; Bowen and Lawler, 1992, p.40; Wilkinson *et al.*, 1992, p.18). It establishes an open culture that allows more cross-functional coordination and teamwork. However, it can be queried whether TSPs’ nature accepts the notion of decentralizing the decision-making process. The question was further explored through the general survey questions, where translators were asked how much they felt that they actively contributed to the translation project process. The responses are shown below (Figure 8):

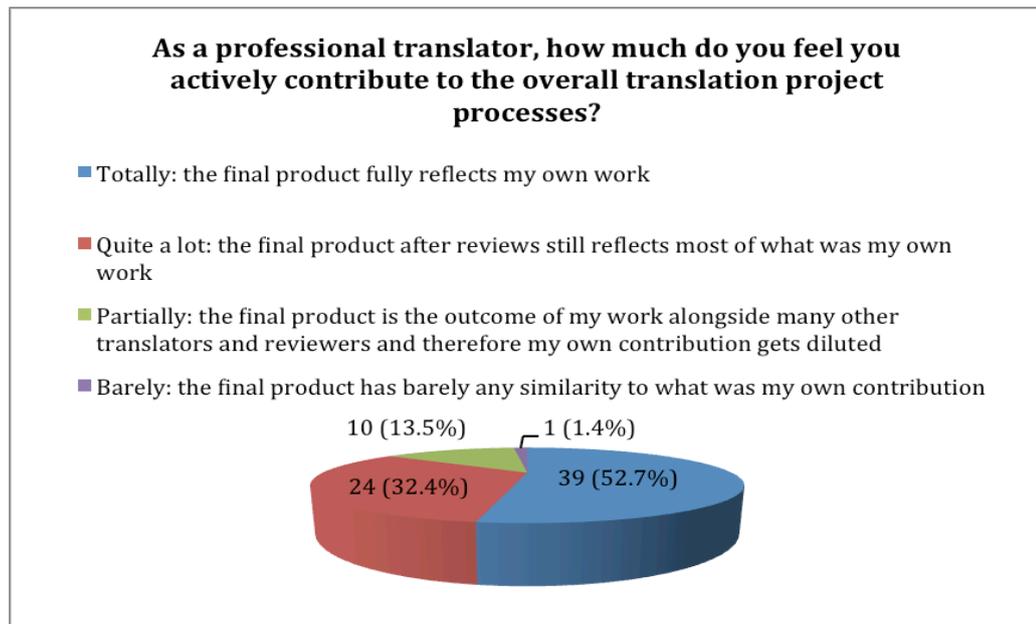


Figure 8: Translators' contributions to the overall translation project process in TSPs in the UAE

A majority of 39 responses (52.7%) chose ‘Totally: the final product fully reflects my own work’. 24 responses (32.4%) said ‘Quite a lot’, ten responses (13.5%) said ‘Partially’, and one response (1.4%) said ‘Barely: the final product barely has any similarity to what was my own contribution’ and 0% for ‘Not at all: the final product mainly relies on a machine’.

How employees feel about their contribution to a given task reflects the presence of empowerment practices (Lu and Sohal, 1993; Mosadeghard, 2012). These results may indicate that most of the TSPs have empowered their employees to be accountable for their contribution and input.

5.3.1.2.4 Standards of Translation

According to Mustafa Pulat (1994b, p.40), benchmarking is a highly useful and successful approach for improving the quality of the work. This is due to the reason that it allows employees to be more coordinated for a project, focused on their goals and attentive to meeting the specific objectives of the project. Reverdy (2006, pp.26-28) suggests that setting a criterion based on ISO or other standards provides a unique opportunity for the TSPs to easily distinguish themselves in the competitive market, providing a genuine and authentic mode of operations and management style. Furthermore, certification and following a specific standard brings more effectiveness to the work.

Different standards of translation are practiced in different countries and participants were asked for the standards they follow: a wide range of responses was selected and 35 (51%) chose the option ‘Other’, as shown in Figure 9 below. Fourteen of these responses wrote ‘none’, and another 14 responses state that they do not know if there are standards in place, whereas the other seven respondents specified the following standards: OHSAS 18001 (international standards provide a management system for occupational health and safety), ISO 14001 (international standards that specify the requirements for organisations to set a systematic environmental management system), PAS 99 (a management system standards that helps organisations to increase their efficiency through adopting integrated management systems), and ISO 27001 (an international standards document that sets requirements for information security management).

The graph (Figure 9) below shows that 31 (42%) of the responses selected ISO 9001:2008 (revised in 2015), which specifies the requirements for a quality

management system in all organisations regardless of its type or industry. On the other hand, localisation-specific standards such as ISO/TS 11669:2012 (general guidance for translation projects) and EN 15038:2006 (quality standards for TSPs) were selected by three and eight participants, respectively (4% and 11%). Interestingly, ISO 17100: 2015 (requirements for translation services) which replaced EN 15038:2006 (quality standards for TSPs) and was published on May 1st 2015, i.e. three months prior to circulating the survey, was selected by seven people (10%). This may either indicate that the TSPs they work for are efficient in updating their management systems in line with quality standards, or may put the credibility of the responses of this section in question.

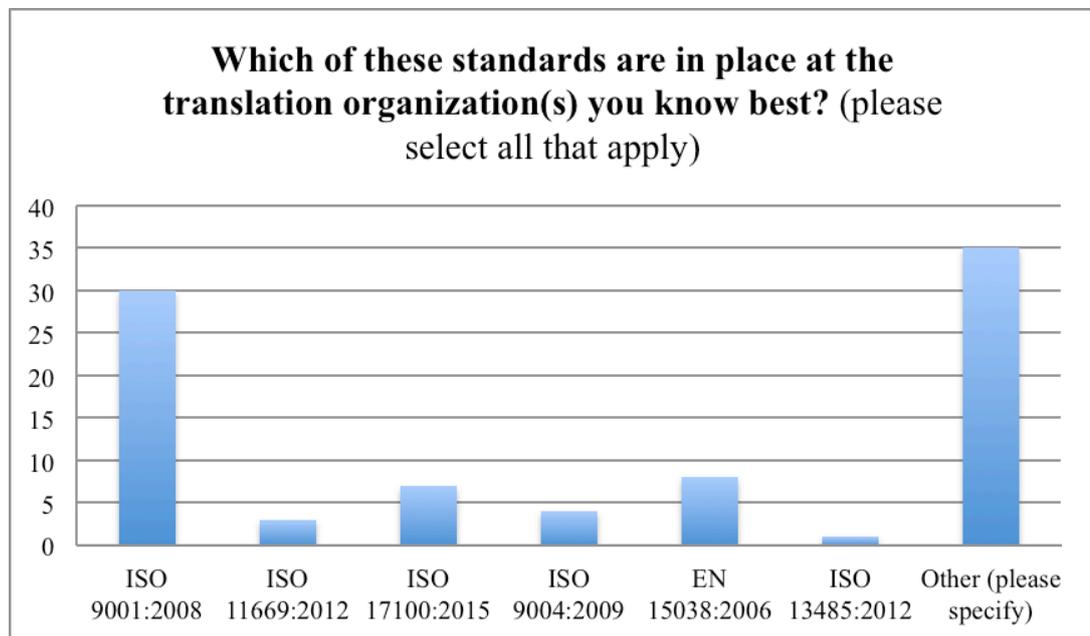


Figure 9: Standards in TSPs in the UAE

5.3.1.2.5 Training and Education

Ahire *et al.* (1996, p.32) is of the view that empowerment of the employees to take decisions is not valid unless they have attained professional and systematic training in quality management. This is certainly acceptable in a translation industry requiring high competences and skills. Training and education helps an employee to learn new things, understand the changing environment of the industry, advance in the technology and thus, overall, enhance the quality of the process (Jehanzeb and Bashir, 2013, pp. 246-247). In their empirical study, Khan *et al.* (2011, p.67)

conclude that “training and development is basically directly related to the employee, but its ultimate effect goes to the organisation because the end-user is the organisation itself”. Work on the cognitive underpinnings of the translation process and the development of translation expertise by Shreve (2002) and Shreve and Angelone (2010), for example, underscores the importance of factors such as deliberate practice, acquisition history, the knowledge accumulation process, cognitive changes occurring in the learning process and differences between novices and experts, among others. Understanding such factors is not only crucial for the development of effective approaches to translation pedagogy and translator training, but also suggests strategies that project managers can adopt to foster successful project outcomes such as encouraging feedback and discussion between experts and those at entry-level and setting up training plans. Nevertheless, this raises the question of the training and education of the freelancers over whom organisations have less control and access as regards developing them professionally. This is a highly probable circumstance in those TSPs where most of the work is outsourced. In such scenarios, a stricter and authenticated guideline should be implemented that evaluates the freelancer based on his/her competency/knowledge before assigning the work, as in this case improvement is his/her own responsibility.

For the current research, the employees were asked to rank the factors that are affecting negatively the quality process of translation. The results presented in Figure 10 indicate that these are more precisely related to a personal level that includes personal development as the most highly agreed upon factor, followed by lack of incentives for the translators. Further, there are no or at least few incentives to achieve a specific objective or milestone, something that demotivates translators from making any extra effort and thus negatively affect the results of the project. Therefore it is quite clear from the survey that the importance of training and education are highly acceptable criteria for the participants and they see a great scope for improvement there.

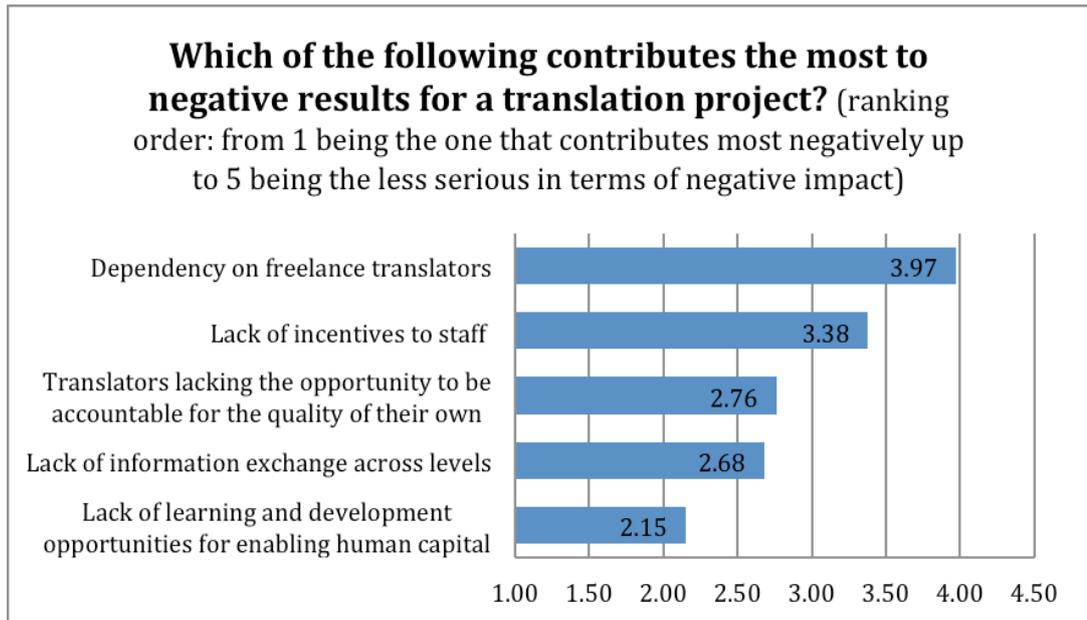


Figure 10: The most negative factors for translation projects in TSPs in the UAE

When asked about the quality aspects of the translation project, most survey participants prioritised ‘level of expertise of human resources’ as the first choice, followed by ‘work allocation’ and ‘linguistic diversity among translators’. Later came ‘specialism’, ‘standards’ and finally ‘quality aspects of translation organisations’ (Figure 11).

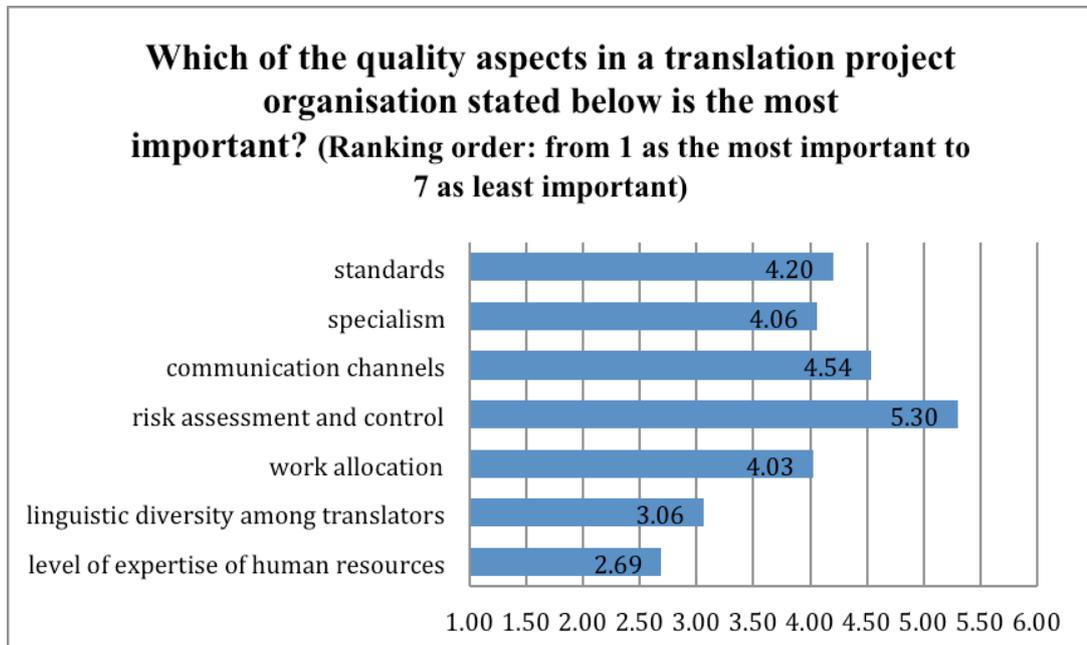


Figure 11: The most important quality aspects in TSPs in the UAE

These results give an insight into how translators think since ‘experience’ is prioritised as a quality indicator, while ‘specialism’ in the subject matter is not considered to be as important as other aspects.

5.4 Individual Findings of TSPs in the UAE

To have a deeper understanding of translation process at non-profit TSPs in the UAE, semi-structured interviews were conducted with seven participants, namely: (1) the National Archive (NA), (2) the Tabah Foundation, and (3) Kalima. These interviews were conducted one-on-one and via emails (upon the request of some interviewees). To balance views between the managerial and procedural levels, and have more insightful comprehension of the managerial practices and specific conventions related to the nature of such TSPs, the interviews were followed by a specified survey (SS) for each of these organisations. This survey was sent in an online link to be circulated internally via the management of the organisations to all translation-related employees. This includes managers, administrators, translators, revisers, editors, proofreaders and copywriters. The responses from the specified survey participants (SSPs) were 13 out of 14 from the translation department at the National archive, none out of three targeted employees from the Tabah Foundation, and 14 out of 206 employees (Kalima has six in-house employees and deals with 200 freelance translators and revisers).

The current analysis was specifically conducted on the national archive (NA), the Tabah Foundation, and Kalima to overview working style, organisational structure, processing, management and quality control in order to analyse the importance of quality given to these projects. The researcher has combined the interview analysis and the specified survey (SS) conducted among the employees under different quality factors and detailed in the next section. Combining both interviews and specified surveys for each organisation in one analysis attempts to give a thorough analysis of each TSP as a separate case study. This aims at validating the interview results by means of the SS answers and vice versa, while at the same time establishing an argument based on the analysed data from each case study.

5.4.1 NATIONAL ARCHIVE (NA)

About the National Archive

The National Centre for Documentation and Research (NCDR), often referred to as the National Archive, is the official documentation and research entity in Abu Dhabi (NCDR, 2014). It was the result of the issuance of Federal law no.7 dating from 2008, “which led to transforming the Center for Documentation and Research into an all-out national entity, the NCDR” (2013, p.12). The NCDR is the official body entrusted with the collection of all sorts of documents from all governmental bodies, and with the archiving thereof as per scientific rules in this field so that they can be used in ways realizing the public interest (NCDR, 2014). It undertakes historical studies and publishes a wide variety of materials. These include research related to the UAE and the Arabian Peninsula, Arabic translations of historical works, and an in-house journal (ibid.) Furthermore, the National Archive is involved in collecting human memories related to life in the UAE that pre-date the written word and undertakes translation of documents on Gulf history, research publications, reports, books, and other specialised studies (ibid.)

The translation department specialises in translating documents on Gulf history from English to Arabic and Arabic to English, as well as from other languages used in the Centre’s archives into Arabic, in order to facilitate researchers in their consultations of primary source materials. The department also undertakes translation of research publications, reports, books, and other specialised studies (NCDR, 2014).

About the interview participant

The interviewee (IP1) is a highly experienced Arab female translation project manager at the NA who has 35 years of experience in translation, project management and editing.

When asked about the scope the kind of work they translate, she responded: “Archiving and documenting UAE history; translating books, research papers etc. relating to our mission, which is preserving the documentary heritage of the Nation to provide decision makers and the public with trusted information, and to enhance civic spirit and national identity”.

As shown in Figure 12 below, NA is found to have in-house full-time translators, revisers, proofreaders and editors. Among the 13 respondents 12 were in-house while only one was freelance. Similarly, when NA's SSPs were asked about their roles in the department, they were found to have varied roles including project managers, translators, proofreaders and editors. This signals clearly defined organisational roles and a more focused strategy for working within the TSP. However, further quality concerns are discussed in the section below.

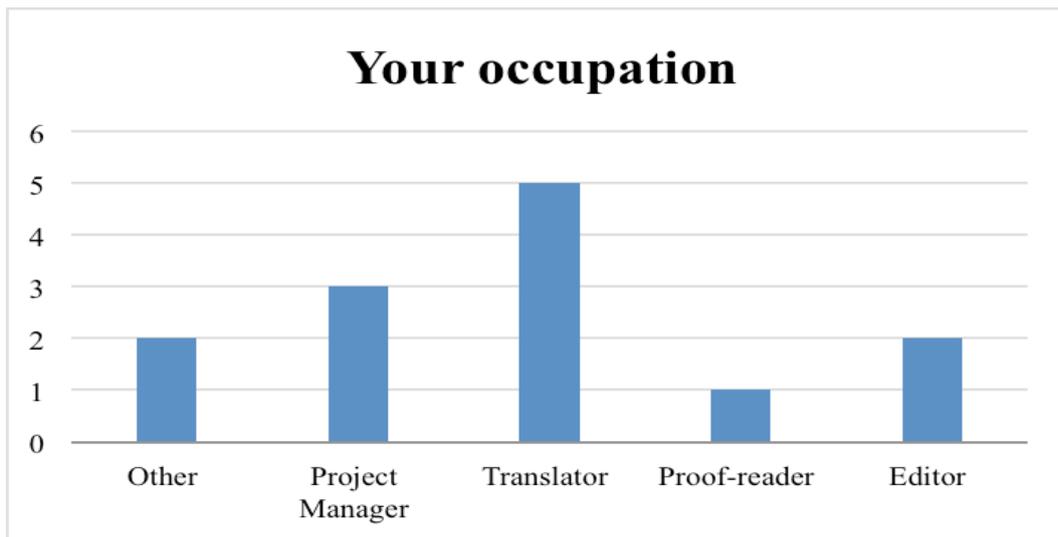


Figure 12: Occupations in NA

5.4.1.1 Value Direction of Work

NA is found to have a clear direction of work with a higher capacity of people's involvement in the organisation. When asked about her role in the organisation, IP1 was of the view that continuously bringing a more focused interaction among teams is the most crucial task she faced on a daily basis. The SSPs show they have a clear understanding of the roles and responsibilities the organisation performs as all of the 14 SS' participants select publication, translation, editing, and training among the scope, activities and services provided by the NA.

5.4.1.2 Knowledge of TQM and its application to NA

IP1 was asked to explain if she knew what TQM was and its role, if any, in her organisation. She replied:

Total quality management plays an essential role in the success of a modern organisation. It gives a full picture of what is going on within an

organisation, with an optimised approach to the necessary remedial action needed to be taken swiftly by the senior management, whenever a problem arises. We use a system called Integrated Management System consisting of several sub-systems that form together our total quality management mechanism.

12 SSPs showed that they are aware of TQM and its importance to organisational performance. These answers imply that the culture of NA has a good understanding for quality, and has the readiness to embrace quality management systems to improve its performance.

5.4.1.3 Quality standard certifications

According to IP1, NA has gained a number of ISO certifications. They are ISO 9001 2008 (revised and replaced by 9001:2015); ISO 9004:2009; ISO 27001:2005 (outdated as revised by ISO/IEC 27001:2016)¹⁶; ISO 14001:2004 (outdated as revised by 14001:2015)¹⁷; OHSAS 18001:2007¹⁸; EFQM excellence model (developed by the European Foundation for Quality Management)¹⁹; and ISO 31000:2009²⁰. Similarly, when respondents were asked in the survey about the ISO certifications, respondents detailed different categories such as ISO 9001: 2008; and ISO 27001:2005 (revised and replaced by 27001:2016). However, it is to be noticed that most of these certifications are managerial-based. Yet translation related certifications like 17100:2015 and ISO 11669: 2012 were absent in the department.

Asked about whether these certifications improve productivity, IP1 replied, “It keeps every team member focused on the objectives and values of our organisation in their daily work. Thus each team player, being aware of what is required of him/her, will do their part toward achieving such objectives.” This indicates a good understanding of the goals behind certifications. However, the implications of such

¹⁶ ISO/IEC 27001:2016 sets requirements for the foundation of information security management systems in organisations.

¹⁷ 14001:2015 provides requirements for organisations to set a systematic environmental management system.

¹⁸ OHSAS 18001:2007 provides requirements to set occupational health and safety management practices.

¹⁹ EFQM is a quality management framework that provides guidance to organisational performance towards competitiveness.

²⁰ ISO 31000:2009 provides organisations with guidance about risk management.

certifications for the translation department of NA cannot be proved owing to the limited amount of data.

5.4.1.4 Guideline and rules of translation

When asked about the general guidelines in place, IP1 answered: “The National Archive also has in place general guidelines, rules and regulations for translation, editing and proofreading, called the translation policy. It includes a set of guidelines and a quality control system that defines specific steps for the translation process.” However, these guidelines were not disclosed to the researcher.

She further indicated that NA also had plans for specifically developing internal terminological databases: “It is in the pipeline. We have a plan to compile a glossary of all terms used by various NA departments using translation technologies.” This is emphasised by the NA’s SSPs as shown in Figure 13 and Figure 14 below:

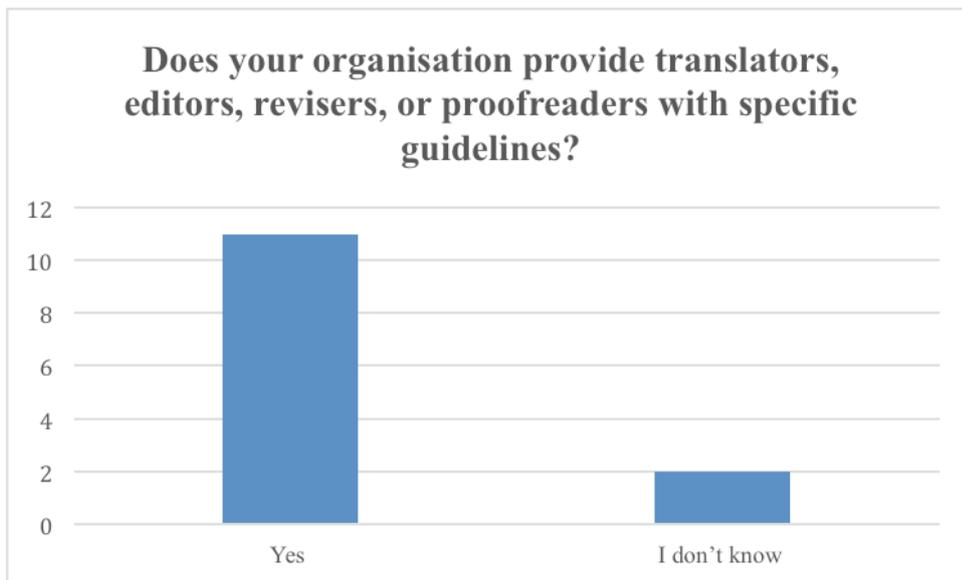


Figure 13: Guidelines for linguists in NA

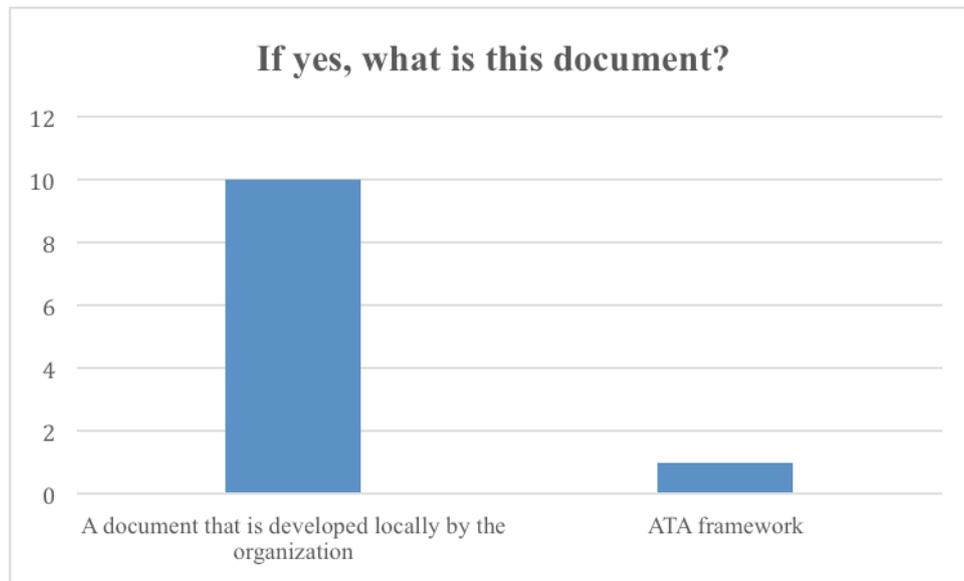


Figure 14: Guideline documents for linguists in NA

5.4.1.5 Training and development

As for training, IP1's response was: "We have on-the-job training in the sense that translators go over their mistakes, discuss them with the team leader and language editor, and do their best to learn from them and avoid repeating them. It is a learning curve process." In this regard, 12 of the NA's SSPs stated that they receive feedback on their work.

NA also offers training to its employees. "Training is available to all and we have a training section, which takes care of all staff training requirements inside and outside our organisation. Training courses and workshops are held on a regular basis." When asked about the topics of these courses, IP1 stated that they were mainly related to management and improving skills such as language and computer skills, but not translation-related courses. She added: "The organisation offers its translators clarity and support for its technical activities so that they can make the best use of knowledge, skills and experience. We get clear instructions and support whenever needed, and are encouraged to bring out the best in us. We have a suggestions and complaints program in place to which any employee can forward their suggestions and complaints that will be dealt with seriously and objectively." However, the NA's survey shows that only seven out of the 13 SSPs receive training from the organisation, of which five only think that the training topics are relevant to the requirements of their jobs.

5.4.1.6 Teamwork and Motivation

Does the organisation provide any intrinsic or extrinsic rewards for its translators?
Does it offer fair, or even competitive, pay?

It appears that National Archive is held in high esteem on these benchmarks. “We have in place a program called the Recognition and Motivation Program to which any employee can apply if they feel that they deserve recognition. The program gives financial and moral rewards to deserving employees. Financial remuneration is among the highest in the UAE and the Middle East, if not the whole world.” The SS showed that nine SSPs were satisfied and happy about how their performance is measured at the organisation, whereas four were not. Also, only three SSPs indicated that they were rewarded for their good performance.

The working environment of the organisation has also been very fondly praised. IP1 said: “The working environment is one that encourages innovation and excellence, and team spirit and work is the order of the day”. Similarly, ten SSPs out of 13 are satisfied and happy about working for the NA and its working environment. The opinions of NA’s SSPs over the salary being offered vary from neutrality to high satisfaction: two are neutral, eight are satisfied, and three are highly satisfied.

As for teamwork and relationship with managers, IP1 said that the organisation adopts an “open door policy”. This was emphasised by the NA’s SSPs, ten of whom state that they have a ‘good’ relationship with their employees. However, four out of 13 participants stated that they would consider sharing it with their supervisors if they were unhappy; for instance, about the type of texts they are asked to translate. Five of the NA’s SSPs described the texts they are assigned to process as ‘hard’, while by eight they are seen as ‘average’. This may also indicate the need for a regular and effective evaluation of employees’ competence and skills. This in turn would help NA successfully to design bespoke training programs to bridge the existing gap between the employees’ competence and the texts’ level of difficulty as they proceed within the NA translation department.

The responses of the NA’s survey show that 11 participants are satisfied about their involvement in the activities, training and decision-making process at the department. This indicates that the NA has attempted to involve their employees by pursuing excellence through continuous development and training.

5.4.1.7 Quality Assurance

IP1 was also asked her own views about the quality assurance of the final product delivered by the organisation, from a scale of Excellent to Poor, and to elaborate. “Our end product is of high quality”, she replied, “which is paramount in our organisation and is reflected in our customer feedback, which is overwhelmingly positive.” However, there is no evidence available to support this view, as they were very conservative about providing details, documents, or examples of translations in process.

5.4.1.8 Changing to TQM

The final question posed was on whether she perceived herself as contributing to the NA as an agent of change towards full commitment to translation Total Quality Management. The response was: “We all realize that initially people will resist change. However, when one realizes that it is in the best interest of the organisation, and hence the staff, one begins to come round to the idea of change. I for one, I am an advocate of TQM, knowing that in the final analysis it is going to benefit the organisation as a whole, and consequently, will give it a cutting edge in a very competitive world.” As mentioned earlier, 12 SSPs showed that they were aware of the significance of TQM, with 11 participants listing the ISO certifications obtained by the NA.

5.4.2 TABAH FOUNDATION

About TABAH

TABAH Foundation is a non-profit organisation involved in research publications, seminars and workshop consultancy. It is located in the UAE and translates its own studies from English to Arabic and vice-versa. Tabah relies exclusively on freelance translators. Dr. Amienoellah Abderoef, a former Research Team Coordinator at Tabah, stated that: “Tabah puts out high-quality and timely research based on in-depth analyses, and critical assessments of current issues, events and scenarios. These analyses and assessments, if they are themselves not accompanied by a grounded and authentic Islamic response, often invite the Islamic scholarly community to come up with such a response by providing a thorough grounding and understanding of the particular contemporary issue under scrutiny” (Abderoef, as quoted in Tabah Foundation, 2011, p. 9). So one can say that Tabah research

publications attempt to be firmly grounded in and fully conversant with both contemporary analysis and assessment on the one hand, and traditional Islamic responses and perspectives on the other.

Translation projects at Tabah are managed by outsourcing freelance translators. Below is the analysis of two semi-structured interviews, as follows:

About the interview participants

With the Tabah Foundation, the respondents are the manager of human resources at the Foundation who runs translation projects (IP2) and a freelance outsourced translator (IP3).

5.4.2.1 Readership and target customers

When asked about Tabah's key customers and target readers, IP2 said: "Academics, scholars and leading thinkers". This, however, creates one of the key challenges to Tabah freelance translators. When identifying the challenges he faces when dealing with Tabah, IP3 says "Other challenges centre on the creative, sophisticated texts in specific genres that have their own register and terminologies." However this may raise the question of whether to accept or decline translation of a text because of not being expert in the subject matter. To avoid compromising the quality and accuracy of translation, ISO 11669:2012 states that translators should not accept work they are unable to complete and meet its specifications (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.9).

5.4.2.2 Translation project management

Tabah relies on collaboration and outsourcing for completing its translation projects. IP2 said that Tabah collaborates with "editors, translators, academics and publishers who have roles in editing, translating and reviewing our work as peer reviewers", when asked about the role these collaborators play in Tabah's organisational objectives. Tabah claims to be using emails and online project management tools (IP2). However the name of the tool was not specified. IP3 stated that outsourcing was not a problem "as deadlines are set fairly and at the level the text requires (some difficult text may require a long time, especially as texts which are translated for Tabah Foundation are usually very specialized and complicated ones that require more time than the average)." This may indicate that Tabah's project manager needs to consider balancing the level of text difficulty with translator competence.

Regarding his relationship with Tabah, IP3 commented: “Communication with Tabah is very difficult, they don’t understand the nature of translation as a profession (deadlines, rates, etc), they don’t appreciate the quality of translation and do not evaluate the translation well. Lack of mutual trust.” The tense relationship indicated here between Tabah and the translator implies the importance of assigning a project manager who is familiar with the specific conventions of translations and competencies required to evaluate the ST and its level of difficulty, and has the ability to commission the right translator, set fair deadlines, and pay satisfactory rates. Similarly, IP3, who is seen by Tabah as a senior experienced translator, answered when asked if he uses CAT tools or machine translation: “No. I only use dictionaries when required” and “No need for them” when questioned about their importance in translating.

As for the challenges faced when translating Tabah’s texts, IP3 said: “Generally we face no problems if the source text is good. However, most problems of translation arise when source texts are not revised, edited and consist of ambiguous and unclear expressions and style”. In this case Tabah should make sure the ST is revised and edited before sending it to a translator. At the same time, translators should not accept unedited STs (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.9). This all puts Tabah’s management of translation projects in question.

5.4.2.3 Quality and standards

IP2 stated that Tabah was “working to get ISO accreditation” but he did not specify what kind of certification. The key element of Tabah’s performance is assessed, according to IP2, based on “the number and level of publications, seminars, readers, events attended and citations”. Therefore translation quality seems to be one of the important indicators for Tabah’s performance. Moreover, the organisation updates its strategy each year based on the customer feedback it receives via an “annual customer survey” (IP2). This survey, however, does not expect readers to comment or give feedback on the quality of the publication’s language. Putting this question as part of the survey would quite probably undermine the organisation’s status and its reliability.

5.4.2.4 Lack of transparency

As for the quality of translation, IP2 said that Tabah did not provide guidelines for translators. A freelance editor, who assesses the translation accuracy, determines the

quality of translation. However it seems that IP2 is either confusing revision with editing or does not carry out revision. For instance, when asked about the revision and quality assurance procedures for translations he replied that the translation was “checked” after translation by “the editor”. This, however, could not be proved, as the editor did not respond to the survey that was sent out or to interview questions. On the other hand, the freelance translator (IP3) indicated that revising translation was left solely on the shoulders of the translator himself. He said that revision was carried out by: “Comparing both texts line by line, improving style of language, making sure that text is without any spelling and grammar errors and mistakes, Arabizing technical texts and making sure that punctuation marks are used in the target language for the right function, making sure that common and proper names are transliterated properly, making sure that endnotes and footnotes are complying with the target language standards of presentation, making sure that the target text as a whole is presented in a good way.” Moreover, the translation was in his view the idea that that the TT should function equally as the ST, aligning with the functionalist approach to translation (see 2.1.1.3). Yet he admits the limitations of self-revision. “It may result in not paying attention to some errors and mistakes. Therefore, it’s important for the text to be revised by another translator or reviser” (IP3). Still, there is a missing gap in this stage at which Tabah should have been more transparent about the process of translation with all professionals involved in the process. However, this may put pressure on the translator’s accountability as regards perfecting the text. Mossop is of the view that full revision by another reviser or translator reduces the translator’s responsibility for his own work. Nonetheless, it is important to identify a revision system and clarify it to translators (Mossop, 2014 p.118).

5.4.3 KALIMA

About Kalima

In an effort to improve the literary services within the region, ADACH (Abu Dhabi Authority for Culture and Heritage) initiated Kalima in 2007. The organisation was established in an effort to improve literary services by funding translation, publishing and distributing quality titles from all genres by translating them from various languages into Arabic. However, in the beginning the focus was on English. Kalima's consistent short-term objective is stated clearly in these few lines, “Every year we will select 100 candidate titles of classic, contemporary and modern titles

from around the world to be translated into Arabic.” (Kalima, 2013). It is worth noting here that a small team of six players is running this very ambitious objective, who are, specifically, an editor, a copyright coordinator, a financial specialist, a proofreader, a public relations specialist, and an archive specialist who all report to the ADACH. Since its foundation in 2007, Kalima has completed the translation of 900 titles by 2016 (Updated information by IP4)²¹. This means Kalima is achieving its annual goal in terms of quantity. The target of publishing 100 translated books every year poses a challenge to Kalima’s small team. IP4 states that Kalima has requested to expand this number, but that ADACH has refused because of limited resources.

About the interview participants

The interviewees were Kalima’s in-house senior editor with occasional Project Management duties (IP4), a freelance translator (IP5), a freelance senior reviser and editor (IP6) and an in-house senior proofreader (IP7). IP4 and IP7 officially represent Kalima in this research.

5.4.3.1 Outsourcing

Outsourcing is also an important subject in the field of translation. One major reason for this is cost-effectiveness. Since its foundation, Kalima has been outsourcing all of its projects (IP4, 2014). As mentioned earlier, Kalima has only six in-house employees of which none is a translator. Kalima, however, has a list of 80 freelance translators with whom it cooperates to complete its projects (IP4, 2014). As noted by IP6, one of the major problems with outsourced work is related to quality. He states that outsourcing in Kalima has resulted in dealing with some translators who are “not yet ready to publish serious work. Their Arabic is often poorer than is acceptable” (IP6, 2014). However, IP4 claims that the process of selecting the right translator for a given title is a “very difficult task that can take can take up to 20 days. We carefully select a few from our list of translators, based on their CVs and previous experience we have with them, and send them a sample of the book to be

²¹ Some of the information about Kalima was updated through follow-up communication with IP4 for the purpose of this research in an exchange of text messages in November 2016.

translated and then evaluate the returned text. The sample for translation is very important as every book has a unique identity that should be skilfully represented. The sample of about 7-10 pages is presented to the committee for quality evaluation before a translator is appointed”.

5.4.3.2 Organisational structure

As previously observed during interviews and SS on how Kalima manages its translation projects, there is no clear structure nor operations concerning quality. There is no project manager or any managerial professional who regulates the process of managing the project in line with ADACH objectives. Rather, a person whose job title is ‘an editor’ (IP4) runs the whole process from the book’s selection to the printing and publications of books in coordination with other professionals shown in the chart below (Figure 15).

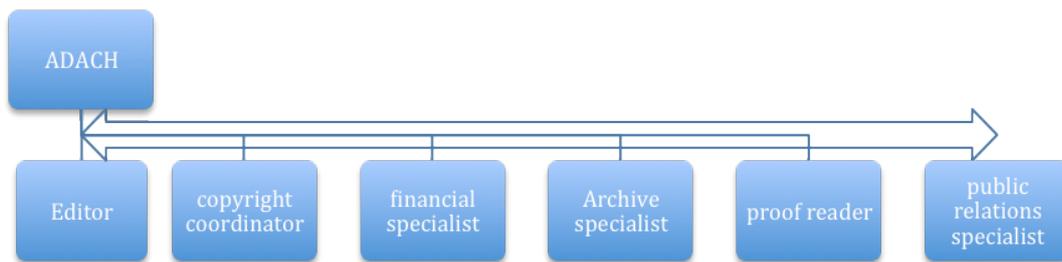


Figure 15 Kalima’s hierarchy structure

Kalima is one of the ADACH projects which makes the final call regarding its resources, budgeting and objectives. However, the role of meeting the expected objective (publishing 100 books yearly) is left completely on the shoulders of the six employees. Although he followsup the whole process, IP4 states that there is no hierarchy among the six members. Rather, they all report to the ADACH.

5.4.3.3 Quality Concerns

It appears that some of Kalima’s professional and highly experienced translators are wary of translations being made by less experienced translators whose Arabic expertise, they feel, is not up to par. During an interview IP6 says, “The Arabic of some translators is not as good as it should be. Some of the books that are supposed

to have been revised by an expert still suffer from glaring problems in language and accuracy”. When asked about the problems he witnesses in translation, he replied: “A major problem is translators copying the structure of English sentences, following each phrase to produce sentences that are unnatural in Arabic”. This is studied in text-analysis (see Chapter Seven), suggesting that Kalima may not select well-trained, competent translators. In terms of academic qualifications, nine SSPs studied translation, four studied language and literature, while one specialised in computer science and Islamic history. Their experience in translation varies from 2 to 15+ years. Although the number of Kalima’s SSPs is too limited for us to jump to any conclusion about the competence of Kalima’s translators, the reviser’s statement together with the given academic majors may indicate that translation quality and competence is beyond the academic qualification and years of experience. Kalima do not offer training programs for their translators as all of them are freelancers. However, this does not seem to stop some of these freelancers from investing in their qualifications and skills. Eight of Kalima’s SSPs responded that they do not receive or join training programs, while three said that they joined relevant training courses for translation, and three others said that they joined training programs but that these were irrelevant to translation.

Most of Kalima’s SSPs state that Kalima does not provide guidelines, terminology databases or internal developed documents (Figure 16 and Figure 17). Kalima on the other hand confirmed they do not provide any brief or guidelines other than the one they have for proofreaders only (IP4 and IP7, June 2014).

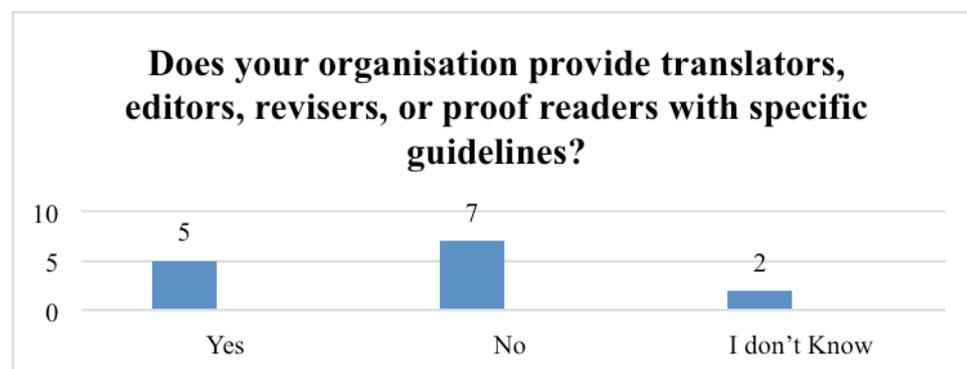


Figure 16: Guidelines for linguists at Kalima

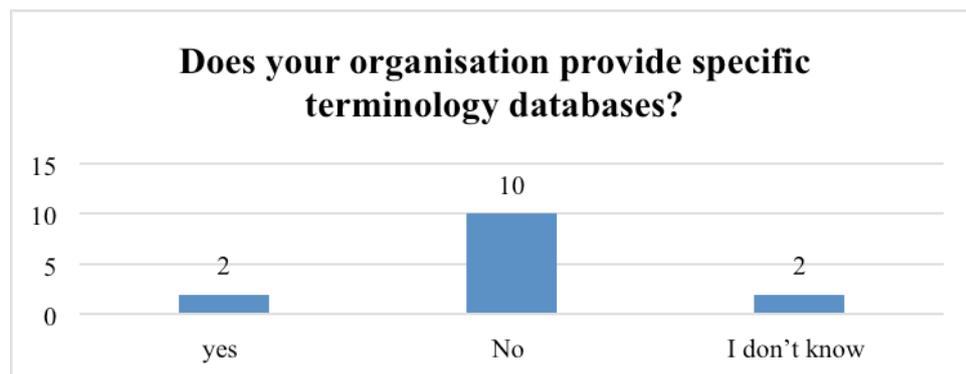


Figure 17: Terminology databases at Kalima

5.4.3.4 Lack of direction

It must also be noted that many translators along with the project manager of Kalima feel that the objectives and scope of Kalima project are not clear. When asked about his work experience with Kalima, IP6 responded: “I am pleased with what they are doing, but I wish that Kalima would espouse a clearly-defined mission”.

Eleven of Kalima’s SSPs described the STs they are given to translate as ‘average’, while two said ‘hard’, and one said ‘easy’. This may indicate that the process of assigning translators is not always studied in proportion to their competence or specialty, as claimed by IP4. Hence, it affects the quality overall as they are neither experienced nor motivated to complete the job.

When asked about the challenges he faced with Kalima, IP6 responded: “Its scope is not yet clear to me. It publishes different kinds of books and seems willing to publish translations by inexperienced translators. I have read some books published by Kalima that are full of all kinds of mistakes.” This statement reflects how an opaque kind of scope and process followed in order to achieve an organisation’s goals makes the employees’ performance that much harder. Even if translations have been outsourced, it poses a challenge for a reviser, for instance, to know how to complete a job in the absence of clear goals, readership, and desired features. Kalima might have clarified that to their ‘in-house’ employees, yet might have underestimated the importance of doing the same to the ‘outsourced’ employees.

IP4 states that the general manager of Kalima proposes a list of books, but that every employee in Kalima has the right to nominate any title for translation. This indicates

that Kalima involves its employees in decision-making. However, the selection of books does not follow a specific strategy. One of the translators who was met by the researcher in a conference said that Kalima approved publication of a book he had translated a long time ago. So Kalima did not select the book or its translator. Rather, the translator approached Kalima after completing the translation for publication. This was emphasised by IP6, who works very closely with Kalima, when he said: “I do not know who selects the books and why. Amazon.com is a good source, but leading publishers issue classified catalogues that can also be used to select books on predetermined topics. These have not been used, as far as I can tell”. Although IP6 is outsourced and his organisational integration with Kalima is questionable, his statement reflects the fact that the selection of the categories of the books based on a long-term strategy is not present in a focused manner. Following a clear long-term strategy for book selections would help Kalima to maintain quality and excellence of performance at the organisational level.

Although all of the employees are encouraged to participate in selecting titles for translation, they do not have a clear understanding of the methods and criteria of selection. This may also indicate that employees are not fully involved and integrated into the organisational goals and objectives. Simpson *et al.*, (2003) give more importance to people’s capacity building than to the project, as it entails them to own the project and be fully involved in its successful implementation.

There are no clear-cut standards here for translation, since quality is left to the judgment of the revisers while no one can critique what they ‘feel’ are errors in translation. Further, IP6 indicated that he does not report the problems to the project manager, but instead makes his changes directly on the text.

From the current analysis, it seems that participants are working individually with no clear detailed directions since there are no clear strategic or procedural guidelines implemented across the organisations.

5.4.3.5 Lack of teamwork

Kalima has a heavy workload. The small team of six employees is expected to coordinate the project of translating 100 books every year, including book selection, copyright formalities, outsourcing contracts, finance and marketing, etc. The

researcher asked about Kalima's approach towards maintaining its employees' satisfaction in such a heavily loaded environment, and IP4 said: "Although we have stressful periods due to our deadlines and workload, we like our jobs and the atmosphere is very positive. Senior management is very friendly and we like the way we work as a team. Our managers empower all employees by welcoming ideas, recommendations and suggestions. Their doors are always open for any complaints and we are given full permission to use our creativity". This reflects a positive managerial culture at Kalima. Nevertheless, Kalima runs its projects on the basis of outsourcing. To complete one project, professionals are outsourced from different parts of the world. This involves translators, revisers, proofreaders and editors. IP4 states that teamwork and interaction is achieved at its best among Kalima's in-house employees. However, there is no way of establishing any connection between a given project's players, i.e. translator, reviser, proofreader, and editor since most of them are assigned separately in different stages (IP4, 2014).

5.4.3.6 Lack of regulated revision

Regarding revision, Kalima provided two contradictory statements. IP4 stated that "Kalima has a strict policy about editing and revising every single translation", and that "the process of revising a book takes one to three months depending on the quality of the translation"; while IP7 said that "after translation, books are sent for proofreading ... who determines if the translation needs to be revised or not". So revision is not a regulated stage in the process of producing a translation unless proofreaders come across nonsensical or illogical or contradictory passages in the given book. This means revision is basically left upon the shoulders of the translator. However, an empirical study by Shih (2006, p.308) shows that some translators' approach to revision does not follow an objective methodology. Rather, it is usually based on their "idiosyncratic habits of revision" which they develop over time from experience and feedback (Shih, 2006, p.310). Mossop (2014, p.119) argues also that in self-revision "fewer errors will be detected". He added that in order for a translation to be self-revised objectively, it should be made unfamiliar to the translator himself by leaving the text, for instance, to the next morning, which is termed as 'drawer-time' by Shih (2006, p.303). However, Shih's study concluded that translators do not usually have 'drawer-time' for self-revision (2006, pp.301-310).

When asked about the advantages and disadvantages of self-revision, IP6 answered: “Advantages include the translator's own awareness of where s/he has had problems. A conscientious translator will try to solve all such problems before submitting the text. Disadvantages include the translator's tendency to think too well of themselves, to believe that readers won't mind, or that a particular problem is not that significant, and to want to get the job over with as soon as possible and get paid.” Therefore it is important to avoid such subjective evaluation of one’s translation by passing it to another party for assessment. Yet this should not undermine a translator’s responsibility for self-revision and review of their own work (Mossop, 2014, 118).

5.4.3.7 Training and Development

It is essential for the translators, revisers, proofreaders and editors to continuously improve themselves. Training, in this regard, also becomes an organisational responsibility that allows employees to continuously learn and improve the work. For the in-house employees, IP7 said in this regard, “Abu Dhabi Tourism and Culture, to which Kalima reports, offers many training courses and workshops in management, languages, writing, and so on. Some of my colleagues have registered and joined these courses but I haven’t yet due to pressure of work”. As Kalima is a project that is based completely on outsourcing, training and development is left entirely to the responsibility of the practitioners themselves. However, when asked about their training plans, IP4 responded: “We organize a specialist conference in translation annually which involves workshops in translating from English, German, Japanese and French to Arabic to support the process of translation and encourage people to try new translation tools”.

Kalima’s conference is held annually as the “Abu Dhabi Translation Conference”. It discusses areas of translation such as the challenges and problems of literary translation. As Kalima states in its website, the conference aims at enhancing communication, and preparing a well-trained generation of youths in translation. The conference involves organised workshops targeting translation students from local universities in the UAE. However, the workshops do not involve advanced workshops for professional translators, nor do they involve Kalima’s outsourced translators in discussing problems and issues encountered in Kalima’s projects. In this regard, IP6 said: “I have given a couple of workshops, but did not receive any

feedback to gauge their success. But a two-day workshop is not likely to produce immediate results anyway”. He added: “Two-day workshops are not enough to produce a meaningful, measurable effect”. Apparently, although ADACH offers general development courses for its employees, Kalima’s in-house employees do not have time to join them on account of their heavy workload. Kalima’s conference and training workshops, on the other hand, target beginners and undergraduate students in translation. However there are no plans for tackling the issues and problems that have arisen in translating Kalima projects.

Using social media to gauge feedback

ISO/TS 11669: 2012 (BSI ISO 11669:2012, p.30) highlights the significance of incorporating feedback as parameters into future translation projects for continuous improvement and development of organisational performance. When asked about the significance of Kalima’s readers’ feedback, IP4 stated that readers have not been approached by Kalima for their feedback but that social media, which are mainly used in marketing for Kalima’s new releases, could be an instrumental tool for communication. Up to October 16th 2016, Kalima has had an active account on Twitter with 32k followers, linked to its Facebook page, and an inactive Instagram account with 221 followers (last post dates to 2 December 2014). Comments attached to Kalima’s tweets involve a few positive responses and feedback from readers such as "the novel is really, really wonderful". Yet none of this feedback gives any language or translation- related opinion. In this regard, IP6 said: “Feedback can give a rough idea about what people think of the organisation”. “It can tell Kalima where it has done well and where there is still more to do. But not all commentators on social media can be taken seriously. They can only point to trends”. On other perspectives, IP4 is of the view that the performance of Kalima is evaluated internally in terms of meeting objectives, and she proudly states: “We have received the King Abdullah International Award for Translation.” Yet there are no clear criteria for Kalima’s successful performance other than meeting the target of translating 100 titles every year.

5.5 Discussion

The findings of the above discuss various fundamental aspects of TQM, which are directly or indirectly related to the quality of the process or management of translation projects. The diversification and rapid evolution of processes and forms of management in the practice of translating entails the necessity of perceiving the translation process within a corporate rather than individual context. This in turn poses a challenge for the TSPs for continuously improving or maintaining quality. In this regard, clear processing and variables that affect the quality of the work should be clearly defined and presented in a manner such that it presents a guideline for the TSPs to implement or monitor the quality of the work through essential factors. Therefore, under the umbrella of the literature analysis and consideration of the TSPs under study in the UAE, the research has formulated a conceptual model of critical success factors that should be monitored, implemented and scrutinized under various functions to successfully implement TQM in TSPs. This expansion will help to encompass pragmatic translation quality evaluation and assessment, which are crucial to the TSPs in the UAE, in particular.

The analysis and findings beside the literature demonstrate three major departmentalizations in the TSPs that affect their quality procedures. These involve managerial, organisational culture and procedural perspectives. The following section discusses the impact and function of these categories in some detail.

5.5.1 Managerial aspects (project management, time management, employee involvement, continuous development, customer focus):

Project management decisions are based profoundly on three factors: time, cost and quality. In translation, pending decisions where authorized teams are not established in a proper hierarchical structure leads to extensive delays in processing and execution of the project. A project manager's role in the translation industry thus has become really significant since, as well as managing human resources, finance, corporate flow of work, and content management, he is also accountable for the translation process monitoring to ensure on-time delivery and utilization of money and resources within the assigned limits and boundaries (Dunne and Dunne, 2011, p.62). This applies to the translation project managers in Kalima and Tabah (Kalima's project manager is an editor, while Tabah's translation projects are

managed by the HR manager). Thus, it is important to automate decisions to facilitate the process. Various tools are available for translation to facilitate project management processes at different levels: examples are Smartling and Trados, which are web-based software that are designed to manage translation projects. The surveys and interviews with project managers show that such tools and translation technology in general are not used (IP1, IP2, IP3). These tools allow project managers to look into a translator's activities and tasks, pending decisions and valuation of the project. The deadlines of the project and deliverable outputs are also accessible, which allows the project manager to effectively monitor the process regardless of the location, since some of these software tools are web-based. Thus, implanting these tools is not only helpful just for the in-house translators, but also allows project managers to follow up on the progress of the project with freelancers, and establish participative and consultative virtual teams regardless of the location and time. Dunne (2011, p.265) argues that frameworks that integrate teamwork for translation projects promote learning, which is critical for project success. She further says that project managers should foster learning through webinars to discuss issues raised during the process which could "enhance the team's performance and to mitigate or eliminate certain project risk" (ibid., p.275).

The success of a translation project can only be gauged if it is completed on time, within the budget and in accordance with the agreed quality standard terms (Esselink 2000, p.429). Although deadlines can be negotiated at the procedural levels, meeting them becomes critical when it comes to organisational objectives, such as in the case of Kalima. Although it exceeds its target of translating 100 titles yearly, the translation quality of these books determines the efficiency of the project management practices adopted (see Chapters Six and Seven). **Time management** of translation projects can also be fostered through different CAT systems, which are not found to be used in any of the TSPs under study in the UAE.

A translation project is an integral whole and all the phases are necessarily interrelated (Esselink, 2000, p. 444). Therefore, the project manager should consider both dependencies and sequences of the project, that is, one phase is dependent on the completion of another which must be completed in order to begin the next. Failure to determine the sequences and dependencies during project scheduling will lead to a detrimental waste of time and resources. Mossop argues that technology nowadays has raised expectations about speed. However, speed is a matter of

experience, practice and training. For instance, learning how to skip unnecessary changes can reduce a lot of time in revision (Mossop, 2014, p.127).

However, this can also be managed more efficiently by adopting management methods such as 'Agile'. Agile is a recent management philosophy that was introduced in 2001 in the Manifesto for Agile Software Development (Beck *et al.*, 2001). It allows cross-functional teams to work simultaneously on shared projects while cutting a lot of time wasted in sequencing (Collier, 2012, p.26). In the case of localisation, the full translation team (translator, reviser, proofreader and editor) completes the translation task with software that allows sequential changes to be addressed by the other team members so that they may work on them accordingly as soon as changes are made in the system. In Kalima, for instance, the process of translating a book of 200 pages takes two months, then revision takes two to three months depending on the quality of translation, followed by proofreading which takes two weeks, and finally copyediting for publication takes one week (IP4, 2016). The full production of a translated book thus may take up to six months. This period, however, could have been cut probably by half if project managers had employed localisation management tools for Agile such as Crowdin (Crowdin.com, 2016). The reviser, for instance, can start working on translated parts as soon as the translator finishes and self-revises them. In case of problematic issues, the reviser can tell the translator about them so they can be avoided in further chapters. The proofreader, on the other hand, can work on revised parts and give immediate feedback to both translator and revisers. All team members are notified about all changes and updates as soon as they are posted so they can go through them. The translator may also inform other team members about any new problem that may arise in the current work, so it is considered when revising earlier sections. Such software allows interaction and immediate problem-solving collaboratively. The project manager can also followup and track the process and pay freelancers through it.

Given the contingencies above, Kalima for instance could make managing its projects more efficient. If a reviser, for instance, starts working on a translation five days on from commencing the translation, then the proofreader starts two weeks before ending the revision, i.e. on day 55 from starting revision, then a copywriter starts 11 days after commencing proofreading (considering that copywriting of a whole book takes one week (IP4, 2016), the whole process of producing a translated book ready for publication will be reduced from 144 days to 75 days, which is

almost half of the period spent today. The benefits of such tools should, however, be studied against the available resources, cost saving and return on investment. However, it can be argued that such motivational collaboration might come at the expense of the luxury of time and flexibility that freelancers enjoy.

A study conducted on 7939 business units in 36 companies concluded that there is a great correlation between **employees' involvement** and satisfactory organisational performance (Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002, p.276). Therefore, it is important for TSPs to ensure the involvement of their employees. A majority of SPs give themselves total credit regarding their contribution in translation projects. This may have two interpretations. The first is that translation projects may lack collaboration between relevant professional linguists. The second is that TSPs empower their translators, reflecting a good example of employee involvement. However employee involvement should be enforced by other practices such as those related to contribution in strategic and procedural problem-solving, cross-functional teams, and training which are proved to be successful factors for TQM's effectiveness (Guthrie, 2001, p.184; Lengnick-Hall, 1993, p.108). The findings show that translation projects in NA are carried out in cross-functional teams, who work in the same place and get feedback from each other. Working in such participative teams where everyone's contribution counts helps them to identify the limitations of the existing working system and encourages them to find creative alternatives. Moreover, it raises their awareness about specific conventions related to their projects, which collaboratively fall under the umbrella of one organisation. On the contrary, Tabah's freelance translator (IP3), could probably have shown a better appreciation for the technology benefits to translation if he had had the chance to work collaboratively in teams. Working in teams is proved to be effective with regard to the flexibility of employees and their acceptance of change (Konrad, 2006, p.6). Although translation projects in Kalima are conducted cross-functionally, the benefits of participation in this sense is probably lost due to the absence of direct contact among the team members. Kalima should highlight their involvement and create a participative culture by opening channels of communication and explicitly draw attention to their freelancers. This could be achieved by managing the translation project through cloud-based platforms or at least by exchanging contact details or emails.

Incentives and rewarding in NA is also one of the good employee involvement practices. In freelancing concepts such as at Tabah and Kalima, incentives could be offered against quality work; this cannot be achieved, however, in the absence of a clear definition of quality under clarified guidelines and parameters. Appreciation letters cost nothing, yet they have a good impact on freelancers, who are thus motivated to offer quality future work and meet the organisational objectives.

Besides its cognitive importance, providing training assures employees' involvement. In this regard, Konrad (2006, p.2) argues that "the training investments are essential in a high-involvement organisation because when employees are making important workplace decisions, it is important that they have the skills and abilities to make the right decisions". The translation department at the NA implies that employees receive training, yet it is not relevant to translation. It is the responsibility of the translation department, which is aware more than anyone else about its potentials, to update the training and development department with their needs. That would avoid wasting time and resources in irrelevant training sessions. The same applies to Kalima's in-house employees who consider themselves too busy to accept irrelevant training.

TSPs do not feel committed to freelancers. Yet their involvement is highly significant for the contribution they make towards the organisational objectives. Kalima, for instance, should consider providing fair and constructive feedback to them after they complete their work. Feedback should avoid any implication of "finishing mistakes". Rather, it should be provided on clear criteria. The cognitive worth of such feedback depends on how freelancers perceive it. Moreover, Kalima should raise the bar for accepting freelancers to get their projects done. This in turn will implicitly encourage the freelancers to devote more time and invest in their skills.

Kalima should devote parts of its annual conference's agendas to seminars and workshops on aspects more practical and relevant to Kalima's projects, such as problematic issues in translation, issues related to translating Kalima's projects, quality and revision, etc. The experience gained by Kalima since its establishment should be highlighted more for **continuous improvement** in meeting the goals and objectives of Kalima.

Customer focus is a prominent element of the TQM philosophy. The general survey ranked customers' satisfaction as the second most important driver for TSPs. Although it can be argued that non-profit TSPs's management strategy cannot be tailored according to the customers' needs since the organisation's mission and objectives are defined, there is a consensus among researchers on the significance of focusing on customers' needs for non-profit organisations (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2002, p.64; Kara *et al.*, 2004, p.68; Sargeant *et al.*, p.60). Non-profit TSPs customers are the readers. Thus it remains important for TSPs to reach out to them to read their publications. NA's and Tabah's publications, which target researchers, should implement researcher-oriented practices so the latter can benefit from their publication, for instance, by seeking feedback on their titles, quality of translation, and languages required. Following their library data search with an automated short feedback survey can help these TSPs to achieve their societal cognitive goals and sustain continuous development. Kalima, which aims at increasing Arabic content, can engage customers in its values by building a data-driven strategic plan. Conducting regular surveys can also retrieve feedback on the selected titles and quality of translation.

5.5.2 Organisational culture (organisational structure, decision-making, cross-functional team):

The general survey suggests that a 'vertical' **organisational structure** is the one most adopted among the TSPs studied in this research. However, **decision-making** styles in terms of 'centralized' and 'decentralized' exist in both structures, emphasising Moore and Brown's conclusion of the validity of both structures for a successful environment of quality components and strategies (Moore and Brown 2006, p.738). While vertically structured, the employees of the translation department at NA, for instance, show an excellent incorporation of quality into management systems, certifications, guidelines feedback, appraisals and cross-functional performance. However, NA needs to effectively activate its "open door policy" (IP1) by eliminating any barriers between management at any level and their functional levels. This should be assured by making sure employees are completely satisfied and confident enough to complete the required specifications of the given texts. Employees might hide their areas of incompetence or experience in terms of subject matter due to the kind of relationship caused by hierarchy. Yet management, which is in charge of hiring, training and development, should acknowledge these

weaknesses and establish a more interactive and consultative culture to avoid catastrophic outcomes in translation. As the translation department at the NA is an operational entity and decision-making related to selecting texts, for instance, is limited to top-level management, employees should be involved in decision-making related to evaluating the assigned texts against their specialty and potentials. This in turn would help in designing an optimal training and development plan for each employee in pursuit of an excellent organisational performance.

On the other hand, Kalima reflects two separate forms of organisational structure. The first is perceived within the parent authority (ADACH), a vertical mechanistic structure, of two levels (managerial and functional). The second is perceived within the Kalima project, a very flat horizontal structure as seen in its functional procedures, starting from book selections, copyright acquisitions, contracts and relationships, translation production, public relations and marketing. This level depicts a good example of **cross-functional teams**, empowered and involved employees. In the first form, Kalima (functional level) is focused on achieving the clearly stated goal (translating 100 books every year). However, it seems to be strategically and procedurally isolated from the top-management (ADACH) when it comes to managing resources. The goal of publishing 100 translated books puts great pressure on Kalima's small group of in-house employees who keep requesting human resources expansion. ADACH, however, rejects this request, 'thinking' that the available team is enough to do the job (IP4, 2016). This reflects the presence of a huge gap between the top-management and the employees in relation to strategy and resource allocation. In this regard, there is a need to have a professional mediator to bridge this gap (see portfolio manager, subsections 8.2.2 and 8.2.2.1).

Outsourcing Kalima's project resulted in a low level of coordination, if any, amongst freelance linguists who process translation (translator, reviser, and proofreader). This resulted in a blurriness about Kalima's "scope", its perception of translation quality, and the translation process and workflow (IP6, 2014). Kalima should foster its freelancers' involvement by opening channels of communication between the freelancers working on shared documents via emails, conference Skype calls, or any of the available web-based project management systems (e.g. Trados, Wordfast, and Metatexis). Such coordination will help Kalima to perform more efficiently in using resources, solving problems, eliminating errors, and saving time. In spite of their working outside the actual building of the organisation, this would

put freelancers in a culture where they find themselves motivated and contributing to the organisational goals of Kalima.

5.5.3 Process aspects (guidelines, standards, data reporting, feedback)

The general survey shows that “quality” of work comes at the top of the driving factors for the TSPs surveyed in the UAE. Similarly, interviews with the professionals of the three organisations suggest that quality of work is a priority. For instance, quality of work at the NA is illustrated in its regulated systems regarding employees’ selection and workflow of the translation process, starting from editing the ST, translating, then revising, and proofreading. As claimed by IP1 at NA, they have clear **guidelines** for the tasks of each employee, prescribed in job descriptions. However, the degree of relevancy of these guidelines to the assigned texts and process is still in question. Both IP1 and SSPs indicate a necessity for developing a terminology database. NA should develop this database based on its previous translations, which will entail a lot of effort and time. Yet this huge effort would save their time and a lot of inconsistencies in the future. As a highly certified organisation, NA is more likely to have a high performance in terms of TQM implementation (Shafiq *et al.* 2014, p.11). However, the translation department at the NA needs to investigate the localisation-related ISO **standards** such as ISO 11669: 2012 and ISO 17100: 2015 to help the translation department avoid prejudices and subjective decisions relevant to cadres and competence assessments.

Although they have very high expectations about the quality of the translated texts, Tabah’s freelancers have the impression that Tabah’s management is unaware of the specific conventions related to translations in terms of deadlines, rates and ST evaluation. This resulted in a tense relationship with their freelance translators who perceive Tabah’s texts as sophisticated and hard. Tabah, which is aware of this sophistication, should send out their STs with clear TT specifications and glossaries to avoid any terminological and interpretational errors. Quality of work cannot be achieved unless it is assigned to competent translators and there is then access to subject-matter experts to review the work. Apart from the absence of translation briefs and glossaries, Tabah needs to make more effort in regulating the process of translation. For instance, translators should be clearly informed if their work will be revised by a second party either as unilingual revision or full revision as TT against its ST. Moreover, the project manager of translation projects seemed to be confused between revision and editing. In this case, referring to existing international

standards such as ISO 17100: 2015 would be useful, since in these both revision and editing are clearly distinguished in terms of monolingual and bilingual editing (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.4; BSI ISO 17100, 2015, pp.4-6).

On the other hand, Kalima, which is engrossed in its quantity target, assigns its translations to freelance translators and revisers without a brief, guidelines or TT specifications, leaving these freelancers away from Kalima's scope and quality yardsticks. This in turn affects the quality of the process, which critically affects the quality of the end-product eventually (see Chapter Seven). Kalima's high aspirations and societal value of enriching the Arabic content might not be taken seriously by its own freelancers in the absence of clear guidelines and identified parameters. The absence of objectives and clearly stated guidelines and criteria for translation and revision assessment indicates that Kalima counts on freelancers' idiosyncratic perception of 'good translation' or 'revision parameters', which they may have developed over time from their own experience. Besides affecting their self-esteem, unconstructive evaluation and assessment of work could affect the translators' performance as they would feel lost and hesitant about their decision-making and adopted strategies when translating.

The importance of clear guidelines and parameters for all the stages in the translation workflow should be built constructively along with integrating **feedback** received by all actors. This includes end-users of the TTs, colleagues' feedback, and commissioners (management in the case of non-profit TSPs). The study shows that feedback from customers on translation in particular is not fostered, although some of these TSPs such as Kalima and Tabah are active in modern social media channels. TSPs in the UAE should be more confident about engaging their customers (product end-users) in their organisational performance, as their perception of quality is significant to standardising the concept of 'quality' organisationally.

Clear guidelines, parameters and standards help regulate the process of error annotations and **data reporting**. TSPs would be able to build up a list of problematic terminologies and common mistakes that can be productively tracked in future projects. This would help TSPs to effectively speed up performance while not compromising quality. It can also help identify the weaknesses thus developing, and

training programs can be optimally designed in line with the general context of organisational performance.

5.6 Summary

The analysis and findings of the general survey, specified surveys and interviews with an in-depth research on literature proposed many factors that are crucial for the implementation of TQM in the translation industry. To emphasise the implementation of the continuous improvement plan, it is important to integrate these factors into a sophisticated mechanism that is executed and well controlled. The researcher thus determines these factors as coming under the three main categories of Management Aspects, Organisational Culture, and Process Aspects (Figure 18). Each of these major categories has extensive factors, and these are explained in the discussion. These factors will be outlined in a further detailed framework in Chapter Eight.



Figure 18: Critical Success Factors (CSF) for implementing TQM in TSPs in the UAE

6. Chapter Six: Text Analysis: Proofreading and editing at Kalima

This Chapter begins with an overview of the quality management procedures performed at Kalima; namely, proofreading, editing and revising. The analysis presents these three concepts as termed by Kalima and in the order performed within its workflow. In this analysis, however, these terms are sought within Kalima's perception apart from how they are comprehended in the literature. This aims at understanding Kalima's quality management at the procedural level.

Due to its length, the text analysis is, however, split into two chapters. The current one presents and discusses the findings of the proofreading and editing text analysis, whereas the following Chapter is dedicated to revision. This analysis aims at understanding how Kalima manages the quality of their translated texts and if there is a consistent error typology for proofreading and editing. After defining these procedures and presenting how Kalima applies them in practice, key issues for English to Arabic translation are explained. These issues, which are particularly addressed in Kalima's proofreading and editing as revealed in a preliminary analysis, form the basis of a systematic analysis of the process of proofreading and editing the three books translated by Kalima.

6.1 Quality management at Kalima: Proofreading, Editing and Revision at Kalima²²

Chapter Two reviews phases of translation projects and establishes that quality control (QC) is part of quality assurance (QA) as the former is concerned with the procedural aspects applied to the translated text to manage its quality. These procedures may include checking, post-editing (or self-revision), revision, reviewing, and proofreading (see 2.2.4). In the case of Kalima, quality control

²² The information below is based on an interview conducted with Kalima's senior proofreader (IP7) and editor (IP4) on 11 June 2014 and according to the Kalima guidelines for proofreading (see Appendix D).

procedures are mainly limited to proofreading and editing, while revision is carried out only if asked by proofreaders or editors.

6.1.1 Proofreading

Proofreading is defined under ISO 17100 as examining “the revised target language content ... and applying corrections ... before printing” (BSI, 2015, p.3). Typically, it is an activity that “focuses on checking for typographical errors, incorrect hyphenation and spelling, and improper formatting” (ASTM F2575, 2014, p.1076). Hassan (2014, p.85) describes proofreading a translated text as a process aiming to “clean up the text; the source text is forgotten and the translated text must stand on its own”. Proofreading in Hassan’s terms includes considering four areas: (1) style guides (such as in-house style); (2) mechanics (such as spelling, capitalization, punctuation, abbreviation, numbers); (3) sentence structure (run-on sentences, comma splices, sentence fragments); (4) regional differences (English vs American spelling and punctuation). Mossop (2014, p.33) defines the task of proofreading under the term copyediting. Copyediting, on the one hand, is defined by Mossop (2014, p.42) as “checking and correcting a document to bring it into conformance with pre-set rules”. These rules, according to Mossop (*ibid.*, pp.42–58), include: 1) house style; 2) spelling and typographical errors; 3) syntax and idioms (conforming to the inherent rules of spoken idiomatic language); 4) punctuation; 5) usage (using words and phrases correctly and normally); and 6) consistency.

Similarly, Al-Mukhtār (2011, p.12) defines proofreading in Arabic as the activity of reviewing a written text to correct its typographical, structural or grammatical errors; and working on parts that are ambiguous or inconsistent.

In view of the above, proofreading can be defined as a process of checking a text for its compliance with the house style, correcting mistakes related to language rules and usage, and enhancing readability via clarification and eliminating ambiguity.

Proofreading at Kalima

Twelve freelance proofreaders handle the proofreading process for Kalima. The work is coordinated and managed by an in-house senior proofreader at Kalima. The proofreaders are, however, assigned to work on a complete unit (a whole book), i.e. books are not co-proofread so consistency of correction is maintained as much as

possible. For instance, if a proofreader decides to replace one term by another in a chapter for some reason, s/he will opt for the same change in other chapters and parts of the book. But if a book is co-proofread, such decisions may be subject to variation and inconsistency throughout the book.

The proofreading process of checking, correcting and leaving comments is carried out on hard copy, using a red pen, in order to distinguish the proofreader's changes from the editor's, which are applied in blue pen.

Kalima expects their freelance proofreaders to complete 50 pages per working day. Thus, proofreading a book comprising 350 pages should be completed within seven working days. The proofreading marks and corrections are sent to a copywriter who inserts them. The corrected version is sent back to the proofreader to review and make sure all changes and corrections have been successfully inserted and covered. In case the copywriter has missed inserting some changes, this stage can be followed by sending it to him/her again to apply those missing corrections. This process of going back and forth between proofreader and copywriter can take weeks. The final draft is then sent to the in-house senior proofreader who approves it and then sends it to the in-house senior editor of Kalima for final approval. The senior editor at Kalima reads the full translated text after proofreading and applying changes by the copyeditor.

The proofreading process at Kalima involves two levels. The first level is to check for faults in the grammar, spelling, 'typos' and punctuation. The second level, which is described by Kalima as a deeper sense of proofreading (proofreader interview, June 2014), deals with working on the readability of the text by paraphrasing and restructuring sentences or paragraphs. This is done by coordinating with the in-house senior proofreader at Kalima who, in turn, contacts the translator of the ST in order to provide another version of the sentence or paragraph in question. Generally, Kalima allows proofreaders to apply lexical changes only. The second level described above is, however, allowed in very exceptional cases. Enhancing the readability by proofreaders is allowed at the stylistic level only, i.e. changing words and sentence structure without altering the meaning of the TT. Nevertheless, in very rare cases, some paragraphs are restructured for the sake of improving readability at the textual level. This also entails contacting the translator of the ST to ensure that this restructuring is in parallel to and equivalent to the ST content.

The proofreading guidelines at Kalima state that the proofreading process should ensure that the book in total conforms to Emirati, Arab and Islamic traditions. Hence proofreaders are also expected to apply changes in the case of taboos or culturally unacceptable expressions so the book can be published. The senior editor at Kalima (IP4, 2014) states that translators should provide the most faithful translation of the ST. Therefore, expressions should be translated accurately, along with suggesting alternatives for more appropriate expressions in Arabic. It is the task of proofreaders at Kalima to change them into more appropriate and acceptable ones in the TL. It can be argued that translators should be aware of the target readers' expectations and censorship restrictions when dealing with such issues. However, Kalima insists that translators should provide a very faithful and equivalent translation, as close as possible to the ST, even when dealing with taboo words and culturally unacceptable terms. This is because these issues will be dealt with in the stages of proofreading and editing by euphemism or omission. Examples of euphemism usage and the omission of taboos and culturally unacceptable words are presented and explained in Chapter Six (see 6.2, subsection: 1.4. Inappropriateness / taboos).

The senior proofreader at Kalima is also responsible for working on some technical aspects related to the production of the translated book, such as layout consistency for headings, subheadings, page numbers in references to the table of contents; separating long paragraphs logically; and the presentation of English sentences amidst the Arabic text.

The proofreading process includes noting whether illustrations need to be edited. The senior proofreader at Kalima is the one who coordinates with the copyeditor to retouch and apply changes to illustrations that exist in the TT but conflict with Emirati, Arabic or Islamic culture. The proofreading task at Kalima, therefore, goes beyond linguistic and textual aspects, as the tasks involve responsibilities related to style and layout as well.

6.1.2 Editing

ISO 17100 refers to both bilingual editing, which is usually synonymous with "revision", and monolingual editing, which is in the sense of "review" (BSI, 2015, p.2). The Standard Guide for Quality Assurance in Translation document produced

by the American Society for Testing and Material (ASTM) sees editing as a form of revision rather than review, as it involves a two-step process. First, the editor shall compare the target text to the source text and confirm that the target text is complete, accurate, and free from misinterpretations of the source text and that the appropriate terminology has been used throughout. Second, the editor shall read the target text in its entirety, checking for overall coherence and readability, and referring back to the source text only when necessary (ASTM F2575, 2014, p.1076).

Mossop (2014, pp.31–74) identifies editing for translation as both copyediting, which is monolingual and falls under proofreading, and stylistic editing, which refers to improving a text rather than correcting it. For Mossop, stylistic editing refers to “tailoring vocabulary and sentence structure to the readership, and creating a readable text by making sentences more concise, positioning the main verb near the subject, and so on.” (ibid., p.31).

Hassan (2014, p.85) also perceives editing as a process of comparing the TT to the ST while ‘reviewing’ the whole translated text. He states that the “editor should check for things like word choice, clarity, conciseness, consistency, jargon, and register”, while checking if the translation conveys the meaning of the ST, uses the right terminology for the target readers and reads consistently as a full unit, especially if it is translated collaboratively (ibid.).

Apparently, editing is perceived differently in the context of translation and may share aspects of proofreading and revision (see 6.1.1 and 6.1.3). It aims at improving the TT at the contextual, linguistic, and stylistic levels. However, the degree of improvement is determined upon the realisation of editing in a given idiosyncrasy (individual editors or service providers) as it could be carried out monolingually, i.e. at the unit level (TT), or bilingually by means of comparing the TT to its ST.

Editing at Kalima

According to IP4, the task of editing is defined as the process of revising a book at a general level for its suitability in context, approving the proofreading procedures and comments, and comparing it to the ST and assuring its compliance with the TL readership’s needs while maintaining consistency.

6.1.3 Revising

Revision, also sometimes called bilingual editing (BSI ISO 11669, 2012, p.4), is defined under ISO 17100 as the “bilingual examination of target language content against source language content for its suitability for the agreed purpose” (BSI, 2015, p.2). Suitability for purpose may be understood as fitting the purposes of both the TT and the expectations of its readership (Mossop, 2014, p.22). As an activity, this may include comparison between the ST and TT for terminology consistency, cohesion, register and style (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, pp.10-11). Mossop (2014, p.1) defines it as the process of “reading a translation to spot problematic passages, and making any needed corrections or improvements”. Such work is undertaken by a professional other than the translator to check for errors and apply required changes to the TT, while ensuring its faithfulness to the ST (Künzli, 2007, p.42).

Revision at Kalima

Revising translations, in the sense of ST and TT comparison, is only applied at Kalima when a proofreader comes across a doubtful sentence or when a paragraph is questionable and seems to have a logical error. This is counter to the order envisaged under ISO 17100:2015, which considers revision to be a step that should precede proofreading. In Mossop’s terms (2014 pp.159–160), this kind of revision is called unilingual re-reading in which the ST is referred to only when part of the TT (term, sentence, paragraph etc.) seems doubtful. In such cases, Kalima outsources a senior translator to revise the questionable part of the text and compare it with its ST, or revise the whole text line by line. This task, which is a form of editing, is equivalent to only undertaking the second step of the two-step process of editing as defined by the ASTM presented above, as the editor (who is a senior translator in the case of Kalima) only refers back to the ST when necessary. As proofreading precedes and informs any revisions by the editor, it can be considered part of the review process (unilingual editing), rather than a final step in its own right. Therefore, editing appears to be reactive, rather than an active part of the overall revision process. The proofreader is delegated several editing tasks, such as ensuring suitability for the readership, consistency of language, the use of appropriate terminology and identifying possible misinterpretations of the source text.

In practice, the processes of proofreading, editing and revision can overlap in many ways, despite attempts to distinguish them conceptually as correcting different aspects of texts. The ASTM acknowledges that the

editing function is sometimes confused with proofreading, which is essentially a monolingual activity. Furthermore, there are several terms other than editor (for example, reviser, reviewer, and so forth) used to designate persons who perform various aspects of the editing activity.

(ASTM F2575, 2014, p.1068).

Different organisations adopt differing strategies to improve the quality of translations. Kalima's strategy appears to rely on the translator providing a draft they have themselves checked for consistency and faithfulness of interpretation; that the proofreader has monolingual editing skills sufficient to ensure the suitability of a text in TL; and that an editor has the skills to respond to issues raised by checking for other similar issues in the source text, as well as make a final judgement. As stated earlier, ISO 17100 (2015) and ISO 11669 (2012) propose a procedural quality control model that differs significantly from Kalima's model. However, this does not necessarily mean Kalima fails to achieve its goal of providing high-quality translated texts. The key issue is whether Kalima's process for ensuring the quality of translated texts achieves its goals satisfactorily.

6.2 Proofreading and editing: translation quality issues analysed

This section introduces the main issues encountered when analysing three manuscripts, TT1, TT2 and TT3, involving proofreaders' and editors' contributions – when applicable. As presented in Chapter Four, proofreading text analysis does not follow a specific error typology as it aims at exploring and studying the proofreading and editing process performed by Kalima. The analysis therefore tracks the corrections, comments and changes of both proofreaders and editors which are marked in handwritten. However, after gathering all these changes, the process of proofreading and editing at Kalima seemed to be falling under the following categories: 1. Lexical; 2. Syntactical; 3. Textual and stylistical; and 4. Orthographical and Typographical errors. This presentation does not provide a detailed linguistic survey of these four categories. Rather, it aims to provide a literature background to issues relevant to text analysis.

Since the analysis is dealing with text translated from English into Arabic, the discussion will be limited to this area, rather than drawing a linguistic analogy

between the two languages. However, some comparisons will be touched upon when applicable and relevant. This introduction will be followed by a detailed analysis of each level according to their frequencies in the proofread and edited manuscripts.

1. Issues at the lexical level

Lexical issues are those related to the choice of words. Errors relevant to this study are described below:

1.1. Synonyms and near-synonyms

When two different words share one identical meaning they are referred to as synonyms (Cruse, 1986, p.5). Near-synonyms also refer to two different words when they have similar meanings (Fuau, 2011, p.162). This lexical phenomenon exists in both the Arabic and English systems. In Arabic it is known as (مترادفات / mutaradifāt – synonyms). A translation may have several choices as to how to render a particular English term in Arabic. Although synonyms share the same meaning, they may carry different semantic components and connotations. A lack of reflection may result in choosing a near synonym when another would be a closer equivalent to the meaning in the ST. For instance, the word ‘compliment’ can be rendered in Arabic by using one of the synonyms (إطراء / iṭrā’ – compliment) or (مديح / madīḥ – compliment). While both refer to the same sense of meaning, ‘compliment’, the translation decision should be determined by the context in which the word occurs. For instance, the former (إطراء / iṭrā’ – compliment) carries a semantic component denoting complimenting in the presence of the entity being complimented, whereas the latter (مديح / madīḥ – compliment) can be used in both cases: presence or absence (Al-^caskarī, 1997, p.51).

1.2. Transliteration

In Dickins (Dickins *et al.*, 2002, p.243) transliteration is defined as “the use of TL spelling conventions for the written representation of SL expressions”. It is known in Arabic as (نقحرة / naḥḥarah – transliteration) when foreign words are rendered in Arabic by using the Arabic alphabetical system phonetically (Ḥamzāwī, 1988). Proper nouns and the names of places need to be verified independently in proofreading as most of them cannot be confirmed by using spellcheckers (Mossop, 2014, p.44).

Transliterating English proper noun initials in Arabic is a problematic area in translation. According to Aziz (1983, pp.77–84), this problem arises due to the difficulty of determining the “phonetic value” of an initial is not possible, transcribing the initial phonetically is the ideal strategy. For instance, it would be very easy to render the initials of the name ‘D. H. Lawrence’ in Arabic as his popularity as a famous English novelist makes it easy to find out what these initials stand for, ‘David’ and ‘Herbert’, and transliterate them accordingly. However, an initial such as ‘M’ in ‘M. Smith’ can stand for any proper name beginning with ‘M’, such as Mark, Max, Martin etc. This may raise another problematic issue in terms of gender. This is because ‘M’ or any given initial can also refer to female names, such as Mary, Melissa, Madeleine etc. Generally, Aziz (ibid.) stresses the importance of following a consistent strategy when transliterating initials. It would be useful for translators to research referent initials but this could be unfruitful in some cases. Contacting authors, if possible, could be an option here.

1.3. Neologisms (coinages)

Neologism (coinage), equivalent to (صك / ṣak – coinage) in Arabic, denotes “newly coined lexical units or existing lexical units that acquire new sense” (Newmark, 1988, p.140). It is used to refer to inventions, new phenomena or concepts, such as ‘Islamophobia’, ‘selfie’, etc. Many individual and collaborative efforts have been made regarding coining terminologies from foreign languages in Arabic. Individual efforts refer to those made by translators, linguists, or writers (Chejne, 1969, pp.155–156). Among collaborative efforts, specialised institutes and academies for Arabic are based in Egypt, Syria, Iraq and Jordan (Bahumaid, 1994, p.133). It has been always a challenge to cope with the rapid and massive production of terms introduced in literature in various fields everyday around the world (Bahumaid, 1994 p.134; Darwish, 2009, pp.13–15; Al-Jarf, 2015, p.96). However, some newly coined terms are found to be inaccurate and confusing in terms of conforming to Arabic linguistic rules (Holes, 2004, p.44; Ryding, 2005, p.96), or they are used inconsistently by translators and writers (Bahumaid, 1994 p.134), such as the recently coined concept of ‘globalisation’ which is found in Arabic in two forms (الكونية / al-kawnīyah) and (العولمة / al-‘awlamah). Therefore, finding Arabic equivalents for newly coined terms poses a challenge for English>Arabic translators (Al-Jarf, 2015, p.96; Lahlali and Abu Hatab, 2014, p.89).

1.4. Inappropriateness / taboos

In Murphy's terms (2010, p.167), a taboo refers to "a set of words and expressions that are totally or partially prohibited in society". Determining what is taboo and inappropriate is dictated by each culture, as each has its own taboos (Radtke, 1983, cited in Parinin, 2013 p.149). To put it in the context of this thesis, which particularly considers translated texts targeting Arabic readers, a taboo can be summarised as blunt references related to sex, swear words, profanities and disrespectful references to certain religious concepts and symbols. For instance, criticising prominent Islamic symbols, such as the Prophet Mohammad whether implicitly or explicitly, is taboo in the Arab world, whereas it may be seen as a form of freedom of expression in other parts of the world. Such references depend on the degree of their inappropriateness, which is measured by the expectations of the target readers in a given society or culture. Such aspects should be treated carefully when translating them into Arabic by strategies such as using less expressive words (Baker, 2011, p.25) or omission (Rojo Lopez, 2009, p.174). *Euphemism*, which is equivalent to (التلطف/ Al-talaṭṭuf – euphemism) (Abū Khaḍir, 2010, p.182), is a widely used strategy in translation to render social and religious taboos (Newmark, 1998, p.142; Kao, 1994, pp.171–179). In linguistics, it is defined as "a lexical substitution strategy for representationally displacing topics that evoke negative effect" (McGlone *et al.*, 2006, p.261) for "sparing an addressee from communicative discomfort" (*ibid.*, p.262). When describing the death of a person, for example, the expression is euphemised from 'he died' to 'he passed away'. Similarly, Arabic culture uses the verb (توفي / tuwuffī – he-passed-away) rather than (مات / māta – he died) to show respect to the referent.

1.5. Additions and omissions

According to El-Farahaty (2015, p.75), addition and omission in translation may be applied to linguistic and non-linguistic elements, such as culture, context, structure, style or emphasis. Although addition and omission should be 'justified' for linguistic and cultural variations between the systems of the ST and the TT, they can also be opted unjustifiably for "the translator's stylistic preferences" (*ibid.*, p.75). However, in some cases, such decisions in translation should be tied to the content

of the ST. Reiss (2000, pp.27–31) notes that when a text is content-focused, any changes in the TT, such as addition and omission, should only be accepted for more idiomatic translation. Also, Sager argues that additions and omissions are acceptable to improve the quality and readability of a text (Sager, 1997, p.33). For example, the compound noun ‘tear-gas’, consisting of two hyphenated words that present one meaning, is usually translated as (غاز مسيل للدموع / ghāz musīl li-al-dumū^c – gas leads to shedding tears). The rendition here adds an extra lexical unit (مسيل / musīl – shedding), due to the variation between the SL and TL systems.

1.6. Collocations

Collocations are defined by Cruse (1986, p.40) as the “sequences of lexical items which habitually co-occur”. Baker refers to collocations as lexical patterning in which two lexicons tend to co-occur on a regular basis (Baker, 2011, p. 52). This linguistic phenomenon exists in Arabic, known as (المتلازمات اللفظية / al-mutalāzīmāt al-lafzīyah – collocations), and in English.

Collocations are important for effective communication (Hill, 2000, p.50). In English, for instance, the noun ‘party’ collocates with the verb ‘throw’, rather than saying to ‘do a party’. Some Arabic words also collocate with others such as (شَنَّ حرباً / shanna ḥarban – he-waged a war)

Translators should be aware of them in the TL. Collocations are an important aspect of idiomatic translation. Using them properly is a measure of the quality of a translation and a translator’s competence (Bzour, 2006, p. 65). Specialised dictionaries are available in both English and Arabic, for example *Dar El-Ilm’s Dictionary of Collocations* (2007).

1.7. Influence of dialects

The two main variations in English involve the differences between standard British English and standard American English. However, variations appear more in spoken discourse than in written (Garrido, 2010, p.63). These two main distinctions, between British English and American English, include several other variations

within the individual country. For instance, British English varies across countries of the United Kingdom, such as England, Scotland and Wales. Arabic, on the other hand, is an example of diglossia where two varieties exist in the same language and each has “a definite role to play” (Ferguson, 1959, p. 329). Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) exists alongside spoken dialects. MSA refers to the Arabic written language used in contemporary literature, journalism, radio and TV newscasting, technical and scientific writing, formal correspondence, administration, conferences and diplomacy (Bentahila, 1991, p.72; Mitchell, 1982, pp.123–124). A dialect is a “language variety with features of accent, lexis, syntax and sentence formation characteristic of a given region” (Dickins *et al.*, 2002 p.166). A spoken dialect is used in most societal situations (Grigorenko, 2009, p.295). There are many dialects in the Arab world. Each country is distinguished by its own dialect, and various dialects may also exist within the same country. Saudi Arabia, for instance, has many dialects, such as Qasīmī, Hijāzī, Najdī and Tihāmī (Prochazka, 2010, pp.19–25).

Translated texts, in the same way as other forms of written works, are expected to be delivered in MSA; however, dialects can be used in very exceptional cases, such as literary or commercial texts when the writer/ translator needs to deliver a specific effect (Dickins *et al.*, 2002, p. 168). The value of preserving dialectical features in the TT is determined by evaluating its effect and function in the ST (*ibid.*). Furthermore, the quality of translated texts is also evaluated by the consistency in using a form of language. Dickins *et al.* (*ibid.*) argue “many literary TTs in particular are sabotaged by weaknesses in the translator’s grasp of language variety. Among the many skills a translator has to have is that of pastiche”. For example, the word ‘bike’ is equivalent to (دراجة هوائية / darrājah hawā’iyah – bicycle) in MSA. It is also equivalent to (سيكل / saykal – bicycle) in GCC dialects and (عجلة / ‘ajalah – bicycle) or (بسكلتة / biskilittah – bicycle) in Egyptian dialect. A competent English>Arabic translator should distinguish between these variations and avoid the unnecessary use of Arabic dialects in written texts.

2. Syntax

Tracking proofreaders’ checks of the three translated textst (TT1, TT2, and TT3) reveals the following issues under syntax: grammatical errors, gender and number agreement, case inflection, definiteness and indefiniteness, and prepositions.

2.1. Grammatical errors

Grammatical errors commonly occur in two areas: 1. Gender and number references, 2. The Arabic case inflection system.

2.1.1. Gender and number agreement

Arabic verbs inflect for tense, person, voice, mood, gender and number, whereas Arabic nouns and adjectives inflect for gender, number, case and definiteness, while pronouns inflect for person, gender and number (Ryding, 2005, p.51). Therefore, it is important to maintain inflection in agreement with other elements of a given Arabic sentence. Consider the example below:

(زرتُ مدينتين جميلتين / zurtu madīnatayni jamīlatayni – I-visited cities-[feminine dual marker] beautiful-[feminine dual marker]). Unlike how this sentence will be rendered in English ‘I visited two beautiful cities’, Arabic nouns tend to inflect for number and gender. A dual indication is presented in the noun ‘cities’ and its adjective ‘beautiful’ by using the dual mark (ين / -ayni) in the Arabic version illustrated above. Moreover, the adjective (جميلتين / jamīlatayni – beautiful) is inflected for gender (feminine) in order to agree with the (feminine) gender of the noun (مدينتين / madīnatayni – cities-[feminine dual marker]) by adding the feminine gender marker (تاء التانيث / tā’ al-ta’nīth) as highlighted in the Arabic example in bold.

2.1.2. Case inflection

In written Arabic, words inflect for their case which expresses their syntactic function in the sentence (Ryding, 2005, pp.165–167). Arabic words inflect for three cases: nominative, genitive and accusative. These cases are marked at the end of the singular form of words by attaching diacritics: (ُ /ḍammah) for the nominative case, (ِ /kasra) for the genitive case and (َ / fathah) for the accusative case. For example, the word (المدينة / al-madīnah – the-city) in (زرتُ المدينة / zurtu al-madīnah – I-visited the-city) is marked with (َ / fathah) since it functions in the sentence as an object which should inflect for the accusative case. However, these are not the only way of marking case in Arabic, as nunation (see nunation below, 4.2, p.191) and some other vowels follow the same rule (ibid.).

Case in the dual form of Arabic words (nouns, verbs and adjectives) is marked by a suffix (ان / -ān) in the nominative case, and (ين / ayn) in both the genitive and accusative forms (Ryding, 2005, p. 188). For instance, case inflection in the dual form of (مدينتين/ madīnatayni –cities-[feminine dual marker]) is marked by the suffix (ين / ayni), since it functions as an object in the sentence, which inflects for the accusative form.

Arabic plural nouns and adjectives come in three forms: regular masculine, regular feminine and irregular plural (broken or internal plural). They are used to refer to three or more objects. The regular masculine plural form is marked by adding the suffixes (ونَ / -ūna) for the nominative case and (ينَ / īna) in the genitive and accusative cases, such as (المدرّسونَ / al-mudarrisūna – teachers-[masculine plural suffix in the masculine nominative case]) and (المدرّسينَ / al-mudarrisīna – teachers-[masculine plural suffix in the genitive or accusative case]) depending on their functions in sentences. The feminine plural, however, is marked by adding the feminine plural suffix (ات / -āt), such as in (المدرّسات / al-mudarrisāt – teachers-[feminine plural suffix]). The case inflection here is marked by attaching a diacritic to the last letter (ت / tā' – t), according to the function of the word in sentences, i.e. (ُ / dammah) for the nominative case, (ِ / kasra) for the genitive case and (َ / fathah/ for the accusative case (Ratcliffe, 1990, pp.106–110). The irregular form of the plural in Arabic is known as the broken or internal plural (جمع تكسير / jam' taksīr – broken plural). Unlike the other two forms of plurals, it is not marked by suffixation. Rather, it is marked internally by modifying the word's formation (ibid., p.111). For instance, the word (مدير / mudīr – manager) is marked as a plural by modifying its formation to (مدراء / mudarā' – managers). Case inflection for a broken plural is marked in the same form as the singular (Ibrāhīm and Al-Zahrānī, 2012, p.66). The quality of translation in Arabic is also measured by following such fundamental rules, which should be taken into consideration when translating.

As for marking case inflection in Arabic writing with diacritics in general, on the one hand, Campbell and Moseley (2012, p.4) argue that using them is in most cases optional. On the other hand, Habash and Sadat (2012, p.77) claim that marking words with diacritics is important to reduce any word or semantic ambiguity that might arise due to their absence. Some Arabic sentence structures entail employing diacritics for better comprehension (Zbib and Soudi, 2012, p.1). The decision,

therefore, remains in the hands of the translator and the proofreader. However, grammatical case inflection should be presented in a correct manner in case it is decided to be added. That is, diacritics should be employed to express the stylistic function of a given word in a sentence according to the established grammatical and syntactic rules. However, Kalima advises their proofreaders to use diacritics as a matter of course in children's books only, while using them in other books when necessary, i.e. to avoid ambiguity.

2.2. Definiteness and indefiniteness

Similarly to English, definiteness is expressed in Arabic by the article (الـ / al- – The) (Ryding, 2005, pp.40–54). This definiteness marker is used at the beginning of Arabic nouns and adjectives to express their definiteness (Abū Shaqrā, 2007 p.31). Indefiniteness, which is presented in English by using 'a' or 'an', is marked in Arabic by nunation (tanwīn) – attaching the diacritics (َ /-an), (ُ /-un) or (ِ /-in) to the end of a word depending on its final inflectional vowel, according to its grammatical case (Ryding, 2005, pp.42–43). The indefiniteness of the word (كتاب / kitāb – book) in (رأيتُ كتاباً / ra'aytu **kitāban** – I-saw a-book-[nutation in the accusative case]) is marked by attaching nunation in the accusative form (ً / -an) to the end of the word, as it functions as an object in the given sentence. Nevertheless, nunation does not always indicate the indefiniteness of words (Badawi *et al.*, 2015, p.32; Al-Tobachi and Hamood, 2008, pp.73-74).

2.3. Prepositions

Prepositions in Arabic function like those in English referring to location and time. Arabic prepositions can also be used for abstractive references and in conjunction with verbs to denote a specific meaning (Ryding, 2005, p.366). Some prepositions in Arabic are also used as connectives and cohesive devices, as they link Arabic sentences together (Ammār, 1998, p.23). They also play a vital role in determining the relationships between verbs and nouns (*ibid.*), e.g. the preposition (في / fī – in) in (الطالب جالس في الصف / al-ṭālib jālis **fī** al-ṣaf – the-student is-sitting **in** the-class). The preposition here determines the relationship between the verb (جالس / jālis – is-sitting) and the noun (الصف / al-ṣaf – the-class).

Arabic prepositions are used very frequently, with various usages and denotations (Ammār 1998, p.25). However, Arabic grammarians argue that prepositions should be used properly in references to coupled verbs or nouns as each usage has its own rhetorical and connotative associations (Ammār, 1998, p. 29). Using the correct preposition in Arabic is, however, one of problematic issue in Arabic writing (Husni and Watson, 2006, p.218). Choosing the right preposition depends on understanding the context of the word to which it refers, rather than just relying on a coupled dictionary definition. Moreover, the incorrect use of Arabic prepositions may be due to mixing colloquial knowledge of Arabic with Modern Standard Arabic which is used mainly for writing Arabic texts (ibid.). Another reason is said to relate to the gap between the language used by Arabic intellectuals and linguists. In contributions by the former to literature, they tend to use Arabic different prepositions interchangeably, resulting in common mistakes in using prepositions among Arabic writers (Ammār, 1998, p.25).

2.4. Word order and sentence structure

Word order differs greatly between English and Arabic. An English sentence is almost always nominal as it generally follows the structure (Subject + verb + complement). Arabic sentences, on the other hand, can be either nominal or verbal (Abū Shaqrā, 2007, p.32). In the nominal case, the sentence is introduced by a noun and can be verbless, such as (المدينة جميلة / al-madīnah jamīlah – the city beautiful). Such sentences are verbless due to the absence of the verb *to be* in Arabic (Ziadeh and Winder, 2003, p.23). To render this sentence in English, the sentence would be as follows: *The city is beautiful*, whereas in Arabic it is rendered without the copular verb *is*, as exemplified above. A verbal sentence begins with a verb, i.e. [Verb + Subject + complement], such as in (قرأ الطالب الكتاب / qara'a al-ṭālib al-kitāb – the-student read the-book) or [read + the-student + the-book]. According to Ziadeh and Winder (2003, p.23) this is the 'dominant' type of Arabic sentence structure. However, choices when positioning words can be determined in some cases by issues of emphasis.

3. Textual and stylistic choices

Issues at the textual and stylistic levels appear in areas concerning punctuation, cohesion, and layout. There are also important quality indicators of English>Arabic translation. Below is a discussion of these areas:

3.1. Punctuation marks

Punctuation marks in English play graphological, semantic and stylistic roles in writing (Ghazala, 2004, p.230). Arabic uses the same punctuation marks that are used in European languages although some of them are written in reverse direction, as Arabic is written from right to left (Abboud and McCarus, 1983, p.10). However, there is no standardised Arabic system of punctuation (El-Farahaty, 2015, p.51, 149). Using commas, semicolons and full stops in Arabic texts is very idiosyncratic and mostly depends on the logical functions of statements (Marzari, 2006 p.55; Holes, 2004, p.251). Generally speaking, using punctuation marks in Arabic is optional, yet translators need to take them into consideration when rendering them from English into Arabic for the function they deliver (Al-Rawi, 1966; Ghazala, 2004, p.235).

It should be noted that the accumulation of written materials has established greater familiarity with punctuation marks among Arabic users over time. However, many Arabic writers use punctuation marks inconsistently due to the absence of standardised usage. The influence of translation can play another role in this inconsistency.

3.1.1. Semicolons and dashes

A semicolon is used in English to indicate that two sentences between which it is placed are related and closely connected (Avants and Benahnia, 2003, p.52). However, in Arabic texts, Ghazala (2004, pp.232–233) states that the semicolon “is almost absent, and in modern Arabic it is rarely used”. Yet some writers use it in Arabic between two sentences when the second clarifies, explains, or justifies the first (Al-Tūjnī, 1986, 34).

Dashes are used in English writing to indicate emphasis, hesitation or a shift in tone. They are also used between content phrases interrupting the flow of a sentence, before a term’s definition, or before a statement summarising or describing listed

items (Blakesley and Hoogeveen, 2011, p.522). In Arabic, however, dashes are used more commonly between phrases of interruption. Although commas can also be used in Arabic for such a function, using dashes in Arabic allows inserting commas in phrases between them (Al-Tūjnī, 1986, 35).

3.1.2. Commas and full stops

There seems to be a general consensus about placing commas and full stops in Arabic (Marzari, 2006, p.55). Full stops are used to end sentences, whereas Arabic texts employ commas to enhance readability and avoid confusion or misunderstandings (Ghazala, 2004, p.234). Arabic sentences tend to be lengthy (Dickins *et al.*, 2002, pp. 131, 136). Thus, employing commas to divide run-on or lengthy sentences enhances the readability of Arabic texts (Ghazala, 2004, pp.230, 236).

3.1.3. Colons

Although punctuation marks in Arabic are not established and agreed upon in terms of function, employing them for the right purpose, such as preceding a statement with a colon, emphasises the fact that what follows is a statement or quotation (ibid.).

3.1.4. Direction of punctuation marks

Unlike English, the Arabic writing system is from right to left, which results in changing the direction of some of punctuation marks accordingly (Abboud and McCarus, 1983, p.10). This can be argued to be too insignificant to discuss. However, the analysis indicates that it is one of the overlooked issues that is worth highlighting in proofreading.

3.2. Cohesive devices

Cohesion is defined by Dickins *et al.* (2002, p.128) as the “transparent linking of sentences (and larger sections of text) by explicit discourse connectives like ‘then’, ‘so’, ‘however’, and so on”. Cohesion in Arabic, however, is marked more explicitly by using conjunctive tools such as the additive article و (and) – the most frequent conjunction in Arabic texts (Khalil, 2000, p.142). These conjunctions are used very

frequently in Arabic to link sentences, clauses, phrases and paragraphs within a text (Ryding, 2005, p.407). Their significance lies in maintaining cohesion and coherence in the absence of a well-established punctuation system in Arabic.

3.3. Layout and typography

Layout is an important aspect when ensuring the quality of translation (Matis, 2011, p.147). Snell-Hornby (1999, p.102) states that verbal elements are neither complete nor publishable unless the quality of other non-verbal elements (layout and typography), such as margins, spacing, colour, fonts, paragraphing and illustrations, is maintained. Translators are expected to present the TT in a satisfactory form to the publisher or target readers (Schopp, 2002, p.272). It can be argued, however, that such technical aspects should be left to copyeditors who are responsible for producing the TT in the required layout or form. However, it depends on how these tasks are perceived within the translation project management, which should specify who does what.

The physical organisation of a text helps readers to comprehend its conceptual structure (Mossop, 2014, p.77). Translators, revisers, proofreaders or editors may opt for structural modifications in order to improve the argument, such as restructuring paragraphs and dividing sentences (*ibid.*, p.81).

Similarities and variations between language systems (SL and TL) should also be realised. In the case of paragraphing, for example, on the one hand, Dickins *et al.* (2002, p.138) argue that Arabic and English have “similar conventions for paragraphing” whereby “paragraphs typically cover a particular scene or episode within the overall set of scenes or episodes covered by the large global text”. On the other hand, the fact that Arabic is written from right to left requires translators to make sure that all other physical aspects of the text change accordingly, such as indentations, point-form lists, tables etc. It is worth noting that quality in this regard is also assured by maintaining consistency, e.g. bolding and italicising should be applied throughout a given text for the same purpose (Mossop, 2014, p.148). Kalima’s proofreading guidelines involve three aspects: layout consistency regarding headings, subheadings and page numbers in references in the table of

contents; separating long paragraphs logically; and the presentation of English sentences amidst Arabic text.

4. Orthography

Awad (2012, p.225) states that spelling errors and ‘typos’ change the structure of a sentence and the ability to understand its content, distort the writing of texts, lead to changing the meaning and deliver unclear ideas. Mossop (2014, p.44) also argues that spelling errors are distracting, slow the reading speed and can affect the meaning and the reader’s confidence in the text and the publisher. The following considers errors related to hamza, nunation and typos:

4.1. Hamza

Hamza (ء / ’) is a letter in the Arabic alphabet. It is a consonant that indicates a voiceless glottal stop (Campbell and Moseley, 2012, p.46). There are a number of rules associated with hamza in terms of spelling. Discussing them is beyond the scope of this research. Hence only those appearing in the proofread manuscripts are summarised in the examples below:

4.1.2. Initial hamza

When hamza is the initial consonant of a word, it is always written on the letter *alif* as (أ / ’a), (إ / ’u) or (إِ / ’i), such as in (أنف / ’anf – nose), (أم / ’um – mother) and (إشارة / ’ishārah – sign). Not attaching the initial hamza to *alif* is a common typographical error in Arabic. Awad (2012, p.242) argues that the tendency towards not attaching the initial hamza to *alif* in Arabic writing is due to a lack of focus and the ease of writing *alif* without getting confused over hamza’s position.

4.1.2. Medial hamza

When hamza occurs in the middle of a word, it can be written on three Arabic letters: (أ / alif), (و / wāw) or (ي / yā’). The rule for its spelling states that it is written on (ي / yā’) as in (ي / i’) if it is preceded and/or followed by (ي / yā’) or (ك / kasra) – a diacritic that represents a short version of the sound /i/, such as in (بيئر / bi’r – well). Also, in the absence of (ي / yā’) or (ك / kasra), hamza is written on (و / wāw) as (و / u’) if it is preceded and/or followed by (و / wāw) or (د / dammah), which is a short

version of the sound /u/, such as in (مؤتمر/ mu'tamar – conference). Hamza is written on (ا / alif) if it is preceded and/or followed by (ا / alif) or (َ / fatḥah) – a diacritic that represents a short /a/, such as in (رأس / ra's – head). But in the absence of both vowels and diacritics it is (ي / yā'), (و / wāw), (ك / kasrah) or (ُ / ḍammah). On the other hand, it should be written on the line if it is preceded by a long vowel, (ā / ā) or (ū / ū), or hamza itself has a (َ / fatḥah) or is followed by it (Schulz, 2004, pp.6-7), such as in (عباءة / 'abā'ah - gown).

4.1.3. Final hamza

According to Schulz (ibid.), the rule for writing final hamza can be summarised as two points: (1) hamza should be written on the line if it occurs at the end of a word and is preceded by a long vowel, diphthong or (ْ / sukūn) – a diacritic that is written on the top of consonants to indicate that this consonant is not followed by a vowel, e, g. (سماء / samā' – sky); (2) It follows the rule for medial hamza if it is not preceded by a vowel or (ْ / sukūn), such as in (جزء / juz' – part).

4.1.4. Strong hamza vs soft hamza

Strong hamza (همزة القطع / hamzat al-qaṭ' – strong hamza) is identified by writing the symbol hamza (ء). Weak hamza (همزة الوصل / hamzat al-waṣl – soft hamza), in contrast, is symbolised by writing *alif* (ا) but without hamza (Al-Kafawi, 1837, pp.5–6). The former is illustrated in (اسم / ism – name), while the latter is important to differentiate between them for spelling and pronunciation purposes (Ryding, 2005 pp.16–19).

4.1.5. Rules for hamza regarding (انَّ / inna) and (أَنَّ / anna)

Ibn-^oaqīl (1980, p.355), states that when (أَنَّ / anna - that) comes after a particle (حيثُ / ḥaiṭhu- that-is), at the beginning of a given statement, or after a stem verb (قالَ / qāla – to say) and its derivatives, it becomes compulsory for hamza to be in the opening case (fatḥa), i.e. placing it on top of the *alif* to produce the short version of the sound /a/.

4.2. Nunation (tanwīn)

Nunation (tanwīn) is used to mark the indefiniteness of nouns and adjectives (Abū Shaqrā, 2007, p.31). Grammatically speaking, nunation is used to indicate the grammatical case of nouns. For instance, it marks nouns in their nominative, genitive and accusative cases through (ُ /un), (ِ /in) and (َ/an), respectively (Schulz, 2004, p.4). Consider nunation in this example: قرأتُ كتاباً مفيداً/ qara'tu **kitāban mufidan** – I read a useful book). The indefinite object here (كتاباً/ **kitāban** – book) and its adjective (مفيداً/ **mufidan** – useful) are marked with nunation in the accusative case. Unlike other issues mentioned above, Kalima proofreading guidelines attach particular importance to adding nunation marks to indefinite words that inflect for the accusative case with (ا / alif). This, however, raises the question of the significance of highlighting specific issues in the guidelines, which will be revisited in the discussion below.

4.3. General ‘typos’

Topkara (2007, p. 60) states that ‘typos’ can be a result of “speed typing” or “incorrect spelling knowledge”. It is a common issue with which proofreaders deal when reviewing translated texts. However, translators are expected to revise their work before submission. This should eliminate ‘typos’ occurring due to speed typing and save time for other professionals involved in revising a translated document, which should reflect positively on improving the quality of the translation workflow.

6.3 Proofreading analysis of three translated books: (TT1, TT2 and TT3)

Introduction

For the proofreading and editing processes, Kalima provided the manuscripts of three books translated from English into Arabic (TT1, TT2, and TT3). The translations of these books have been proofread by different proofreaders. They were translated as Word documents and then proofread manually and edited by hand. These manuscripts are marked by hand by the proofreaders in red pen, with some including contributions from the editor as well in blue pen, which are very minor, as illustrated in the examples provided in Appendices E and F.

The proofreading analysis of each manuscript (TT1, TT2, and TT3) included all parts of the books, including the cover page, title, author's name, translator, copyright page, table of contents, body of the book, headings, headers and endnotes, while the reference page was kept in English, as presented in the English (ST1, ST2, and ST3) versions.

The input of the editor (corrections in blue pen) in manuscripts TT1 and TT3 is absent. This may be due to one of the following reasons: (1) the text is complete, i.e. all required and necessary changes and corrections have been made by the first editor; or (2) The editing stage has been skipped. The input of the editor of TT2, however, appears in two instances; the first verifies a note left by the proofreader regarding a statement in TT2 which s/he thinks may contradict the beliefs of the target. The editor checked the statement and decided to keep it in TT2 by drawing a ✓ symbol in blue pen (see Appendix E in TT2, p.210).

The second input from the editor concerns another note left by the proofreader. This note highlights the absence of two documents: 1. A book overview; and 2. an author biography. The editor crossed out this note which refers to this (see Appendix F in TT2, p.428).

The following is a thorough analysis of the corrections and comments added manually by the proofreaders (in red pen) to these three manuscripts. This analysis

aims to study the processes of proofreading adopted by Kalima's proofreaders and to check whether these processes have a common pattern.

Analysis of TT1, TT2 and TT3

The following section presents a detailed analysis of the proofreading processes of the three aforementioned books. The issues analysed for each book are based on their frequencies presented in Table 11 below:

Ref.	Changes and corrections	Frequencies		
		TT1	TT2	TT3
1. Lexis				
1.1	Synonyms and near synonyms	3	6	3
1.2	Transliteration	4	6	5
1.3	Neologisms (coinages)	2	1	0
1.4	Inappropriateness / taboos	2	1	20
1.5	Additions	7	2	0
1.5	Omissions	13	8	9
1.6	Collocations	0	2	1
1.7	Influence of dialect	0	3	0
Total		31	29	38
2. Syntax				
2.1.1	Gender and number agreement	27	43	32
2.1.2	Case inflection	6	13	6
2.2	Definiteness and indefiniteness	5	6	1
2.3	Prepositions	25	64	32
2.4	Word order and sentence structure	12	0	6
Total		75	126	77
3. Textual and stylistic choices				
3.3	Punctuation marks	212	223	32
3.3	Cohesive devices	2	23	1
3.4	Layout and typography	59	53	0
Total		273	299	33
4. Orthography				
4.1	Hamza	93	14	16
4.2	Nunation (tanwīn)	36	18	15
4.3	General typos	73	60	57
Total of all errors		202	92	88

Table 11: Proofreading changes and corrections

The table presents the frequencies of four categories of errors and issues raised when proofreading TT1, TT2 and TT3: 1. lexis, 2. syntax, 3. textual and stylistic choices, and 4. orthography. These issues are discussed below as they appear in the texts, in detail, i.e. by analysing examples from the proofreading manuscripts and studying the proofreaders' decisions in relation to the translators' decisions. Some issues were excluded from the analysis due to their absence in the texts, where Table 11 indicates this with the number '0'. As stated earlier, the proofreaders at Kalima do not have access to the STs. Besides, they are not asked to compare ST to TT. However, most of the examples below are presented in relation to the STs for comprehension, comparison and analysis purposes, as required.

6.3.1 Analysis of TT1

About the book (ST1)

The title of the first book (ST1) is *Cultural Theory and Popular Culture* by John Storey. This 2009 book, which comprises 296 pages, provides an overview of cultural theory and the components of popular culture. The book is a significant reference for understanding popular culture and other cultural theories. The manuscript provided (TT1) was co-translated by two translators and marked manually by both an Arabic proofreader and an editor.

1. Issues at the lexical level

As presented in Table 11 above, 31 changes were made to TT1 at the lexical level. The following analyses include samples of these changes occurring in areas related to synonyms, transliteration, neologisms (coinages), additions and omissions.

1.1. Synonyms and near synonyms

Different synonyms for “debate”, “Classical Marxism” and “endnotes” were chosen by the translator and the proofreader. The word ‘debate’ in “the the post-war debate” (TT1, p.4) is translated as (جدل / jadal – debate) in (جدل ما بعد الحرب / jadal mā ba°d al-hrb – debate of-what-is-after the-war) and replaced with the word (مناقشات / munāqashā – discussions) by the proofreader. According to the *Contemporary Dictionary of Arabic* (Omar, 2008), both words are semantically equivalent as they

denote an activity where ‘exchanging opinions’ is taking place. However, the word (مناقشات / munāqashāt – discussions) has a stronger connotation than the former in connoting academic debate. Moreover, the use of the word (جدل / jadal – debate) may also be associated with a negative argument. The proofreader may thus have replaced the word (جدل / jadal – debate) with (مناقشات / munāqashāt – discussions) to avoid this semantic association (ibid.).

Another instance where the proofreader of the TT1 changes the lexicon for such a slight semantic difference is in (الماركسية التقليدية / al-mārkiṣīyah al-taqlīdīyah – traditional Marxism) (TT1, p.6), which can be back-translated literally as ‘traditional Marxism’. The proofreader changed this term to (الماركسية الكلاسيكية / al-mārkiṣīyah al-klasīkīyah – classical Marxism). However, (الماركسية التقليدية / al-mārkiṣīyah al-taqlīdīyah – traditional Marxism) (TT1, p.6) appears in the ST1 as ‘Classical Marxism’. The terms ‘Classical Marxism’ and ‘Traditional Marxism’ are used interchangeably in literature to refer to the same concept, yet it is established as ‘classical’ (Rees, 1998). In Arabic, these terms, (كلاسيكي / klasīkī – classical) and (تقليدي / taqlīdī – traditional), are found in literature equally (Omar, 2008). Thus, deciding which one to go for here is a matter of preference. Nevertheless, it could be argued the translator should have opted for ‘Classical’ rather than ‘Traditional’, for the fact that the concept was initially introduced as ‘Classical Marxism’ (Rees, 1998).

The word ‘endnotes’ has been translated as (الهوامش / al-hawāmish – margins) (TT1, p.8). According to the Contemporary Dictionary of Arabic (Omar, 2008), (الهوامش / al-hawāmish – margins) is the plural form of (الهامش / al-hāmish – margin). It is defined by its synonym (الحاشية / al-ḥāshiyah – margin) – a singular form of (الحواشي / al-ḥawāshī – the margins) which, in turn, is defined as the margins of books, texts or letters where clarifications and notes are added. Although both words, (الهوامش / al-hawāmish – the margin) and (الحواشي / al-ḥawāshī – the margins), are synonyms, choosing between them seems to be a matter of preference. Kalima’s senior proofreader states that (الحواشي / al-ḥawāshī – margins) and (الهوامش / al-hawāmish – margins) are like any other synonyms where they are subject to the preferences and choices of translators/ proofreaders (IP7). When it comes to terminology, Kalima pays strong attention to maintaining consistency at the unit level, i.e. within the book

itself. Thus, if a translator, proofreader or editor decides to use (الحواشي / al-ḥawāshī – margins), for example, rather than (الهوامش / al-hawāmish – margins), s/he needs to make sure it is used consistently throughout the book (IP7). Similarly, the proofreader’s input here is to maintain consistency by matching headlines with the table of contents. This, however, is determined by the decisions of the translators in (TT1, p. 379), where one of them translated ‘endnotes’ as (الحواشي / al-ḥawāshī – margins), while the table of contents refers to it as (الهوامش / al-hawāmish – margins) (TT1, p.8).

1.2. Transliteration

Including the English versions of proper nouns in TT1 seems to be a preferred choice of the translator, and they were kept and maintained by the proofreader. The proofreader corrected the transliterations of a few proper nouns in TT1. Including the English versions of proper nouns and names of places in TT1 along with their Arabic transliterations on their first appearances in the text seems to be a helpful factor for more efficient proofreading. For instance, the name ‘Jenkins’ that appears in English in TT1 (p. 357) is transliterated by the translator as (جنكنز / Jinkinz – Jenkinz) along with its English version ‘Jenkinz’. However, the same name appears later in the same text (TT1, p.360) but is rendered as (جنكينز / Jinkīnz – Jenkynz) without its English version. The proofreader, however, could correct its transliteration in this instance, based on presenting the name’s English version earlier in p.357, by removing the long vowel /ī/ from the name to gives (جنكنز / Jinkinz – Jenkinz).

1.3. Neologisms (coinages)

Terms relating to “the Cultural School” and “postmodernism” created problems for TT1. Culturalism is a philosophical concept that was introduced in English in 1919 by the philosopher Florian Znaniecki (Znaniecki, 1919 as cited in Hałas, 2010, pp.123–124). It refers to the idea of identifying people and their actions within their culture (McNay, 2008, p.56). The translator of ST1 rendered this concept in Arabic as two terms split by a slash

(الثقافية / المذهب الثقافي / al-thaqāfiyah / al-madh-hab al-thaqāfi – Culturalism/ the Cultural School) (TT1, p.4), suggesting the validity of both or leaving it to the proofreader/ editor to decide which one to keep. The reason for this elaborate rendition may be due to the absence of an established equivalent in Arabic. The

translator here opted for translation by addition, for clarification and to avoid ambiguity (Dickins *et al.*, 2002, p.18). The proofreader, however, excluded the first suggestion (الثقافية / al-thaqāfiyah – Culturalism) and changed the first word of the second suggestion as follows:

Example TT1.1.3a	
ST1, p.V	Culturalism
TT1, p.4 (translator)	الثقافية/ المذهب الثقافي
Transliteration	al-thaqāfiyah/ al-madh-hab al-thaqāfi
English gloss	culturalism/ the cultural school
TT1, p.4 (proofreader)	النزعة الثقافية
Transliteration	al-naz ^h ah al-thaqāfiyah
English gloss	The Cultural tendency

The proofreader changed the word (المذهب / al-madh-hab – school) to (النزعة / annaz^hah – tendency). As Arabic is an inflectional language in terms of gender (Ryding 2005, p.51), the change to the feminine-gender noun (النزعة / annaz^hah – tendency) is followed by correcting its adjective (الثقافية / al-thaqāfiyah – cultural), by adding (-iyah). According to *the Contemporary Dictionary of Arabic*, (Omar, 2008), (المذهب / al-madh-hab – the-school) refers to a set of ideas, scientific and philosophical theories presenting a harmonious approach to thinking. For instance, the different philosophies and schools in psychology are rendered in Arabic as (المذاهب / al-mathāhib – the-schools). Therefore, the proofreader’s change to it, as shown in the table above, may be due to preference rather than semantic considerations. (المذهب / al-madh-hab – the-school) is used in many disciplines to refer to such distinctions and perspectives.

Encyclopedia Britannica (2015) describes ‘postmodernism’ as “a reaction against the philosophical assumptions and values of the modern period of Western (specifically European) history—i.e., the period from about the time of the scientific revolution of the 16th and 17th centuries to the mid-20th century”. As opposed to objectivism, truth regarding the arts, architecture, economic and political knowledge is no longer a set of facts. Rather, it is determined by the relative and subjective understanding of people (Miller and Real, 1998, p.18). The ‘postmodern’, therefore,

is used as an adjective for the postmodernism condition, whereas ‘postmodernity’ refers to the state of being postmodern (*The Oxford English Dictionary*, 2015).

This term merges two free morphemes (post + modern) to create an independent concept. In linguistics, this kind of formulation is called *blending* – merging two words into a single linguistic unit (Crystal, 2008). The term ‘postmodern’ is presented in two derivations in the ST: ‘postmodernism’ and ‘postmodernity’. The Arabic rendition of them, arguably, follows the English formulation of the term by adding the Arabic equivalents of both morphemes (prefix + noun), giving the concepts ‘postmodern’, ‘postmodernism’ and ‘postmodernity’. This strategy of rendering (also called ‘compounding’ or ‘coining’) is thought to help translators to coin Arabic terms that are introduced in foreign languages (Darwish, 2009 p.117; Elmgrab, 2011). The prefix ‘post’ is replaced by (ما بعد / mā-ba‘d – what-is after), whereas the words ‘modern’, ‘modernism’ and ‘modernity’ are rendered in this manuscript as various derivations of the verbal noun (حداثة / ḥadāthah – modernity). As for the term ‘post-modern’, the prefix ‘post’ is replaced as explained above. Yet, the other part of the term ‘modern’ can be interpreted as a noun and an adjective which correspond to two different patterns in Arabic; (حداثة / ḥadāthah – modernity) (noun) and (حديث / ḥadīth – modern) (adjective). Although the term ‘postmodern’ is an established concept, as explained above, its existence beside the two derivatives of it, ‘postmodernity’ and ‘postmodernism’ (see example TT1.1.3b), entails drawing this distinction when rendering them in Arabic in accordance with the established guidelines for Arabic neologisms.

According to the *Cambridge Dictionary* (McIntosh, 2013), the suffix –ism is “used to form nouns that refer to social, political, or religious beliefs, studies, or ways of behaving”, whereas the prefix –ity is “added to adjectives to form nouns referring to a state or quality”. Darwish (2009, p.126) states that Arabic guidelines do not cover some areas of rendering English terminology, such as drawing a distinction between terms ending with ‘-ism’ and ‘-ity’. Unlike other linguists such as Badarneh (2007, pp.142–143) and Ryding (2005, pp.50, 99–100), Darwish (2009, p.126) argues that adding the bound morpheme (ية / -īyah) does not recognise this distinction. He, therefore, refers to the guidelines of the *Arab Development Institute for Arabic terminology* rendition where countable terms can be rendered by adding (ية / -īyah) to the singular of terms ending with ‘-ity’, while adding it to the plurals of terms

ending with ‘-ism’ in his examples (فردية / fardīyah – individuality) and (أفرادية / afrādīyah – individualism). On the other hand, rendering uncountable terms such as ‘postmodernity’ and ‘postmodernism’ in Arabic is still an area in question.

Apparently, ‘postmodernism’, ‘postmodernity’ and ‘postmodern’ are terms which are rendered inconsistently in Arabic by both translator and proofreader throughout TT1. This inconsistency can be clarified through the examples in the table below:

	ST1	TT1	Translator	Proofreader
Example TT1.1.3b				
ST1, p. VI	‘The postmodern condition’	TT1, p.7	حالة ما بعد الحداثة	-
Transliteration			mā ba ^c d al- ḥadāthah	
English gloss			what-is-after the-modernity	
Example TT1.1.3c				
ST1, p. VI	‘Postmodern pop music’	TT1, p.7	موسيقى البوب ما بعد الحداثة	موسيقى البوب ما بعد الحداثيّة
Transliteration			mā ba ^c d al-ḥadāthah	mā ba ^c d al-ḥadāthīyah
English gloss			what-is-after the-modernity	what-is-after the-modernism-[in the feminine form]
Example TT1.1.3d				
ST1, p. VI	‘Postmodern television’	TT1, p.7	التلفزيون ما بعد الحداثي	-
Transliteration			mā ba ^c d al-ḥadāthiyy	
English gloss			what-is-after the-modernism-[in the masculine form]	

Examples TT1.1.3a to TT1.1.3g illustrate the three different ways in which the translator decided to render the term ‘postmodern’, i.e. as: (ما بعد الحداثة) / mā ba^cd al-ḥadāthah – what-is-after the-modernity-[in feminine form]), (ما بعد الحداثي) / ma ba^cd al-ḥadāthiyy – what-is-after the-modernity-[in masculine form]) or (ما بعد الحداثيّة) / ma ba^cd al-ḥadāthīyah – what-is-after the-modernism-). There appears to be no consistent pattern underlying the decisions for choosing between them. The lack of a rationale is also indicated by the fact that the term appears to be used as both a noun and an adjective interchangeably. For instance, examples TT1.1.3b to TT1.1.3e represent separate headings from the table of contents, where all the renderings are in the form of adjectives to describe nouns. In Arabic, adjectives inflect for the gender of the noun being described (Ryding, 2005, p.51). The proofreader, however,

corrected this inflection only once (in TT1.1.3c), whereas the other three are not corrected.

Similarly, the distinction between ‘postmodernity’ and ‘postmodernism’, explained above, is not rendered in the translation, as may be seen in the examples below:

	ST1	TT1	Translator	Proofreader
Example TT1.1.3e				
ST1, p.83	..Postmodernism..	TT1, p.142	ما بعد الحداثة	-
Transliteration			mā ba [°] d al-ḥadāthah	
English gloss			what-is-after the-modernity	
Example TT1.1.3f				
ST1, p. 233	‘..cultural studies has been radically challenged as debates about postmodernism and postmodernity.’	TT1, p.372	حول ما بعد الحداثة وما بعد التحديث	-
Transliteration			mā-ba [°] d al-ḥadāthah wa mā-ba [°] d al-taḥadīth	
English gloss			What-is-after the-modernity and what-is-after the-modernization	

Although methods for dealing with uncountable terms are not covered in English>Arabic translation studies (Darwish, 2009, p.126), Arabic dictionaries suggest there is a distinction with ‘postmodernity’ rendered as (ما بعد الحداثة / ma-ba[°]d al-ḥadāthah – what-is-after modernity), and ‘postmodernism’ rendered as (ما بعد الحداثة / ma-ba[°]d al-ḥadāthīyah – what-is-after-modernism-[in the feminine form]) (*Al-Maany English-Arabic Dictionary*, 2010). Apparently, as shown in the the examples TT1.1.3b-f, neither translator nor proofreader of TT1 is sure how to correctly render ‘postmodern’, resulting in inconsistent renderings in the final translation.

1.4. Inappropriateness / taboos

ST1 involves such references which are maintained by the translator as follows:

Example TT1.1.4	
ST1, p.24:	Hollywood films are ‘largely masturbatory’
TT1, p.51 (translator)	أفلام هوليوود تثير الاستمنااء
Transliteration	aflām hulīwūd tuthīr al-istimnā’
English gloss	Movies of-Hollywood excite the-masturbation
TT1, p.51, (proofreader)	أفلام هوليوود تثير الشهوات
Transliteration	aflām hulīwūd tuthīr al-shahawāt
English gloss	movies of-Hollywood excite the-lusts

The translator here translated the word “masturbatory” overtly in the TT as (الاستمنااء / al-istimnā’ – masturbation), whereas the proofreader euphemised its rendition in Arabic by using the word (الشهوات / al-shahawāt – the-lusts) instead. Similarly, the blunt and overt effect of the word “masturbatory” is reduced by using (الشهوات / al-shahawāt – the-lusts). Although the word ‘lust’ generally refers to a strong and passionate desire for something, it connotes ‘strong sexual desires’ in one of its semantic aspects. The replacement in this example by the proofreader maintains the ST1 message effectively while adapting to the target receptors’ expectations. However, it seems that the translator’s interpretation of the word “masturbatory” in this context is taken more literally than what was intended by the author. The context suggests that such films are self-indulgent and self-referential – not relating to exciting sexual passion or activity, but relating metaphorically to activity which is inward-looking rather than to an external audience. This may be an even more important quality issue to consider – how much translators and revisers are aware of subculturally common metaphors in the source language which English speakers in other countries rarely use due to their vulgar or obscene connotations in other cultures and subcultures.

1.5. Additions and omissions

Among seven additions, a photograph caption in TT1 (p.197) was modified by the proofreader, by lexical addition, as follows:

Example TT1.1.5a	
ST1, p. 120	a black soldier saluting the flag
TT1, p.197 (translator)	جندي أسود يؤدي التحية للعلم
Transliteration	jundī aswad yu’addī al-taḥīyat li-al- ^c alam
English gloss	a-black soldier is-performing salutation to-the-flag
TT1, p.197 (proofreader)	جندي أسود يؤدي تحية للعلم الفرنسي
Transliteration	jundī aswad yu’addī al-taḥīyat li-al- ^c alam al-faransī
English gloss	a-black soldier is-performing salutation to-the-flag the-French

The caption is preceded by a thorough explanation and discussion of the photograph, where the author writes, in ST1, p.119, of a “black soldier saluting the French flag”. This is rendered equally in TT1, p.119, as (جندي أسود يؤدي التحية للعلم الفرنسي / jundī aswad yu’addī al-taḥīyah li-al-^calam al-faransī – a-black soldier is-performing salutation to-the-flag the-French). The proofreader, thus, chose to add the adjective (الفرنسي / al-faransī – the-French) in this instance (TT1, p.197) based on the earlier presentation for more clarification and emphasis (Dickins *et al.*, 2002, p.18).

Significant among the 13 omissions are several instances suggested by the proofreader to avoid redundancy or ambiguity. For instance, the translator rendered “Queery theory” (ST1, p. 160) as (نظرية تحرر الشاذ / naẓarīyat taḥarrur al-shādh – theory of liberating the-queer). The proofreader actually corrected the translation by omitting the word (تحرر / taḥarrur – liberating), since it is already established in the literature as (نظرية الشاذ / naẓarīyat al-shādh – the-queer theory). This omission corrects the translation and avoids reader confusion simultaneously. Consider also the example below:

Example TT1.1.5b	
ST1, p.190:	God, nature, science, the working class, all have lost their authority as centres of authenticity and truth
TT1, p. 304 (Translator)	فإن الله، والطبيعة، والعلم، والطبقة العاملة، جميعهم فقدوا سلطتهم (...)
Transliteration	f- Allāh , wa-al-ṭabī ^c ah, wa-al- ^c ilm, wa-al-ṭabaqah al- ^c āmilah, jamī ^c uhum faqadū sulṭatahum (...)
English gloss	and-Allah, and-the-nature, and-the-science, and-the-social class, all lost their-authority (...)

TT1, p. 304 (proofreader)	فالتبعية، والعلم، والطبقة العاملة، جميعهم فقدوا سلطتهم (...)
Transliteration	f al-ṭabīʿa, w-al-ʿilm, wa-al-ṭabaqa al-ʿāmilah, jamīʿuhum faqadū sulṭatuhum (...)
English gloss	and-the-nature, and-the-science, and-the-social class, all lost their-authority (...)

The omission of the name (الله / Allāh – Allah) by the proofreader is to remove ambiguity regarding any specific religion reference since (Allah) is known as the God of Islam. However, both the translator and the proofreader could have maintained the content by choosing a neutral equivalent for ‘God’, such as (الرب / al-rab – the-God) or (الإله / al-ilāh– the-Lord). This would be a balanced decision here as it is faithful to the content of ST1, and it would not breach the guidelines provided by Kalima regarding avoiding conflict with Islamic, Emirati or Arab values and sensitivities. It reflects a lack of understanding of acceptable ways while retaining TT readers. Omission without replacing it with another word (that is, by using compensation) is a bad decision because it results in a loss of meaning.

2. Syntax

Table 11 shows that the proofreading of TT1 considers issues related to syntax in 71 instances. Below are examples of these issues:

2.1. Grammatical errors

2.1.1. Gender and number agreement

The proofreading processes for TT1 encounter 27 parts where agreement to gender and noun is corrected. Here are some examples:

Example TT1.2.1.1a

ST1, p.9	one of the key periods
TT1, p.27	أحد الفترات الرئيسية
(Translator)	
Transliteration	aḥad al-fatarāt al-raʿīsīyah
English gloss	one-[masculine form] of the key periods-[feminine form]
TT1, p.27	إحدى الفترات الرئيسية

(Proofreader)

Transliteration	iḥdā al-fatarāt al-ra'īsīyah
English gloss	one-[feminine form] of the key periods-[feminine form]

In this example, the word (الفترات / al-fatarāt – periods) is inflected for the feminine plural suffix (ات / āt). Therefore, rendering the number ‘one’, which refers to (الفترات / al-fatarāt – periods), should agree with its gender inflection. The grammatical rule for Arabic numbers states that the numbers one and two should agree with their references in terms of gender (Holes 2004, p.202). This applies to the example here as (أحد / aḥad – one) should agree with the feminine inflection of (الفترات / al-fatarāt – periods), i.e. (إحدى / iḥdā – one-[in the feminine form]).

Arabic adjectives inflect in the dual form as well. The examples below show the proofreader's contribution to correcting this aspect:

Example TT1.2.1.1b

ST1, p.19	the aristocracy and middle class are further along the evolutionary continuum than the working class
TT1, p. 42	إنَّ الارستقراطية والطبقة المتوسطة متقدمة في سلسلة التطور أكثر من الطبقة العاملة
(Translator)	
Transliteration	anna al-arustuqrāṭīyah wa-al-ṭabaqah al-mutawassīṭah mutaqaḍḍimah fī silsilat al-ṭaṭawur akthar min al-ṭabaqa al'āmilah
English gloss	that the-aristocracy and the-middle the-class is-advanced more in series of-the-evolution than the-working the-class
TT1, p.42	إنَّ الارستقراطية والطبقة المتوسطة متقدمتان في سلسلة التطور أكثر من الطبقة العاملة
(Proofreader)	
Transliteration	inna al-arustuqrāṭīyah wa-al-ṭabaqah al-mutawassīṭah mutaqaḍḍimatān fī silsilat al-ṭaṭawur akthar min al-ṭabaqa alcāmilah
English gloss	that the-aristocracy and the-middle the-class are-advanced-[dual form in the nominative case] more in series of-the-evolution than the-working the-class

Here, the proofreader has corrected the number agreement of the adjective (متقدمة / mutaqaḍḍimah – advanced) as it refers to both ‘aristocracy’ and ‘middle class’, rather than a single reference. In this rendition, the proofreader has also taken the case inflection into consideration. That is, number inflection in this case should be (متقدمتان / mutaqaḍḍimatān – advanced-[dual form]) (nominative case) as it functions

grammatically as a predicate for (إِنَّ / inna – that-is), which should be maintained in the nomantive case (ان / ān), as rendered by the proofreader.

2.1.2. Case inflection

From Table 11, the proofreader has corrected six grammatical case inflections, as in the example below:

Example TT1.2.1.2

ST1, p. 24	Its popularity makes it a very dangerous source of pleasure
TT1, p.50 (translator)	فشعبيتها تجعل منها مصدر سرورٍ خطراً
Transliteration	fa-sha [°] bīyatahā taj [°] al minhā maṣḍar surūrīn khaṭaran
English gloss	so-its-popularity makes it a-source of-a-dangerous-[marked with nunation in the accusative case] pleasure-[marked with nunation in the genitive case]
TT1, p.50 (proofreader)	فشعبيتها تجعل منها مصدر سرورٍ خطر
Transliteration	fa-sha [°] bīyatahā taj [°] al minhā maṣḍar surūrīn khaṭar
English gloss	so-its-popularity makes it a-source of-a- dangerous -[no inflection case marked] pleasure -[marked with nunation in the genitive case]

The translator here has added nunation (tanwīn) (ً / fathah) in the accusative case to the word (خطراً / khaṭaran – dangerous), whereas it functions grammatically as a follower to the genitive noun (سرورٍ / surūrīn – pleasure). The word (خطراً / khaṭaran – dangerous) should be in the genitive case as in (خطري / khaṭarīn – dangerous). The proofreader, therefore, has removed the nunation in the accusative case, as shown in the table above.

2.2. Definiteness and indefiniteness

In TT1, the proofreader has corrected the definiteness and definiteness of five words by adding/ deleting the definite article (ال / al- – the). For instance, the proofreader in TT1 (p.50) has added the definite article (ال / al- – the) to the word (تهديد / tahdīd – threat) in the sentence (إنَّ تهديد الذي تشكله الديمقراطية / inna tahdīd al-ladhi tushakkiluhu al-dīmuqrāṭīyah – indeed threat which-is formed by democracy). The definiteness of the word (تهديد / tahdīd – threat) is determined by the context of the TT so it has to be changed to (التهديد / al-tahdīd – the-threat). The word ‘threat’ here refers to the one

posed by democracy in particular. The definiteness of the word ‘threat’ also appears in ST1 as “The threat of democracy” (ST1, p. 24).

On the other hand, the definite article (الـ / al- – the-) is removed from words where the context indicates their indefiniteness. For instance, the proofreader has removed (الـ / al-) from (غير المنظورة / ghayr al-manzūrah – not the-foreseen). According to the context suggested in TT1, pp.55–56, this word comes as an indefinite adjective, as in the following:

Example TT1.2.2

ST1, p.27	(...), the general impact of ‘Leavisism’ (...) tended to unsettle the prevailing canons of aesthetic judgement and evaluation with, in the long term, quite radical and often unforeseen consequences
TT1, pp. 55–56 (translator)	(...) أن التأثير العام للفيزية (...) كان يميل إلى زعزعة القوانين السائدة للحكم والتقييم الفنيين مع ما يترتب على ذلك من عواقب راديكالية للغاية و غير المنظورة في الغالب على المدى البعيد".
Transliteration	(...), anna al-ta'thīr al- [°] am le-al-līfīzīyah (...) kana yamīl ilā za [°] za [°] at al-qawanīn al-sā'idah li-al-ḥukm wa-al-taqyīm al-fanīyayn mā [°] mā yatarattab [°] alā dhalik min [°] awāqib radikālīyah li-al-ghāyah wa- ghayr al-manzūrah fī al-ghālib [°] alā al-madā al-ba [°] id
English gloss	(...) the general influence of-the-Leavisim (...) was tending to unsettle the prevailing laws of the aesthetic-[dual form] and judgment and evaluation with what was consequent from that of very radical consequences and not the-foreseen often on the long term)
TT1, pp. 55–56 (proofreader)	(...) أن التأثير العام للفيزية (...) كان يميل إلى زعزعة القوانين السائدة للحكم والتقييم الفني مع ما يترتب على ذلك من عواقب راديكالية للغاية و غير منظورة في الغالب على المدى البعيد.
Transliteration	(...) anna al-ta'thīr al- [°] am le-al-līfīzīyah (...) kana yamīl ilā za [°] za [°] at al-qawanīn al-sā'idah li-al-ḥukm wa-al-taqyīm al-fanī mā [°] mā yatarattab [°] alā dhalik min [°] awāqib radikālīyah li-al-ghayah wa- ghayr manzūrah fī al-ghalib [°] ala al-madā al-ba [°] id
English gloss	(...) the general influence of-the-Leavisim (...) was tending to unsettle the prevailing laws of the aesthetic-[dual form] and judgment and evaluation with what was consequent from that of very radical consequences and not foreseen often on the long term)

The context here does not mention these consequences with reference to previously identified ones, nor does it name or identify them. Accordingly, they should be described in indefinite form, as corrected by the proofreader for the adjective in (غير / ghayr al-manzūrah – not foreseen).

Similarly, ST1 (p.27), presents this word in an indefinite form when it quotes “perhaps more importantly, the general impact of ‘Leavisism’ at least as scathing in its criticisms of established ‘high’ and ‘middle brow’ culture as of popular forms tended to unsettle the prevailing canons of aesthetic judgement and evaluation with, in the long term, quite radical and often **unforeseen** consequences”.

2.3. Prepositions

In total, 25 changes were made to TT1 on issues related to prepositions and similar mistakes. Consider the example below:

Example TT1.2.3

TT1, p.322 (translator)	للإجابة على هذا السؤال
Transliteration	li-al-ijābah ‘alā hathā al-su’āl
English gloss	to-answer on this question
TT1, p.322 (proofreader)	للإجابة عن هذا السؤال
Transliteration	li-al-ijābah ‘an hathā al-su’āl
English gloss	to-answer to this question

The proofreader here has changed the preposition (على / °alā – on) to (عن / °an – about), as presented in the above table. Using the preposition (على / °alā – on) for the word (إجابة / ijābah – answer) and its derivatives is a common mistake in contemporary Arabic writing (Al-°ibrī, 2006, p.19) and is changed by the proofreader in both TT1 and TT2. Al-°ibrī (ibid.) states that the preposition (عن / °an – about) should be used with the verb (إجابة / ijābah – answer), since this verb means to respond to an existing question or request. Moreover, the preposition (عن / °an – about) denotes clarification, explanation or disclosure (ibid).

In another instance, the proofreader of TT1 has removed the letter (ك / k – k), which is known as (كاف الاستقصاء / kāf al-istiḡṣā’) (Al-°adnanī, 1983, p.268) and also classified as a common incorrect use of a preposition in Arabic (Ammār, 1998, pp.261–263). For instance, this preposition is removed from the word (معلمة / mu°allimah – teacher) in (أعرف شخصاً يعمل كمعلمة / a°rif shakhṣan ya°mal ka-mu°allimah – I know someone works as-a-teacher) (TT1, p.159). The reason behind this lies in the fact that (ك / k – k) in Arabic is only attached to words as a tool of

similes (Omar, 1981, p.149). Therefore, using it in the sense of ‘as’ is unacceptable in standard Arabic since it is a mistake caused by poor translation of the adverb ‘as’ from English to Arabic (Omar, 1981, p.149; Al-^ᶜadnanī, 1983, p.268; Al-^ᶜibrī, 2006, p.26). However, some Arabic linguists such as Hījazī and Amīn (1983, p.187) defend the validity of using (ك / k – k) in contemporary Arabic writing.

2.4. Word order and sentence structure

This issue occurred 12 times while proofreading TT1. The order of the word (نفس / nafs – same) has been changed in several instances in TT1, as illustrated below:

Example TT1.2.4	
ST1, p.63:	The same point can be made against Adorno with reference to the schoolteacher’s behaviour.
TT1, p.111 (translator)	ويمكن إيراد نفس النقطة ضد أدورنو بالإشارة إلى سلوك معلمة المدرسة
Transliteration	wa-yumkin īrād nafs al-nuqṭah ḍid adurnū bi-al-ishārah ilā sulūk mu ^ᶜ allimat al-madrasah
English gloss	And it is possible to make the same point against Adorno by referring to the schoolteacher’s behaviour
TT1, p.111 (proofreader)	ويمكن إيراد النقطة نفسها ضد أدورنو بالإشارة إلى سلوك معلمة المدرسة
Transliteration	wa-yumkin īrād al-nuqṭah nafsahā ḍid adurnū bi-al-ishārah ilā sulūk mu ^ᶜ allimat al-madrasah
English gloss	And it is possible to make the point itself against Adorno by referring to the schoolteacher’s behaviour

Syntactically, (نفس / nafs – same) is used in Arabic as a cohesive tool under what is called *nominal substitution* (Abdul-Raof, 2001, p.66). According to Abdul-Raof (2001, p.66), substitution is a “lexico-grammatical relation that holds between two lexical items within a text”. The proofreader here has changed the order of the pronoun ‘same’ which refers to a similar point previously mentioned. This, however, changes the function (see Skopos theory in Vermeer (1987) and subsection 2.1.1.3 of this thesis) of the word in Arabic, which is known as *corroboration in meaning* (Wright and Caspari, 2011, p.282). Nouns such as (نفسه / nafsuh – himself/himself/herself) are used *after* the corroborative noun (which is ‘the point’ here) as an emphasiser (Badawi *et al.*, 2015) to strengthen the reference (the point).

This technique has been repeated by the proofreader in five other instances in TT1. This change excludes a significant reference that stresses ‘the point’ previously mentioned in the text. Although this style adapted by the proofreader is supported by the aforementioned grammatical and syntactic rule in Arabic (*ibid.*), it changes the ST function and causes a loss in the translation (Dickins *et al.*, 2002, pp.21–22).

3. Textual and stylistic choices

Table 11 shows that 273 textual and stylistic errors were detected while proofreading TT1, as illustrated in the categories below:

3.1. Punctuation marks

The proofreading of TT1 touches on the punctuation system in 212 instances (see Table 11). The high frequency of correction in this regard is due to the absence of an established system for punctuation marks. This leads to either a relative and subjective use of punctuation marks in the TT or conveying them in the TT as they appear in the ST without considering their function in the TL. The following are examples of the proofreading process regarding punctuation marks in TT1.

3.1.1. Semicolons and dashes

Changing semicolons into commas in the proofreading process of TT1 is applied in 102 occurrences. For example:

Example TT1.3.1.1

ST1, p.21	To simplify, Coleridge suggests that civilization refers to the nation as a whole[;] cultivation is the property of a small minority , whom he calls the ‘clerisy’.
TT1, p.45 (translator) Transliteration	وللتبسيط، فإن كولريديج يقول إن الحضارة تشير إلى الأمة ككل[؛] والغرس الثقافي هو ملكية أقلية صغيرة، يدعوها "الطبعة الفكرية cleristy" wa-li-al-tabsīt, fa-inna Kulridj yaqūl inna al-ḥaḍārah tushīr ilā al-ummah ka-kul[;] wa-al-ghars al-thaqāfi huwa mulkiyah aqaliyah ṣaghīrah, yad‘ūhā “al-ṭalī‘ah al-fikrīyah kliristī”
English gloss	And to simplify, Coleridge states that civilization refers to the nation as a whole[;] and the cultural cultivation is a property of a small minority , he calls “the intellectual front/vanguard [cleristy]”
TT1, p. 45 (proofreader)	وللتبسيط، فإن كولريديج يقول إن الحضارة تشير إلى الأمة ككل[،] والغرس الثقافي هو ملكية أقلية صغيرة، يدعوها "الطبعة الفكرية cleristy"

Transliteration	wa-li-al-tabsīt, fa-inna Kulridj yaqūl inna al-ḥaḍarah tushīr ilā al-ummah ka-kul[,] wa-al-ghars al-thaqāfī hu-wā mulkīyat aqaliyah ṣaghīrah , yad ^ʿ ūhā “al-ṭalī ^ʿ ah al-fikrīyah kliristī”
English gloss	And to simplify, Coleridge states that civilization refers to the natin as a whole[,] and the cultural cultivation is a property of a small minority , he calls “the intellectual front/vanguard [cleristy]”

The semicolon in this example is used by the translator between two connected sentences where the second elaborates on the first. However, the translator opting for a semicolon in this example seems to be following the structure of the ST1 sentence and its punctuation. The proofreader, it seems, replaced the semicolon with a comma since its function here is more convincing for an Arab reader.

3.1.2. Commas and full stops

Commas and fullstops are added during the proofreading process to enhance readability, improve clarity and avoid ambiguity. The example below is taken from the translator’s preface to TT1, which is produced for the translated version:

Example TT1.3.2.2

TT1, p.9	...وتواصل مع الناشر بهذا الخصوص[،] الذي أبدى موافقته على الترجمة شرط أن تصدر عن دار نشر
(proofreader)	
Transliteration	..wa-tawāṣal ma ^ʿ al-nāshir bi-hāthā al-khuṣūṣ[,]
English gloss	and he contacted the publisher in this regard [,]who indicated his approval for the translation under the condition of publishing it through a publishing house

The proofreader has added a comma (,) before the relative clause (... الذي أبدى /al-lathī abdā... –who indicated) to improve the readability of this lengthy sentence. This addition could however be said to be imperfect, or rather to have been added after (الترجمة / al-tarjamah).

3.1.3. Colons

The proofreader of TT1 has added colons before quotations and statements. It is worth noting here that the author of ST1 did not put colons where they are placed by the proofreader in TT1. For example, the proofreader precedes a 4-line statement quoted from ‘Shils’ in TT1, p.62, with a colon, whereas it is absent in ST1, p.31.

3.1.4. Direction of punctuation marks

In TT1, for example, the proofreader has corrected the direction of the slash (\ to /) rendered by the translator as follows:

Example TT1.3.1.4.

ST1, p.70	Althusser begins by rejecting mechanistic interpretation of the base/superstructure formulation...
TT1, p.123 (translator)	يبدأ ألتوسير برفض التفسير الميكانيكي لصيغة القاعدة [\] البنية الفوقية...
Transliteration	yabda' Altusīr be-rafḍ al-tafsīr al-mīkanīkī li-ṣīghat al-qā'idah[\] al-bunyah al-fawqīyah
English gloss	Althusser begins by rejecting the mechanical interpretation of the formulation of the base [\] the upper structure...
TT1, p.123 (proofreader)	يبدأ ألتوسير برفض التفسير الميكانيكي لصيغة القاعدة [/] البنية الفوقية...
Transliteration	yabda' Altusīr be-rafḍ al-tafsīr al-mīkanīkī li-ṣīghat al-qā'idah[/]al-bunyah al-fawqīyah
English gloss	Althusser begins by rejecting the mechanical interpretation of the formulation of the base [/] the upper structure...

In this example, the translator renders the punctuation mark in the same form as in the SL, which should be corrected in Arabic.

3.2. Cohesive devices

The proofreading process of TT1 involved two cases relating to cohesive devices.

An example of adding cohesive devices in TT1 includes:

Example TT1.3.2

ST1, p.64	“Today anyone who is incapable of talking in the prescribed fashion, that is of effortlessly reproducing the formulas, conventions and judgments of mass culture as if they were his own, is threatened in his very existence, suspected of being an idiot or an intellectual”.
TT1, p.113 (translator)	"اليوم، إن أي شخص غير قادر على التحدث بالأسلوب المنصوص عليه، أي إعادة إنتاج صيغ الثقافة الجماهيرية وقناعاتها، وأحكامها دون جهد، كما لو أنها له هو، فإنه مهدد في وجوده بالذات، مشكوك في كونه إما أحمقاً وإما مثقفاً"
Transliteration	“al-yaum, inna ay shakhaṣ ghayr qadir ʿala al-taḥadduth bi-al-uslūb al-manṣūṣ ʿalayh, ay iʿādat intāj ṣiyagh al-thaqāfah al-jamahīrīyah wa-qanāʿatihā, wa-aḥkāmihā dūn juhd, kamā law annahā lahu hū, fa-innahu muhaddad fī wujūdh bi-al-thāt, mashkūk fī kawnih immā aḥmaqan wa-imma muthaqqafan ”

English gloss	“today, any person who is not capable of talking as per the prescribed style, that is by reproducing the formulas of the popular culture and its conventions, and judgments again without effort, as if they are his own, is threatened in his existence in-particular, suspected of being either an idiot or an intellectual ”
TT1, p.113 (proofreader)	"اليوم، إن أي شخص غير قادر على التحدث بالأسلوب المنصوص عليه، أي إعادة إنتاج صيغ الثقافة الجماهيرية وقناعاتها، وأحكامها دون جهد، كما لو أنها له هو، فإنه مهدد في وجوده بالذات، ومشكوك في كونه إما أحمقاً وإما مثقفاً"
Transliteration	“al-yaum, inna ay shakhaṣ ghayr qadir ʿala al-taḥadduth bil-uslūb al-manṣūṣ ʿlaiḥ, ay iʿādat intāj al-thaqāfah al-jamahīrīyah wa-qanāʿātihā, wa-aḥkāmihā dūn juhd, kamā law anna-ha lahu hūwa, fa-inna-hu muhadad fi wujūdihi bi-al-that, wa mashkūk fi kawnih immā aḥmaqan wa imma muthaqqafan ”
English gloss	“today, any person who is not capable of talking as per the prescribed style, that is by reproducing the formulas of the popular culture and its conventions, and judgments again without effort, as if they are his own, is threatened in his existence in-particular, and suspected of being either an idiot or an intellectual ”

The highlighted sentences in bold from TT1 (p.113) are connected in the proofread version by the connector (و / wa – and) for an explicit presentation of cohesion in Arabic. Although the English version (ST1, p.64), as displayed above, does not have this connecting device, the comma, which connects two sentences, indicates their logical relevance and maintains cohesion implicitly.

3.3. Layout and typography

As indicated by Table 11, the proofreader of TT1 left notes on the layout of TT1 in 59 instances. Some of them are relevant to correcting headings in the table of contents in accordance with their appearance in the text. For instance, the heading ريتشارد هوغارت (Richard Hoggart) is modified in the table of contents (TT1, p.5) according to its appearance in TT1, p.70, as ريتشارد هوغارت: استخدامات التعلم (Ritchārd Hugārt: istikhdamāt al-taʿallum – Richard Hoggart: The Uses of Literacy). The proofreader here has completed the second part of the heading that is missing in the table of contents.

The proofreader also includes 54 comments on the presentation of English phrases, as the embedding of an English split sentence over two lines amidst an Arabic text

may cause confusion over the word order of a sentence. For instance, the sentence “You make me feel like a natural woman” (ST1, p.163) is kept in English as it is the title of a song to which the author is referring. However, it appears in two separate lines (TT1, pp.382–383) as follows:

The first line: “You make me”; and the second: “Feel Like A Natural Woman”.

This presentation is very confusing as the direction of the Arabic text changes the format of the quotation marks and makes the sentence “Feel Like A Natural Woman” look like a new sentence that begins with “Feel”.

4. Orthography

Spelling errors and ‘typos’ in the proofread manuscript of TT1 are the occurrences most often corrected. According to the proofreader’s red markers, they occur 202 times. These errors vary from those related to the rules for hamza, to nunation (93 occurrences), transliteration (36 occurrences) and general ‘typos’ (73 occurrences). Below are examples of each category:

4.1. Hamza

4.1.1. Initial hamza

The proofreader of TT1 added *hamza* (ء / ة) to 76 words initially. Examples where *hamza* (ء / ة) is added to *alif* (ا) in TT1 include attaching the hamza missing from (اَنَّ / anna – that-is) by the proofreader to become (اَنَّ / ’anna* – that-is) (TT1, pp.13, 22, 40, 44, 52, 61, 75, 91, 142, 153, 162, 192, 312, 316, 363, 368). As mentioned above, such errors occur frequently due to fast typing or carelessness.

4.1.2. Medial hamza

The proofreading marks show violations of these rules by the translator, as in the example below:

Example TT1.4.1.2

TT1, p.24 (translator)	استهزأوا
Transliteration	istahza'ū
English gloss	mocked
TT1, p.24 (proofreader)	استهزؤوا
Transliteration	istahza'ū
English gloss	mocked

The translator has put hamza on *alif* (ا). However, the hamza in this word is followed by (و / wāw), thus it should be written on (و / wāw) as هؤ.

4.1.3. Final hamza

In this context, the proofreader of TT1 has corrected the final hamza in the word (السيء / al-sayī' – the-bad) on 17 occasions. The translator's spelling version is (السيء / al-sī'), whereas hamza in the correct spelling version is preceded by (/ kasra) and not (/ sukūn). Thus, writing it should be based on the rules of medial hamza and in this case it should be on (ي / yā' – y) as (السيء / al-sayī' – the-bad).

4.1.4. Strong hamza vs soft hamza

The translator of TT1 did not pay attention to this difference in some instances, which resulted in some spelling errors, such as in the example below:

Example TT1.4.1.4

TT1, p.107 (translator)	إختزها
Transliteration	'ikhtizāliha
English gloss	shortening it
TT1, p.24 (proofreader)	اختزها
Transliteration	ikhtizāliha
English gloss	shortening it

The proofreader has changed the form of hamza from weak (همزة الوصل / hamzat al-waṣl – soft hamza) to strong (همزة القطع / hamzat al-qatc – strong hamza). Awad (2012, p.242) states that it is more common and easier for Arabic writers to leave *alif* (ا) without hamza as a neutral choice in order to avoid any confusion.

4.1.5. Rules of hamza regarding (إِنَّ / inna) and (أَنَّ / anna)

There are errors in following this rule in all three translations including this one, for example:

Example TT1.4.1.5

TT1, p.297 (translator)	... حيثُ أَنْ ...
Transliteration	ḥaithu anna
English gloss	(that-is)
TT1, p.297 (proofreader)	... حيثُ إِنَّ ...
Transliteration	ḥaithu inna
English gloss	(that-is)

The particle (أَنَّ / inna – that-is) in this example is preceded by (حيثُ / haithu – that-is). The hamza of inna should be written below *alif*, as corrected here by the proofreader.

4.2. Nunation (tanwīn)

The proofreader has added nunation diacritics in cases where these markers seem to have been forgotten.

Example TT1.4.2

TT1, p.15 (translator)	إنها تطرح مجالات استقصاء، وأشكالاً للتعريف النظري
Transliteration	innahā taṭraḥ majālat istiḡṣāʾ, wa- ashkāl li-al-ta ^c rīf al-naẓarī
English gloss	It presents areas of inquiry and forms of theoretical definition
TT1, p.15 (proofreader)	إنها تطرح مجالات استقصاء، وأشكالاً للتعريف النظري
Transliteration	innahā taṭraḥ majālāt istiḡṣāʾ, wa- ashkālan li-al-ta ^c rīf al-naẓarī
English gloss	It presents areas of inquiry and forms-[marked with nunation in the accusative case] of theoretical definition

The proofreader here has added nunation in the accusative case for (أشكال / ashkāl – forms), as its grammatical inflection should follow the object (مجالات / majālāt – areas)

4.3. General ‘typos’

As Table 11 indicates, general ‘typos’ in TT1 are corrected 73 times. This high frequency can be due to rapid typing or incorrect spelling knowledge, as stated earlier. Consider the example below:

Example TT1.4.3	
ST1, p.27	..the work produced by the ‘Leavisites’ was of seminal importance
TT1, p.55 (translator)	فإن الأعمال التي قدمها الليفيزيون ذات أهمية لاحقة
Transliteration	fa-inna al-a ^c māl al-latī qaddamahā al-līfīzīyūn dhāt ahammīyah lāḥiqah
English gloss	(so the works presented by the Leavisites were of zygote importance)
TT1, p.55 (proofreader)	فإن الأعمال التي قدمها الليفيزيون ذات أهمية لاحقة
Transliteration	fa-inna al-a ^c māl al-latī qaddamahā al- līfīzīyūn dhāt ahammīyah lāḥiqah
English gloss	(so the works presented by the Leavisites were of later importance)

This ‘typo’ in particular is presented as a valid word that could be interpreted in Arabic as ‘zygote’. However, the context whereby this mistake occurred enabled the proofreader to spot it and correct the order of the letters (ق / q) and (ح / ḥ) to give (لاحقة / lāḥiqah – later), although s/he did not have access to the content of the ST and therefore missed the key word ‘seminal’.

6.3.2 Analysis of TT2

About the book (ST2):

The second book (ST2) entitled *The Spark of Life: Electricity in the Human Body* (2012), by the award-winning physiologist Frances Ashcroft, was published in 2012. It is a scientific text comprising 339 pages on the body’s electricity and its importance to everything we do, think and feel. Kalima translated this text into Arabic over 428 pages and published it in March 2015. The manuscript (TT2) is a proofread and edited draft, which is marked with corrections and changes by the proofreader and editor.

1. Issues at the lexical level

1.1. Synonyms and near-synonyms:

Among six occurrences of replacing a lexical item by its synonym in the proofreading process is (تزودها / tuzawwiduhā – supplies-them) in the following:

Example TT2.1.1	
ST2, p.225	(...) the fractured information supplied by our sense organs,
TT2, p.304 (translator)	(...) المعلومات المجزأة التي تزودها أعضاؤنا الحسية ويؤثر فيها
Transliteration	(...)al-ma ^l ūmāt al-mujazza'ah al-latī tuzawwiduhā a ^l ḍa'unā al-ḥissīyah wa-yu'aththir fīhā
English gloss	(...) fragmented information which is supplied by our sense organs and affects on it.
TT2, p.304 (proofreader)	(...) المعلومات المجزأة التي تقدمها أعضاؤنا الحسية ويؤثر فيه
Transliteration	(...) al-ma ^l ūmāt al-mujazza'ah al-latī tuqaddimuhā a ^l ḍa'unā al-ḥissīyah wa-yu'aththir fīhā/
English gloss	(...) the fragmented information which is provided by our sense organs and affects on it.

The translator here has rendered the English word “supplied” (ST2, p.225) by using its Arabic synonym and word-for-word equivalence (تزودها / tuzawwiduhā – supply). According to the *Contemporary Dictionary of Arabic* (Omar, 2008), this word collocates with (المعلومات / al-ma^lūmāt – information), as it does in this example. However, the proofreader chose (تقدمها / tuqaddimuhā – provide) instead. Both words carry the same semantic elements as they can be used interchangeably here. So again it is a matter of preference and style. When dealing with synonymous words in translation, Nida and Taber (1969/2003, p.64) state that we must consider the semantic features and components that are used in the ST and make sure they share the same semantic field in the TL.

1.2. Transliteration

Table 11 shows four corrections related to transliteration when proofreading TT2. For example, the proper name ‘Frankenstein’ in ST2 (p.8), phonetically transcribed as (fräng'kən-stīn') TT2 (p.21), is rendered by the translator as (فرانكشتاين / fränkishtayn – Frankenstein). The proofreader did not correct the transliteration of the sound /s/ which appears in the Arabic translation as /sh/ on both pages (pp.8, 21). This may be due to the absence of English versions of some proper names beside their Arabic transliterations in TT2. TT2 is inconsistent in presenting transliterations of proper names along with their English versions. The English version is absent in the case of ‘Frankenstein’, for example, while it is present beside other names such

as (توماس فرانسوا داليبارا / tumās frānswā dālībārā – Thomas-Francois Dalibard) (TT2, p.33). The proofreader did not maintain this consistently.

1.3. Neologisms (coinages)

A need for new words was present in TT2 but noted by the proofreader in only one case. The term “pore” with its plural “pores” is used throughout the text to refer to the tiny skin openings that are present in the human body for sweat secretion. The translator renders it in the singular form, as (مسمّ / masamm – pore), such as in TT2 (p.76), whereas the plural form is rendered as (مسام / masām – pores), such as in TT2 (p. 53). However, this word is found in Arabic dictionaries as (مسام / masām – pore) and (مسامات / masāmāt – pores). The translator here introduces a new word for the referent, (مسمّ / masamm – pore), which cannot be found in Arabic dictionaries as it is already established in Arabic as (مسام / masām – pores). The proofreader, however, did not correct it, instead leaving a note about it for the editor to decide. The note asks the editor to review the word used by the translator (مسمّ / masamm – pore) in singular form of (مسام / masām – pore) as it cannot be found in Arabic dictionaries, though (مسام / masām – pores) can be found (see Appendix G).

1.4. Inappropriateness / taboos

The proofreading process for TT2 involved one issue regarding inappropriateness. The proofreader of TT2 left a comment for the editor about the statement in the example below:

Example TT2.1.4	
ST2, p.154	‘The good news is there is no devil. The bad news is there is no heaven’
TT2, p.210 (translator)	"الخبر الجيد أنه لا يوجد شيطان. والخبر أنه لا توجد جنة" السيئ
Transliteration	al-khabar al-jayyid annahu lā yūjad shayṭān. wa-al-khabar al-sayi’ annahu lā tūjad jannah
English gloss	The good news is there is no devil. The bad news is there is no heaven

The proofreader here left a note in Arabic in red pen for the editor stating: “Please check this statement and confirm whether to keep or remove it” (see Appendix E, TT2, p.210) as it contradicts the beliefs of the target readers who believe in the

existence of the devil and heaven (see Kalima proofreading guidelines, Appendix D).

1.5. Additions and omissions

In TT2, the proofreader has added two words that are clearly missed in the translation. Consider the following example:

Example TT2.1.5a

ST2, p.254	A landmark in therapy came when it was recognized in the late nineteenth century ...
TT2, p.342 (translator) transliteration	"حدث اختراق في العلاج في أواخر التاسع عشر .." ḥadath ikhtirāq fī al- [°] ilāj awākhir al-tāsi [°] ashar
English gloss	intervention occurred in therapy in the late nineteenth
TT2, p.342 (proofreader)	"حدث اختراق في العلاج في أواخر القرن التاسع عشر .."
Transliteration	ḥadath ikhtirāq fī al- [°] ilāj awākhir al-qarn al-tāsi [°] ashar
English gloss	intervention occurred in therapy in late nineteenth century

Here, the word ‘century’ seems to be missed by the translator. The loss which this omission leaves in the sentence is very obvious and could easily be spotted and compensated by addition in the proofreading. However, such an omission should also have been spotted if the translator had reviewed his/ her translation.

Omission in TT2 and TT3 is opted for by the proofreaders when redundant lexical repetition occurs in the translation. The repetitions, numbering eight in this text, such as in the example below, could also have been avoided if the translators of the texts had reviewed their translations:

Example TT2.1.5b

ST2, p.146	It weighed several tons
TT2, p.199 (translator) Transliteration	وبلغ وزنه يبلغ عدة أطنان wa- balagh waznuh yablugh [°] iddat aṭṭnān
English gloss	and- reached its-weigh reaches several tons
TT2, p.199 (proofreader) Transliteration	وبلغ وزنه عدة أطنان wa- balagh waznuh [°] iddat aṭṭnān
English gloss	And its weight reached several tons

1.6. Collocations

The proofreader of TT2 substituted some lexical items that collocate more idiomatically without other words in two cases, as explained below:

Example TT2.1.6	
ST2, p.95	When he was shot down and captured, the Russians found the pin and tested it on a dog, which stopped breathing within a minute of being pricked and was dead thirty seconds later.
TT2, p.132 (translator)	"عندما أسقطت طائرته وألقي القبض عليه، عثر الروس على الدبوس وجربوه على كلب، توقف عن التنفس خلال دقيقة من شكه وتوفي بعد ثلاثين ثانية."
Transliteration	^C indamā usqīṭat ṭā'iratuh wa-ulqī al-qabḍ ^ᶜ alayh, ^ᶜ athar al-rūs ^ᶜ alā addabūs wa-jarrabūh ^ᶜ ala kalb, tawaqqaf ^ᶜ an al-tanaffus khilāl daqīqah min shakkih wa-tuwuffī ba ^ᶜ da thalathīn thaniyah
English gloss	When his plane was shot down and captured, the Russians found the pin and tested it on a dog, it stopped breathing in a minute after pricking it and passed-away after thirty seconds.
TT2 p.132 (proofreader)	"عندما أسقطت طائرته وألقي القبض عليه، عثر الروس على الدبوس وجربوه على كلب، توقف عن التنفس خلال دقيقة من شكه ونفق بعد ثلاثين ثانية."
Transliteration	^C indamā usqīṭat ṭā'iratuh wa-ulqī al-qabḍ ^ᶜ alayh, ^ᶜ athar al-rūs ^ᶜ alā addabūs wa-jarrabūh ^ᶜ ala kalb, tawaqqaf ^ᶜ an al-tanaffus khilāl daqīqah min shakkih wa-nafaq ba ^ᶜ da thalathīn thaniyah
English gloss	When his plane was shot down and captured, the Russians found the pin and tested it on a dog, it stopped breathing in a minute after pricking it and died after thirty seconds

The adjective 'dead' can be used in English for human beings, animals and all creatures. However, the state of being no longer alive is expressed differently in Arabic depending on the referent being described. For instance, the words (مات / māṭ – died) and (توفي / tuwuffī – passed-away) collocate with human beings, whereas animals collocate exclusively and idiomatically with the verb (نفق / nafaq – died), as corrected here by the proofreader of TT2.

1.7. Influence of dialects

The proofreader of TT2 replaced some lexical items that were translated to a dialect form of Arabic rather than Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). Consider the examples below:

Example TT2.1.7a	
ST2, p.218	socks
TT2, p.295 (translator)	الجرابات
Transliteration	al-jarābāt
English gloss	socks
TT2, p.295 (proofreader)	الجوارب
Transliteration	al-jawārib
English gloss	socks

The translator's rendition of the word 'socks' here reflects the influence of a dialect as s/he opted for (الجرابات / al-jarābāt – socks) rather than (الجوارب / al-jawārib – socks). This was corrected by the proofreader, as shown above.

Example TT2.1.7b	
ST2, p.60	"Locas's laboratory was memorable for being sited in a tiny dark dank cellar that flooded every time it rained , ..."
TT2, p.86 (translator)	وكان مختبر لوكاس معروفاً بأنه موجود في قبو مظلم رطب يفيض بالماء كلما شتت"
Transliteration	wa-kān mukhtabar lukās ma [°] rūfan bi-annah mawjūd fī qabu muẓlim raṭīb yafīḍ bi-al-mā' kullamā shattat
English gloss	Locas laboratory was known for being located in a cellar dark dank which floods whenever it winters .
TT2, p.86 (proofreader)	"وكان مختبر لوكاس معروفاً بأنه موجود في قبو مظلم رطب يفيض بالماء كلما نزل المطر"
Transliteration	wa-kān mukhtabar lukās ma [°] rūfan bi-annah mawjūd fī qabu muẓlim raṭīb yafīḍ bi-al-mā' kullamā nazal al-maṭar
English gloss	Locas laboratory was known for being located in a cellar dark dank which floods whenever rain falls .

Here, the translator rendered "every time it rained" as (كلما شتت / kullamā shattat – whenever it winters). In some Arabic dialects, the process of 'raining' is referred to as (شتاء / shitā' – winter) regardless of the season in which it falls. So when it rains, it will be referred to in Arabic dialect, as for example in the Levantine Arabic dialect,

as (عم تشّتي / °am itshattī – it is wintering). The translator, similarly, rendered the verb ‘rain’ in Levantine Arabic dialect rather than MSA. It can be argued, however, that code-switching in Arabic, which is switching between MSA and dialectal Arabic, is acceptable in a translation when dialect is utilised in the ST or has a significant function in the TT (Dickins *et al.*, 2002, pp.168–169). However, in the examples we have here, it is more likely to be a drawback of the TT2 translation, since both ‘socks’ and ‘rained’ are very explicit in ST2 and do not have any further implications or require the use of a dialectal form of Arabic in the TT. Also, it appears that the translator unconsciously switches between MSA and Levantine Arabic dialect. Although it occurs in two instances only in ST2, as the proofreader’s marks indicate, these instances put the competence of the translator in question.

2. Syntax

Table 11 shows that the proofreading of TT2 considers issues related to syntax in 126 instances. Below are examples of these issues:

2.1. Grammatical errors

2.1.1. Gender and number agreement

The proofreader corrected 43 gender and number agreement errors in the text.

An example of number agreement:

Example TT2.2.1.1

ST2, p.258	all that happened was that my lips and tongue were slowly and mildly anaesthetized
TT2, p.347 (translator)	كل ما حدث أنّ شفّتي ولساني تخدّرت قليلاً ببطء
Transliteration	kul mā ḥadath anna shafatī wa-lisānī takhaddarat qalīlan bi-buṭʿ
English gloss	all what happened is that my lips and tongue anaesthetised slightly and slowly
TT2, p.347 (proofreader)	كل ما حدث أنّ شفّتي ولساني تخدّرا قليلاً ببطء
Transliteration	kul mā ḥadath anna shafatī wa-lisānī takhaddarā qalīlan bi-buṭʿ
English gloss	all what happened is that my lips and tongue anaesthetised-[masculine dual form] slightly and slowly

The verb ‘anaesthetised’ here refers to both lips and tongue. Therefore, rendering it in Arabic requires attention to this reference by inflecting the verb in the dual form, as noted by the proofreader (تخدّرا / takhaddarā – anaesthetised-[dual suffix]) by

adding the suffix ألف الإثنين / alif al-ithnayn – the dual alif). However, since ‘lips’ in Arabic is in the feminine form while ‘tongue’ is in the masculine, the verb should be in the masculine form, as (تَخَدَّرَا / takhaddarā – anaesthetised-[dual affix]) rather than (تَخَدَّرَتَا / takhaddaratā – anaesthetised-[feminine dual affix]), as the masculine dual in Arabic is used to refer to a mix of masculine and feminine, as in this example (Ryding, 2005, p.332).

2.1.2. Case inflection

There were 13 corrections of inflections in this text, including:

Example TT2.2.1.2

ST2, p.265	Brain imaging has revealed that their hippocampi also light up...
TT2, p.360 (translator)	كشفت تصوير الدماغ أنَّ الحصينان لديهم يضيئان ...
Transliteration	kashafa taṣwīr al-dimāgh anna al-ḥuṣaynān ladayhim yuḍīʾān
English gloss	The brain scan revealed that their two-hippocampi [in dual nominative case] flash-[in dual nominative case]...
TT2, p.360 (proofreader)	كشفت تصوير الدماغ أنَّ الحصينين لديهم يضيئان ...
Transliteration	kashafa taṣwīr al-dimāgh anna al-ḥuṣaynayn ladayhim yuḍīʾān
English gloss	The brain scan revealed that their two-hippocampi [in dual accusative case] flash-[in dual nominative case]

The proofreader changed the inflection of the word (الحصينان / al-ḥuṣaynān – two-hippocampi), which is in the nominative case, to (الحصينين / al-ḥuṣaynayn – two-hippocampi). This is because this word functions grammatically as the subject of (أَنَّ / anna – that-is), which should always be in the accusative case (Younes and Chami, 2015, p.8).

2.2. Definiteness and indefiniteness

The proofreader of TT2 added the definite marker (ال / al – the-) where it seems to be missing or forgotten by the translator. This is applied by the proofreader in six instances in TT2. Consider the following:

Example TT2.2.2	
ST2, p.41	Where were those ancient waters rich in potassium?
TT2, p.63 (translator)	أين كانت المياه القديمة غنية بالبوتاسيوم؟
Transliteration	ayn kānat al-miyāh al-qadīmah ghanīyah bi-al-butasiyum?
English gloss	Where was the ancient the-waters rich of-the-potassium?
TT2, p.63 (proofreader)	أين كانت المياه القديمة الغنية بالبوتاسيوم؟
Transliteration	ayn kānat al-miyāh al-qadīmah al-ghanīyah bi-al-butasiyum?
English gloss	Where was the-ancient the-waters the-rich of-the-potassium?

The translator here opted for a free translation, yet s/he was influenced by ST2. The function of the demonstrative pronoun ‘those’ is replaced in the translation by the definiteness marker (ال / al – the-) which, in turn, is added to ‘ancient water’. However, ST2’s structure appears in TT2 when rendering ‘rich’ as indefinite adjective in the TT2, resulting in a weakly constructed sentence. The proofreader, therefore, added the definiteness marker (ال / al – the-) to the word (غنية /ghanīyah – rich) which is describing (المياه القديمة / al-miyāh al-qadīmah – the ancient waters). This direct relationship entails a consistent presentation of both, as indicated by the proofreader for a more fluent style. Six such changes were made by the proofreader.

2.3. Prepositions and common mistakes

Prepositions posed particular problems in this translation, with 64 corrections. As seen in TT1.2.3, a common mistake was made in the use of the prepositions (على / °alā – on) and (عن / °an – to) in association with (إجابة / ijābah – answer) and its derivatives:

Example TT2.2.3	
ST2, p.239	by asking them to answer ‘yes’ or ‘no’
TT2, p.322 (translator)	أن يجيبوا بنعم أو لا على سؤال
Transliteration	an yujībū bi-na [°] am aw lā °alā su’āl
English gloss	to answer by yes or no on a question
TT2, p.322 (proofreader)	أن يجيبوا بنعم أو لا عن سؤال
Transliteration	an yujībū bi-na [°] am aw lā °an su’āl
English gloss	to answer by yes or no to a question

3. Textual and stylistic choices

A total of 299 textual and stylistic changes were made to this text, more than both the others combined.

3.1. Punctuation marks

In total, 223 punctuation changes were suggested for this text.

3.1.1 Semicolons and dashes

There were 200 instances of substituting other punctuation marks, such as colons and hyphens with a semicolon.

Example TT2.3.1.1

ST2, p.8	I am attacked by two very opposite sects [-] the scientists and the know-nothings. Both laugh at me [-] calling me ‘the Frog’s Dancing-Master’s’, but I know that I have discovered one of the greatest Forces in Nature.
TT2, p.21 (translator)	أُتَعَرَّضُ لِلهَجُومِ مِنْ طَائِفَتَيْنِ مُتَعَارِضَتَيْنِ تَمَامًا [] الْعُلَمَاءُ وَالْجَاهِلُونَ. كِلَاهِمَا يَضْحَكُ عَلَيَّ [] يَنْعَتُونَنِي بِأَنْنِي "مُعَلِّمَ الرِّقْصِ لِلضَّفَادِعِ"، لَكِنْ أَعْرَفُ أَنْنِي اِكْتَشَفْتُ وَاحِدَةً مِنْ أَعْظَمِ الْقُوَى فِي الطَّبِيعَةِ.
Transliteration	ata [°] arraḍ li-al-hujūm min ṭā’ifatayn muta [°] āriḍatayn tamāman [-] al- [°] ulamā’ wa-al-jāhilūn. Kilāhumā yaḍḥak ‘lay [-] yan [°] atūnanī bi-annanī “mu [°] allim al-raḡṡ li-al-ḍafādi [°] ”, lākin a [°] rif annanī iktashaft wāḥidah min a [°] zam al-quwā fī al-ṭabī‘ah
English gloss	I get attacked by a completely opposite sects-[dual form] [-] scientists and ignorants. Both laugh at me – they call me “dance teacher for frogs”, but I know that I have discovered one of the greatest forces in nature.
TT2, p.21 (proofreader)	أُتَعَرَّضُ لِلهَجُومِ مِنْ طَائِفَتَيْنِ مُتَعَارِضَتَيْنِ تَمَامًا [؛] الْعُلَمَاءُ وَالْجَاهِلُونَ، كِلَاهِمَا يَضْحَكُ عَلَيَّ، يَنْعَتُونَنِي بِأَنْنِي "مُعَلِّمَ الرِّقْصِ لِلضَّفَادِعِ"، لَكِنْ أَعْرَفُ أَنْنِي اِكْتَشَفْتُ وَاحِدَةً مِنْ أَعْظَمِ الْقُوَى فِي الطَّبِيعَةِ.
Transliteration	ata [°] arraḍ li-al-hujūm min ṭā’ifatayn muta [°] āriḍatayn tamāman [؛] al- [°] ulamā’ wa-al-jāhilūn, Kilāhumā yaḍḥak ‘lay [،] yan [°] atūnanī bi-annanī “mu [°] allim al-raḡṡ li-al-ḍafādi [°] ”, lākin a [°] rif annānī iktashaft wāḥidah min a [°] zam al-quwā fī al-ṭabī‘ah
English gloss	I get attacked by a completely opposite sects-[dual form]; scientists and ignorants. Both laugh at me[,] they call me “dance teacher for frogs”, but I know that I have discovered one of the greatest forces in nature.

In this example, the proofreader replaced the dashes with semicolons and commas. The phrase in this example clarifies ‘two opposite sects’ by naming them as ‘scientists and know-nothings’ (ST2, p.2). Here, the use of semicolons or colons in

Arabic seems to be more appropriate than dashes. However, such replacements in Arabic by the proofreader can be argued to be a very individual choice, since Arabic punctuation marks are not as well established as they are in English.

3.1.2. Commas and full stops

The proofreader of TT2 added commas in 23 instances, dividing lengthy sentences and phrases for easier reading and better comprehension. One example is TT2.3.1.1 above, while another is shown below:

Example TT2.3.1.2	
ST2, p. 47	The paper from Neher and Sakmann's team detailing precisely how to obtain high-resolution recordings in all these different configurations electrified the scientific community and quickly became a classic.
TT2 (p.71) proofreader	حفز بحث فريق نيهير وساكرمان [،] الذي يفصل بدقة كيفية الحصول على تسجيلات عالية الوضوح في جميع هذه التشكيلات المختلفة [،] المجتمع العلمي وسرعان ما أصبح عملاً كلاسيكياً.
Transliteration	/ħaffaz baħth farīq Nihir wa-Sākmān [،] al-ladhī yufaṣṣil bi-diqqah kayfīyat al-ħuṣūl °alā taṣjīlāt °āliyat al-wuḍūh fī jamī° hadhih al-tashkīlāt al-mukhtalifah [،] al-mujtama° al-°ilmī wa-sur°ān mā aṣbah °amalan klāsīkīyan./
English gloss	Neher and Sakmann's team [،] which details precisely how to obtain high resolution recordings in all these different configurations [،] encouraged the scientific community and quickly became classical work.

3.1.3. Colons

The proofreading of TT2 involved replacing colons with either commas or semicolons in 41 instances. Consider the following example from TT2, p.73:

Example TT2.3.1.3	
ST2, p.48	The three dimensional shape a protein adopts is critical [:]ion channels must provide a path for ions flow through, (...) Sometimes several proton chains get together to produce an even more complex structure[:] potassium channels, for example, tend to be built of four similar subunits, which link up to form a central pore through which the ion moves.

TT2, p.73	<p>إن الشكل الثلاثي الأبعاد الذي يعتمد البروتين مهم جداً [:] يجب أن توفر أفنية الأيونات مساراً لتدفق الأيونات عبرها، (...) في بعض الأحيان تجتمع عدة سلاسل بروتينات معاً لإنتاج بنية أكثر تعقيداً [:] تميل أفنية البوتاسيوم على سبيل المثال إلى بناء أربع وحدات فرعية متماثلة، ترتبط معاً لتشكل مسماً مركزياً تتحرك الأيونات عبره.</p>
Transliteration	<p>inna al-shakl al-thulāthī al-ab[°]ād al-ladhī ya[°]tamiduh al-brūtīn muhim jiddan [:] yajib an tuwaffir aqniyat al-ayūnāt [°]abrahā,(...). Fī ba[°]ḍ al-aḥyān tajtami[°] [°]iddat salāsīl brūtīnāt ma[°]an li-intāj bunya akthar ta[°]qīdan [:] tamīl akniyat al-butasiyum [°]alā sabīl al-mithāl ilā binā[°] arba[°] waḥḍāt far[°]īyah mutamāthilah, tartibiṭ ma[°]an li-tushakkil masamman markazīyan tataḥarrak al-ayūnāt [°]abrah.</p>
English gloss	<p>The three dimensional shape which the protein takes is very important [:] ion channels must provide path for the ions to flow through, (...) Sometimes several protein chains get together to produce a more complex structure [:] ion channels tend for example to form four similar subunits, they link together to form a central pore through which ions move.</p>
TT2, p.73	<p>إن الشكل الثلاثي الأبعاد الذي يعتمد البروتين مهم جداً [؛] يجب أن توفر أفنية الأيونات مساراً لتدفق الأيونات عبرها، وعلى الجزيئات المرسل للإشارات أن تلتحم بارتياح مع المستقبلات المستهدفة، ويجب أن تغلق البروتينات البنيوية على أنفسها بإحكام. في بعض الأحيان تجتمع عدة سلاسل بروتينات معاً لإنتاج بنية أكثر تعقيداً [؛] تميل أفنية البوتاسيوم على سبيل المثال إلى بناء أربع وحدات فرعية متماثلة، ترتبط معاً لتشكل مسماً مركزياً تتحرك الأيونات عبره.</p>
Transliteration	<p>inna al-shakl al-thulāthī al-ab[°]ād al-ladhī ya[°]tamiduh al-brūtīn muhim jiddan [؛] yajib an tuwaffir aqniyat al-ayūnāt [°]abrahā,(...). Fī ba[°]ḍ al-aḥyān tajtami[°] [°]iddat salāsīl brūtīnāt ma[°]an li-intāj bunya akthar ta[°]qīdan [؛] tamīl akniyat al-butasiyum [°]alā sabīl al-mithāl ilā binā[°] arba[°] waḥḍāt far[°]īyah mutamāthilah, tartibiṭ ma[°]an li-tushakkil masamman markazīyan tataḥarrak al-ayūnāt [°]abrah.</p>
English gloss	<p>The three dimensional shape which the-protein adopts is very important [؛] ion channels must provide path for the ions to flow through, (...). Sometimes several protein chains get together to produce a more complex structure [؛] ion channels tend for example to form four similar subunits, they link together to form a central pore through which ions move.</p>

The example above shows two colons between square brackets which have been rendered by the translator just the same as they are presented in ST2. Both of them occur in ST2 before explanatory statements. However, the proofreader changed both of them to semicolons (;), which s/he considered more fitting for the purpose. However, the function of the colons here could have been rendered in Arabic in a more explicit way, in order to identify the relationship between the two statements, with either colon or semicolon links. This relationship and cohesiveness could be maintained by using a cohesive device such as (حيثُ / ḥaiṭhu – that-is) or (إذُ / ith – that-is).

3.2. Cohesive devices

There are 23 cases where the proofreader of TT2 added cohesive devices. The proofreader here opted for *explicitation* (Klaudy, 2011, pp.104–108) by adding cohesive devices or connectors and other sentence-initial tools such as (و / wa – and), (ف / fa – so) and (قد / qad) – an Arabic particle used for assertion. Consider the examples below:

Example TT2.3.2a

ST2, pp.17–18:	‘if you would not be forgotten as soon as you are dead and rotten, either write things worth reading or do things worth the writing’
TT, p.34 (translator)	إذا لم تشأ أن تُنسى بعدما تموت وتفتنى، أكتب شيئاً يستحقّ القراءة، أو اصنع شيئاً يستحق الكتابة
Transliteration	Ithā lam tasha’ an tunsā ba [°] damā tamūt wa-tafna, uktub shay’an yastaḥiq al-qirā’ah aw isna [°] shay’an yastaḥiq al-kitābah
English gloss	If you do not want to be forgotten after you die and vanish, write something deserves reading, or make something deserves writing
TT, p.34 (proofreader)	إذا لم تشأ أن تُنسى بعدما تموت وتفتنى، فأكتب شيئاً يستحقّ القراءة، أو اصنع شيئاً يستحق الكتابة
Transliteration	Ithā lam tasha’ an tunsā ba [°] damā tamūt wa-tafna, fa -uktub shay’an yastaḥiq al-qirā’ah aw isna [°] shay’an yastaḥiq al-kitābah
English gloss	If you do not want to be forgotten after you die and vanish, so -write something deserves reading, or make something deserves writing.

The proofreader here added a causal connective to link two sentences which are bound by an indicated causal relationship in the English version. In Arabic, this indication is presented explicitly by using the causal conjunctive (ف / fa – so). According to Abdul-Raof (2001, p.79), such conjunctives are used in Arabic between two sentences when one of them is the cause of the other.

Example TT2.3.2b

ST2, p.307	The use of implants is still in its infancy and current devices do not provide people with entirely normal hearing: the British politician Jack Ashley once famously described it as sounding like a ‘croaking Dalek with laryngitis’.
TT2, p.412 (translator)	لا يزال استخدام الأجهزة المغروسة في مهده، ولا توفر الأجهزة الحالية السمع السوي تماماً لمن تزرع لهم [:] شبّه السياسي البريطاني جاك أشلي صوتها بأنه فضائي مصاب بالتهاب اللوزتين".
Transliteration	lā-yazāl istikhdām al-ajhizah al-maghrūsah fī mahdih, wa-lā tuwaffir al-ajhizah al-ḥālīyah al-sam [°] al-sawī tamāman liman

English gloss	tuzra ^c lahum [:] shabbah al-siyāsī al-brīṭānī jāk āshlī ṣawtahā bi-annah faḍā'ī muṣāb bi-iltihāb al-lawzatayn Using the implanted devices is still in its infancy, and the current devices do not provide proper hearing to those who get it implanted: the British politician Jack Ashley described its voice as “an alien who has laryngitis”
TT2, p.412 (proofreader)	لا يزال استخدام الأجهزة المغروسة في مهده، ولا توفر الأجهزة الحالية السمع تزرع لهم، وقد شبّه السياسي البريطاني جاك أشلي صوتها بأنه السوي تماماً لمن فضائي مصاب بالتهاب اللوزتين".
Transliteration	lā-yazāl istikhdām al-ajhizah al-maghrūsah fī mahdih, wa-lā tuwaffir al-ajhizah al-ḥālīyah al-sam ^c al-sawī tamāman liman tuzra ^c lahum, wa-qad shabbah al-siyāsī al-brīṭānī jāk ashli bi-annah faḍā'ī muṣāb bi-iltihāb al-lawzatayn
English gloss	Using the implanted devices is still in its infancy, and the current devices do not provide proper hearing to those who get it implanted, and the-British politician Jack Ashley described its voice as “an alien who has laryngitis”

A colon is used in ST2 (p.307) before the elaboration where the writer quoted Jack Ashley's description of the sound of his implant hearing device. Since the Arabic punctuation system is not standardised and established as it is in English (see 3.1. Punctuation marks), the proofreader corrected the translator's rendition by replacing the colon with an additive connector (و / wa – and), in addition to the particle قد / qad/ which is used in Arabic before statements of assertion (Al-Afghānī, 1981, p.343). The additive connector (و / wa – and) is used efficiently here as a cohesive device, whereas the assertion element (قد / qad) is added by the proofreader, most likely for stylistic reasons and to enhance the construction of the statement.

The proofreader of TT2 added such connectors in 23 instances. Ryding (2005, p.407) emphasises that the frequent use of connectives in Arabic “results in a high degree of textual cohesion in Arabic writing that contrasts significantly with the terser style of written English. Not only are parts of Arabic sentences coordinated or subordinated in various ways, but most sentences within a text actually start with a connective word that links each sentence with the previous ones.”

3.3. Layout and typography

The proofreader made 53 comments on the presentation of English phrases for similar reasons to the proofreader of TT1.

4. Orthography

In total, 92 orthographical changes were made to this text, far less than to TT1. Here are examples of each category:

4.1. Hamza

4.1.1. Initial hamza

The proofreader of TT2 added hamza (ء / ') to the initial four words. Examples where (ء / ') is added to *alif* in TT2 include:

Example TT2.4.1.1	
TT2, p.392 (translator)	ايضاً
Transliteration	ayḍan
English gloss	also
TT2, p.392 (proofreader)	أيضاً
Transliteration	'ayḍan
English gloss	also

4.1.2. Medial hamza

The proofreading marks show violations of these rules by the translator, as in the example below:

Example TT2.4.1.2	
TT2, p.376 (translator)	للرأتين
Transliteration	li-al-ri'atayn
English gloss	for-the-lungs-[dual form]
TT2, p.376 (proofreader)	للرئتين
Transliteration	li-al-ri'atayn
English gloss	for-the-lungs-[dual form]

The translator wrote hamza here on *alif* (ا / alif), although it is preceded by (ك / kasra). Thus it should be written on (ي / yā), as كئ.

4.1.4. Strong hamza vs soft hamza

The translator of TT2 did not pay attention to this difference in some instances, which resulted in spelling errors, such as in the example below:

Example TT2.4.1.4

TT2, p.230 (translator)	اضع
Transliteration	aḍa ^c
English gloss	I-put
TT2, p.230 (proofreader)	أضع
Transliteration	'aḍa ^c
English gloss	I-put

In this example, the proofreader changed the forms of hamza from strong (همزة القطع / hamzat al-qat^c – strong hamza) to weak (همزة الوصل / hamzat al-waṣl – soft hamza), which indicates that this error is more likely to be due to the inability to differentiate between them (Ryding, 2005, pp.16–19).

4.1.5. Rules for hamza regarding (إِنَّ / inna) and (أَنَّ / anna)

There were errors in following this rule in all three translations, including this one, for example:

Example TT2.4.1.5

TT2, p.134 (translator)	قالت أخت ماديسون أنّها...
Transliteration	qālat ukht Madison annaha
English gloss	Madison's sister said that
TT2, p.134 (proofreader)	قالت أخت ماديسون إنها...
Transliteration	qālat ukht Madison innaha
English gloss	Madison's sister said that

The word (إِنَّ / inna) occurs after the stem verb (قال / qāla – to say), which is inflected for feminine gender (قالت / qālat – said-she). The hamza of inna should be written below *alif* as corrected by the proofreader.

4.2. Nunation (tanwīn)

The proofreader added nunation diacritics in cases where these markers seem to have been forgotten.

Example TT2.4.2

TT2, p.99 (translator)	لأن فيه نوع مختلف
Transliteration	li'anna fih naw ^c mukhtalif
English gloss	because it has a different kind
TT2, p.99 (proofreader)	لأن فيه نوعاً مختلفاً

Transliteration	li'anna fih naw^ˁan mukhtalifan
English gloss	because it has a different -[marked with nunation in the accusative case] kind -[marked with nunation in the accusative case]

In this example, the proofreader added emphasis to the accusative case of the subject of (أَنَّ /-anna – -that-is) (نوع / naw^ˁan – kind) by using nunation. This subject is followed and described by the adjective (مختلفاً / mukhtalifan – different) whose grammatical case follows the noun it describes. Thus, nunation in the accusative case is applied to it as well.

4.3. General ‘typos’

‘Typos’ occurred in 60 instances, for example:

Example TT2.4.3

TT2, p.202 (translator)	عير
Transliteration	^ˁ ayr
English gloss	[it cannot be identified as word]
TT2, p.202 (proofreader)	غير
Transliteration	ghayr
English gloss	not

The letter ع /^ˁ/ is a ‘typo’ here, resulting from غ /gh/ and ع /^ˁ/ being next to each other on the Arabic keyboard.

6.3.3 Analysis of TT3

About the book (ST3):

The third book (ST3) is *Twelve Years a Slave* by Solomon Northup, which was published in 1853. The book is a memoir of the American author himself. It narrates his life when he was kidnapped and sold into slavery in 1841, after living free for 30 years. The book presents extensive details of slavery in Washington, which he endured for 12 years.

The book was written and published a few months later after Northup’s release had been secured by his family and friends with the aid of New York officials in 1853.

Kalima translated this memoir into Arabic, in 344 pages, and published it in September 2015. The analysed manuscript of this book (TT3) is a proofread and edited draft, which is marked similarly to TT1 and TT2.

1. Issues at the lexical level

A total of 38 lexical changes were made to this text. Below are examples of their frequencies under each suggested category.

1.1. Synonyms and near-synonyms:

In TT3, the proofreader changed lexicals related to synonyms in three instances. S/he, for instance, changed the word (اللبن / laban – the buttermilk) to (الحليب / al-ḥalīb – the milk) in the following example:

Example TT3.1.1

ST3, p.173	Two quarts at one milking, would be considered an unusual large quantity
TT3, p.173 (translator)	ولا تتجاوز قيمة الأبقار خمسة دولارات للبقرة الواحدة. وإذا أنتجت إحداها أربعة لتترات من اللبن كان هذا يعد كمية كبيرة على غير المعتاد
Transliteration	Wa-lā tatajāwaz qīmat al-abqār khamsat dulārāt li-al-baqarah al-wahidah. Wa-ithā antajat ihdāhā arbaʿat litrāt min al-laban kān hādhā yuʿad kimmīyah kabīra ʿalā ghayr al-muʿtād
English gloss	The value of the cows is not more than five dollars for each cow. And if one of them produced four litres of the buttermilk this would be considered an unusually large amount.
TT3, p.173 (proofreader)	ولا تتجاوز قيمة الأبقار خمسة دولارات للبقرة الواحدة. وإذا أنتجت إحداها أربعة لتترات من الحليب كان هذا يعد كمية كبيرة على غير المعتاد
Transliteration	Wa-lā tatajāwaz qīmat al-abqār khamsat dulārāt li-al-baqarah al-wahidah. Wa-ithā antajat ihdāhā arbaʿat litrāt min al-ḥalīb kān hādhā yuʿad kimmīyah kabīra ʿalā ghayr al-muʿtād
English gloss	The value of the cows is not more than five dollars for each cow. And if one of them produced four litres of the milk this would be considered an unusually large amount.

In some Arab countries, such as in Egypt and Yemen, (اللبن / laban) and (حليب / ḥalīb) are synonyms since both refer to the same thing (milk), which may justify the translator's rendering. However, the majority of Arabic dictionaries differentiate

between the two as the first denotes buttermilk, whereas the other refers to milk. So using the word (لبن / laban) in such a context is questionable. Although it might be argued that the context indicates that the referent is ‘milk’ rather than ‘buttermilk’, it is important to refer to ST3 in order to determine the right equivalent. The TT3 proofreading manuscript is preceded by a translation revision, i.e. ST3 and TT3 were compared before proofreading for accuracy (IP7). Yet, this lexical item remained as (لبن / laban – buttermilk), while it occurs in ST3 as presented in the table above.

As this analysis refers to ST3, it can be said that the translator should have opted for (حليب / ḥalīb – milk), as clearly indicated by ST3. In other respects, the rendering is inaccurate as the conversion between quarts and litres has been miscalculated. Two US liquid quarts is equal to approximately 1.9 litres, which can be rounded up to two litres but not ‘four litres’, as stated by the translator above (Thompson and Taylor, 2008, p.54).

1.2. Transliteration

In TT3, proper nouns are not maintained in English beside their Arabic transliterations. Yet the proofreader did change their transliterations in five instances, such as below:

Example TT3.1.2	
ST3, p.291	Henry B. Northup
Transcription	[ˈhenri bi: nurthup]
TT3, p.287 (translator)	هنري ب نورثوب
Transliteration	Hinrī bā’ Nurthup
English gloss	Henry B. Northup
TT3, p.287 (proofreader)	هنري بي نورثوب
Transliteration	Hinrī bī Nurthup
English gloss	Henry B. Northup

The initial ‘B.’ in the English version is pronounced [bi:], which should be transliterated in Arabic as (بي / bī). However, the translator here opted for transferring the corresponding or equivalent letter of the initial in Arabic ب /b/ rather than transcribing it phonetically as shown above.

The translator of TT3 was inconsistent in transliterating the initial ‘B.’ as it appears in TT3. For example, s/he opted to transcribe it in some instances, such as "هنري بي نورثوب" (TT3, p.285), while rendering its equivalent as "هنري ب نورثوب" in others (TT3, pp.287, 329).

1.4. Inappropriateness / taboos

ST3 involves violent content which is expressed in rough and blunt language, in what is referred to as *dysphemism* – expressions that are offensive to either the referent or the audience and used to express anger and annoyance (Allan and Burrige, 1991, p.7, 2006, p.240; Chamizo-Domínguez, 2008, p. 93). Yet the writer employs hyphens to replace some letters of the offensive words to avoid offending the innocent or being accused of using banned words, while maintaining the credibility and effect of those words to express situations or ideas. Consider the following examples:

Example TT3.1.4a

ST3, p.181	"Dance, you d—d niggers , dance," Epps would shout.
TT3, pp.181–182 (translator)	«ارقصوا ايها الزنوج الملعين»
Transliteration	yaṣīḥ “Ibs”: “urquṣū ayyuhā al-zunūj al-malaʿīn ”
English gloss	“Epps” shouts: “dance you damned niggers ”

Example TT3.1.4b

ST3, p.234	“I’m d—d , Piatt, if I don’t believe you tell the truth, ...
TT3, p.231 (translator)	«لات» إذا لم أصدق أنك تقول الحقيقة.
Transliteration	al-laʿnah ʿalay yā “Blāt” idhā lam uṣaddiq annak taqūl al-ḥaḳīqah
English gloss	“Damn on me “Platt” if I don’t believe you are telling the truth”

Example TT3.1.4c

ST3, pp.256–257	“Epps was yet furious and savage as ever, demanding if she would like to go to Shaw’s again, and swearing he would flog her until she wished she was in h—1 .”
TT3, p.252 (translator)	كان «إبس» غاضباً ووحشياً كأكثر ما يكون وهو يسألها ما إذا كانت ستترغب في الذهاب إلى مزرعة «شو» مجدداً، وهو يقسم إنه يجلدّها حتى تتممّي الجحيم بدلاً من ذلك.
Transliteration	kān “Ibs” ghāḍīban wa-waḥshīyan ka-akthar mā yakūn wa-huwa yas’aluhā mā idhā kānat sa-targhab fī al-thahāb ilā mazraʿat “Shū” mujaddadan, wa-huwa yuqsim annah yajliduhā ḥattā tatamannā al-jaḥīm badalan min thālik

English gloss	“Epps” was angry and brutal at most while he is asking her if she would like to go to the farm of “Shaw” again, and he was swearing that he would flog her till she wishes hell instead of that.
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These examples illustrate how ‘damned’ and ‘hell’ are expressed in ST3 as ‘d—d’ and ‘h—1’, while they are translated bluntly and directly in Arabic as (الملاعین / al-mala^ʿīn – damned), (اللّعنه / al-la^ʿnah – damn) and (الجحیم / al-jaḥīm – hell). Although such rendering may seem offensive to innocent target readers, it is critical to the effect of the message in terms of delivering the violent ambience of the context.

The writer, who is a free-born African American, uses the the taboo word ‘niggers’ throughout the text, without using any marks or indications for euphemisms. Conveying the effect of such expressions in Arabic should also be subjected to censorship and house parameters. The translator here opted for (الزنوج / al-zunūj – niggers), which is a direct equivalent to ‘niggers’. According to Chamizo-Domínguez (2008, pp.116–117), whether expressions are understood as euphemisms or dysphemisms is determined by the context in which they occur. Similarly, the very prominent slavery and violent context of Solomon Northup’s memoir puts the word ‘nigger’ in a neutral presentation. However, this may also be subject to other factors, such as waves of censorship, shifting publication norms during particular periods of time and changes in meaning, as well as the uses and connotations of words, particularly euphemisms and dysphemisms. The proofreading and editing task here should pay attention to the presence of dysphemisms and study them within the context of the book and the house guidelines regarding censorship and publication. It is also important to notify the target readers about their existence in the translator’s preface or foreword.

1.5. Additions and omissions

Nine omissions when proofreading this text are made due to redundant repetition. Consider the example below:

Example TT3.1.5

ST3, p.65	Assuming a haughty mien, she declared to her companions, that immediately on our arrival in NewOrleans, she had no doubt , some wealthy single gentleman of good taste would purchase her at once!
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TT3, p.69 (translator)	وإمعاناً في غرورها، أعلنت لرفاقها أنها لا تشك البتة في لا شك أن رجلاً ثرياً أعزب، رفيع الذوق والمستوى، سوف يشتريها فور وصولنا إلى نيو أورليانز!
Transliteration	wa-im [°] ānan fī ghurūrihā, a [°] lanat li-rifāqihā annahā lā tashuk al-battah fī lā shak anna rajulan tharīyan a [°] zab, rafī [°] al-thawq wa-al-mustawā, sawfa yashtarīhā fawra wuṣūlinā ilā Niyū Urlīyānz
English gloss	Engrossing in her arrogance, she declared to her companions that she does not doubt at all that no doubt a wealthy single gentleman, of-high taste and status would buy her once we arrive to New Orleans!
TT3, p.69 (proofreader)	وإمعاناً في غرورها، أعلنت لرفاقها أنها لا تشك البتة في أن رجلاً ثرياً أعزب، رفيع الذوق والمستوى، سوف يشتريها فور وصولنا إلى نيو أورليانز!
Transliteration	wa-im [°] ānan fī ghurūrihā, a [°] lanat li-rifāqihā annahā lā tashuk al-battah fī anna rajulan tharīyan a [°] zab, rafī [°] al-thawq wa-al-mustawā, sawfa yashtarīhā fawra wuṣūlinā ilā Niyū Urlīyānz
English gloss	Engrossing in her arrogance, she declared to her companions that she does not doubt at all that a wealthy single gentleman, of high taste and status would buy her once we arrive to New Orleans!

1.6. Collocations

The proofreader of TT3 corrected a lexical term out of collocation considerations in one case, as follows:

Example TT3.1.6

ST3, p.33:	“We crossed the ferry to Jersey City, ...”
TT3 p.39 (translator)	استقلينا العبارة إلى مدينة "جيرسي"
Transliteration	istaqallaynā al- [°] abbārah ilā madīnat “Jirsī”
English gloss	we- rode the ferry to “Jersey” City
ST3, p.33 (proofreader)	ركبنا العبارة إلى مدينة "جيرسي"
Transliteration	rakibnā al- [°] abbārah ilā madīnat “Jirsī”
English gloss	we- rode the ferry to “Jersey” City

The proofreader here replaced the word (استقلينا / istaqallaynā – we-rode), which collocates in Arabic mostly with bus, plane, boat or taxi (*Contemporary Dictionary of Arabic*, 2008), with (ركبنا / rakibnā – we-rode). In fact, both (استقلينا / istaqallaynā – we-rode) and (ركبنا / rakibnā – we-rode) can be used with all the aforementioned

transport systems and can collocate normally with (العبرة / al-^عabbārah – the-ferry). A quick check on Google’s search engine to check the frequency of use for each word on the Web shows 1,960 uses for the translator’s choice, whereas the proofreader’s replacement only has 300 uses (Google, 2 February 2016). Arabic dictionaries also use (استقلينا / istaqallaynā – we-rode) with ‘boats’, which are another form of sea transport that can arguably be an analogy for ‘ferries’. Yet, the proofreader replaced it with (ركب / rakab – ride), which is the stem word of the proofreader’s substitution (ركبنا / rakibnā – we-rode), probably a personal preference.

2. Syntax

In total, 77 changes were made by the proofreader for syntactic considerations.

Below are examples of relevant issues:

2.1. Grammatical errors

2.1.1. Gender and number agreement

The proofreader of TT3 corrected number agreement in 32 instances, as follows:

Example TT3.2.1.1

ST3, p.150	We..., then kept on foot till the water was three feet deep.
TT3, p.150 (translator)	ثم سرنا على أقدامنا حتى باتت المياه بعمق ثلاثة أقدام
Transliteration	thumma sirnā ^ع alā aqdāminā ḥattā bātat al-miyāh bi- ^ع umq thalāthat aqdām
English gloss	then we walked on our-feet till waters became three -[in feminine inflection] feet deep.
TT3, p.150 (proofreader)	ثم سرنا على أقدامنا حتى باتت المياه بعمق ثلاث أقدام
Transliteration	thumma sirnā ^ع alā aqdāminā ḥattā bātat al-miyāh bi- ^ع umq thalāth aqdām
English gloss	then we walked on feet till waters became three -[in masculine inflection] feet deep.

In this example, the proofreader corrected the number agreement of ‘three feet’. While the referent nouns agree with the numbers ‘one’ and ‘two’, they reverse the agreement for ‘three’ to ‘nine’ (Abboud and McCarus, 1983, p.415). The noun ‘feet’ is in the feminine form, therefore the number ‘three’ should be in the masculine form in Arabic, as (ثلاث / thalath – three-[masculine form]) rather than (ثلاثة / thalathat – three-[feminine marker]). The gender indicator here is ة (the tied and

attached ‘t’) (تاء مربوطة / tā’ marbūṭah – t -[feminine marker]), which is attached to nouns and adjectives to indicate their feminine form.

2.1.2. Case inflection

Among six corrections to grammatical inflections is this example:

Example TT3.2.1.2

TT3, p.65 (translator)	تم قيدي إلى رجل ضخم، ذا لون شاحب
Transliteration	tamma qaydī ilā rajul ḍakhm, dhā lawn shāḥib
English gloss	I was tied / shackled to a huge man, of-[in the nominative case] a pale colour)
TT3, p.65 (proofreader)	تم قيدي إلى رجل ضخم، ذي لون شاحب
Transliteration	tamma qaydī ilā rajul ḍakhm, dhī lawn shāḥib
English gloss	I was tied / shackled to a huge man, of-[in the genitive case] a pale colour)

Here, the proofreader has corrected the inflection of the possessive pronoun (ذا / dhā – possessor-of) as it functions here as an adjective describing the ‘huge man’ which comes in the genitive case. The inflection of adjectives in Arabic grammar follows the inflection of what it follows (Al-Afghānī, 1981, p.309). Thus, the genitive inflection for this pronoun should be (ذي / dhī – possessor-of). The inflection of this word, which is considered to be one of the exceptional cases in Arabic grammar under the category of ‘five defective nouns’ (some state there are six), is marked by one of the Arabic long vowels as the three cases of (ذو / dhū – possessor-of) nominative, (ذا / dhā – possessor-of) accusative and (ذي / dhī – possessor-of) genitive (El-Dahdah, 2011, p.444; Badawi *et al.*, 2015, p.60).

2.2. Definiteness and indefiniteness

The proofreader of TT3 made only one change, as shown below:

Example TT3.2.2

ST3, 225	They have a few privileges, however
TT3, p.223 (translator)	غير أنهم يتمتعون بقليل من المزايا ضئيلة
Transliteration	ghayr annahum yatamatta ^c ūn bi-qalīl min al-mazāya ḍa’īlah

English gloss	But they enjoy a little of limited the-privileges
TT3, p.223 (proofreader)	غير أنهم يتمتعون بقليل من المزايا الضئيلة
Transliteration	ghayrannahum yatmatta ^c ūn bi-qalīl min al-mazāya al-ḍa'īlah
English gloss	But they-enjoy a little of- the-limited the-privileges

The definiteness marker (ال / al- – the-) in the word (ضئيلة / ḍa'īlah – limited) is obviously missing or forgotten in the translation. This results in a poorly constructed sentence which could have been improved by the translator if s/he had re-read the sentence. However, the rendition of the proofreader in this instance draws attention to a redundant repetition in translation where both (ضئيلة / ḍa'īlah – limited) and (بقليل / bi-qalīl – a little) are used to render “a few”. This redundancy, however, could not be checked by the proofreader as a result of lacking access to the ST when proofreading. In this rendition, the meaning of the TT can be back-translated as (But they enjoy a-little of **limited the-privileges**) rather than (but they enjoy **limited privileges**). This redundancy, by attaching an additional adjective ‘a-little’ to ‘the-limited privileges’, in fact changed the meaning of the ST.

2.3. Prepositions

Corrections related to prepositions in proofreading can be made if they were missed in the typing by the translator. In proofreading TT3, 32 corrections to prepositions were made. Consider the example below:

Example TT3.2.3

TT3, (translator)	p.184	كان في وسعه أن يقف دون أن يحرك ساكنا
Transliteration		kān fī wis ^c ih an yaqif dūn an yuḥḥarik sākinan
English gloss		he could have stood still without moving
TT3, (proofreader)	p. 184	كان في وسعه أن يقف من دون أن يحرك ساكنا
Transliteration		kān fī wis ^c ih an yaqif min dūn an yuḥḥarik sākinan
English gloss		he could have stood still [added preposition] without moving

The proofreader added the preposition (من / min) before (دون / dūn – without) in 24 instances. Such a strategy eliminates confusion over use of the word (دون / dūn), which can also be used in Arabic in other senses as ‘inferior’ or ‘near’ (Ibn Manzūr, 2000). However, this strategy was not adopted when proofreading TT1 (see example TT1.3.2).

2.4. Word order and sentence structure

Sentences were changed structurally by the proofreader of TT3 in six cases. Here is an example:

Example TT3.2.4					
ST3, p.90	He is now a Baptist preacher.				
TT3, p.93 (translator)	وهو الآن واعظ معمداني				
Transliteration	wa-huwa al-ān wa ^ʿ iḏ m ^ʿ madāny				
English gloss	and	he	is	now	a Baptist preacher
Sentence structure	Preposition -	Subject-	Verb-	Adverb-	Adjective -Noun
TT3, p.93 (proofreader)	واصبح بعدها واعظا معمدانيا				
Transliteration	wa-aṣḥaḥ ba ^ʿ dahā wā ^ʿ iḏan m ^ʿ madānīyan				
English gloss	and-he-became after-that a-Baptist preacher)				
Sentence structure	(preposition-verb) Verbal clause	After-that Adverb-	(a Baptist preacher) Adjective - Noun		

The proofreader here changed the structure of the nominal sentence opted for by the translator as an equivalent rendition of the ST. The proofreader turned this structure into a verbal structure by inserting the verb (أصبح / aṣḥaḥ – he-became), applying what Dickins *et al.* (2002, p.237) call *grammatical transposition*. This technique denotes the process of translating the ST by opting for a different grammatical structure in the TT. Similarly, the proofreader here changes the grammatical arrangement suggested by the translator. *Grammatical transposition* (ibid.) in this example is also present when changing the translator’s version from the present tense to the past as s/he changed (and he is now a Baptist preacher) to (and he became after that a Baptist preacher). This, in turn, resulted in a non- equivalent message in TT3, where the proofreader interpreted “now” as (after-that).

3. Textual and stylistic choices

In total, 39 textual and stylistic changes were made to TT3. Examples are provided under the categories below:

3.1. Punctuation marks

The input of the proofreader of TT3 regarding colons, semicolons, commas and dashes is nil. This absence may be due to their limited use in ST3. Only 32 punctuation changes were made to this text.

3.1.1. Commas and full stops

The proofreader of TT3 did not add commas to the text. That is probably due to the writing style of the book, which centres on straightforward narration and dialogue. On the other hand, adding full stops during the proofreading of TT3 occurred 22 times, of which 21 are to the table of contents (see Appendices H.1 and H.2, H.3, H.4 and H.5), although it could be argued that adding full stops to headings in the table of contents is unnecessary as the headings are usually linked to page numbers by dots. According to Kalima's guidelines for proofreading (see Appendix D), headings should be presented in the table of contents as they appear in the body of the book. However, these headings do not end with a full stop in the various parts of the book. In fact, these headings, which are mentioned in the table of contents, function as keywords to chapters as they list the main incidents. It is, therefore, more about the layout and style chosen for the table of contents. In this example, the translator chose to link the numbers of the chapters to page numbers by dots, whereas subheadings of the chapters are listed in detail. The proofreader closed these keywords by adding a full stop.

3.1.2. Direction of punctuation marks

In TT3, the proofreader corrected the direction of closing and opening quotation marks, which is the same in both ST and TL. For example, the translator wrote on p.236 the proper name Epps as «إيس» but the proofreader corrected the direction of the second quotation mark to give «إيس»

3.2. Cohesive devices

The proofreader of TT3 added a cohesive device in one case only, as shown below:

Example TT3.2.1	
ST3, p.133	...with one hand I caught his uplifted arm, with the other seized him by the throat.
TT3, p.135 (translator)	فأمسكت بذراعه المرفوعة بيد، بعنقه باليد الأخرى
Transliteration	fa-amsakt bi-thirā ^c ih al-marfū ^c ah bi-yad ₂ bi- ^c unuqih bi-al-yad al-ukhrah
English gloss	so I held his uplifted arm by one hand, his neck by the other hand

TT3, p.135

فأمسكت بذراعه المرفوعة بيد، وبعنقه باليد الأخرى

(proofreader)

Transliteration

fa-amsakt bi-thirā[°]ih al-marfū[°]ah bi-yad, wa-bi-[°]unuqih
bi-al-yad al-ukhrah

English gloss

So I held his uplifted arm by one hand, **and** his neck by
the other hand

Here, the proofreader linked two sentences by using the cohesive device (و / wa – and). This addition strengthens the construction of the sentences stylistically and emphasises that the verb (فأمسكت / fa-amsakt – I held) applies to (بعنقه / bi-[°]unuqih – his neck) and (بذراعه / bi-thirā[°]ih – his arm) semantically. This example shows another instance where the translator failed to render the message of ST3 with an equivalent in TT3. (ST3, p.133). According to *The Oxford English Dictionary* (2015), the word “seize” means to “take hold of suddenly and forcibly”. This sense of suddenness and forcefulness is not conveyed in TT3 in the example above, resulting in a less violent image than intended in ST3. This semantic change leaves readers of TT3 with a different impression from that of the readers of ST3.

3.3. Layout, typography and structure

The proofreading of TT3 did not involve any corrections regarding the presentation of English phrases in the translated text as the translator did not opt to add English versions to the transliterated names of people and places.

4. Orthography

In total, 88 orthographical corrections were made to this text.

4.1. Hamza

The proofreading of this text involved 16 corrections regarding hamza.

4.1.2. Medial hamza

The proofreading marks show violations of these rules by the translator, as in the example below:

Example TT3.4.1.2

TT3, p.96 (translator)

ر عوسها

Transliteration

ru'ūsihā

English gloss	its heads
TT1, p.96 (proofreader)	رؤوسها
Transliteration	ru'ūsihā
English gloss	its heads

The translator wrote hamza on the line, though it is preceded by (◌ُ/ ḍammah) and followed by و /wāw/, meaning that it should be written as /wāw/ و.

4.1.3. Final hamza

The translator of TT3 misspelled the word (القاريء / al-qārī' – the reader) which should be written as (القارئ / al-qārī' – the reader). Writing hamza here should follow the rule for medial hamza as it is preceded by (◌◌ /kasra).

4.1.5. Rules for hamza regarding (إنَّ / inna) and (أَنَّ / anna)

There were errors in following this rule in all three translations, including this one, for example:

Example TT3.4.1.5	
TT3, p.169 (translator)	يمكنني القول أن
Transliteration	yumkinunī al-qawl anna
English gloss	I-can-be saying that-is
TT3, p.169 (proofreader)	يمكنني القول إن
Transliteration	yumkinunī al-qawl inna
English gloss	I-can say that-is

The word (إنَّ / inna – that is) comes after the verbal noun (القول / al-qawl – saying). The hamza of inna should be written below *alif* as corrected by the proofreader.

4.2. Nunation (tanwīn)

The proofreader added nunation diacritics in 15 cases where these markers seem to be forgotten, such as below:

Example TT3.4.2	
TT3, 294 (translator)	كان منتصف الليل وقت متأخر جداً.
Transliteration	kān muntaṣaf al-layl waqt muta'akhkhir jiddan

English gloss	Midnight was a very late time
TT3, 294 (proofreader)	كان منتصف الليل وقتاً متأخراً جداً
Transliteration	kān muntaṣaf al-layl waqtan muta'akhiran jiddan
English gloss	Mid-night was a-very late time

The proofreader here emphasises the accusative case of the predicate of (كان /kan – was) by adding nunation to (وقت / waqt – time). The adjective (متأخر / muta'akhir – late) also follows the same grammatical inflection. Thus, the proofreader has added accusative nunation to it also.

4.3. General ‘typos’

In total, there are 57 ‘typos’ in this text. For example, the letter ر /r/ is missing in the translator’s version in the example below:

Example TT3.4.3

TT3, p.332 (translator)	نيويوك
Transliteration	niyūyūk
English gloss	[it cannot be identified as word]
TT3, 332 (proofreader)	نيويورك
Transliteration	niyūyürk
English gloss	(New York)

Other comments on the proofreading of TT1-3

It should be noted that the proofreading of TT1 shows significantly greater difficulty in resolving orthographic problems and also problems with punctuation and ‘typos’. However, unlike the other texts (TT2 and TT3), the proofreader has added no diacritics or notes for the editor. The proofreader of TT2 suggested adding 13 diacritics and wrote four notes to the editor, whereas seven diacritics were added to the TT3, but no notes to the editor.

6.4 Proofreading and editing process at Kalima: discussion and recommendations

This section summarises the strategies adopted by the proofreaders and editors in the four main categories, the quality issues these raise and how they might be addressed. Due to the lack of any error typology or criteria against which proofreaders and editors of Kalima carry out their work, other than the general guidelines (see Appendix D), the focus in this analysis is on problem areas in order to identify quality issues, rather than on the many areas of strength in the quality of the proofreading and translation as shown in the examples, which would dilute the focus.

1. Issues at the lexical level

Issues at the lexical level varied between the TTs. The proofreader of TT1 made changes to improve the text, yet sometimes inconsistently, but paying close attention to additions, omissions and synonyms. The proofreader of TT2 had a less confident strategy, was more likely to ask the editor for guidance and did not raise the issue of inconsistent presentation of transliterations of proper nouns by the translator. The proofreader for TT3 also showed some potential weaknesses in judgement by making changes based on guesswork due to lack of access to the source text and not raising potential issues of inappropriate terminology for the editor to make a final judgement.

A key quality issue at the lexical level was inconsistency. With regard to synonyms and near- synonyms, corrections to TT1 lacked consistency when translating “Traditional” and “Classical” Marxism, as well as “postmodernity” and “postmodernism” (examples TT1.1.3b–f). TT2 lacked consistent transliteration of proper nouns by the translator, who transliterated the name “Thomas-Francois Dalibard” but not “Frankenstein”.

Another key issue is where the boundaries lie between the roles of the translator, proofreader and editor. Changes to TT2 were made for stylistic rather than linguistic reasons (see example TT2.1.1), and a change was made to TT3 to render “milk” correctly (example TT3.1.2) that was beyond the proofreader’s remit, as this required access to ST3 to do this with certainty. Good practice for dealing with potentially inappropriate language by flagging it up to the editor was shown by the

proofreader of TT2 (example TT2.1.4), but in TT3 (examples TT3.1.4a–c) similar issues with dysphemisms were not flagged up. While a judgement not to make changes may be correct, it is not clear whether Kalima would expect the proofreader to flag this up in any case to ensure the editor agrees with the choices made.

Clear errors included the rendering of “masturbatory” literally rather than metaphorically in example TT1.1.4, the creation of an unnecessary neologism for “pores” in TT2, and the decision to remove a reference to God rather than opting for a neutral equivalent in example TT1.1.5b. In the last case, it should be noted that readers could be Arabic-speaking readers from any religion, so not being able to communicate on a neutral basis with all of them would show a lack of understanding of potential customers as well as compromising the TQM principle of customer focus. The proofreader may have opted for omission rather than substitution due to a lack of confidence or not having access to the ST, which made omission seem less risky. A similar problem occurred with renderings in examples TT2.1.7a and b, where the translation shows the influence of a Levantine Arabic dialect not appropriate to the context.

Such errors may be due to a lack of competence, training, access to specialist dictionaries, access to the source text or other problems that may need further investigation and a change to the process. In addition, a large number of proofreaders’ changes to deal with redundant repetition suggest translators may also need more time or guidance with revision of their work before submission.

There were subtle errors related to collocations. Though there were few changes, and none in TT1, the appropriate use of collocations is a very important indicator of the quality of language in Arabic. Therefore, word choices in translation and proofreading should be based on how they collocate best in the TT. In TT2.1.6, the proofreader improved the collocation, though the improvement by the proofreader in TT3.1.6 appears unnecessary and the editor may well judge the original translation preferable. Specialised collocation dictionaries can be used effectively to ensure the correct idiomaticity and writing style of a translation and avoid any indication of language weakness.

2. Syntax

Corrections to syntax appeared less problematic than lexical changes, partly due to the ability to make judgements without reference to the ST more easily.

There appear to be no great issues with proofreaders' strategies for dealing with syntax. The only possible proofreading issues to investigate may be regarding whether differences in the frequency of grammatical corrections reflect differences in the quality of translation or proofreading. Fewer corrections for gender and number agreement were made by the proofreader for TT3, while a large number of changes for number agreement were made to TT1 and for gender agreement to TT2. In general, a translator would be expected to notice such mistakes when revising or 'reviewing' (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.2) their own translations before submission.

With regard to translation quality, the large number of corrections to prepositions suggests it would be worth considering giving guidance to proofreaders to have a run through their documents looking only for prepositional mistakes. However, it also indicates that translators may lack some degree of linguistic competence. Missing prepositions affect the construction of sentences, and this could easily be avoided by sparing some time for re-reading. It is important for Kalima to explain in detail how to avoid mistakes, such as those related to prepositions, provide their proofreaders with a list of common mistakes to avoid and make sure only competent proofreaders are assigned to tasks.

3. Textual and stylistic choices

The proofreaders appear to have individual styles and different strategies to improve readability. TT1 was improved through changes to punctuation. The proofreader removed semicolons where possible and replaced them with commas, which are more common in Arabic texts (see example TT1.3.1.1). TT2 was improved through the addition of cohesive devices (see TT2.3.2a and b) and semicolons (example TT2.3.1.1). TT3 was improved to a lesser extent, with far fewer changes to punctuation in particular. Such changes may possibly be accounted for by differences in the quality of the initial translation.

The proofreader for TT1 used changes in word order to add emphasis; however, this caused changes in meaning (see example TT1.2.4), possibly due to a temptation to

improve the text. The proofreader of TT3 made similar changes (example TT3.3.2), but without causing any loss of meaning. It is very hard to judge how important a possible loss of meaning might be, particularly without access to the ST. If it is assumed that quality means that faithfulness to the original is more important than readability, then proofreaders would need to be very conservative in making changes to word order, which result in subtle changes in meaning. However, the editor does have access to the ST, so it should be fine to make changes liberally and let the editor decide.

Another area where proofreaders could do more work is in finding ways to substitute for punctuation marks. Although commas, punctuation marks and full stops are significant for comprehending Arabic texts, the absence of a standardised punctuation system in Arabic writing reduces their value as tools for comprehension. They are more commonly used in Arabic to organise the text and facilitate the reading of lengthy sentences. Generally speaking, a well-constructed Arabic text is defined by its logical flow of ideas, overt and clear presentation of statements, and the explicit use of cohesive devices, pronominal references (Baker, 2011, p.199) and connectors.

Often, punctuation marks in the three texts are dictated by their presence in the STs. Although the Arabic and English writing systems seem, arguably, to be similar regarding the use of certain punctuation marks, such as full stops, brackets, speech marks, exclamation marks and question marks, the functions of other punctuation marks in Arabic are still questionable and not standardised, e.g. commas and semicolons. The translators of these particular STs often render punctuation marks in the TTs by finding correspondents for them in Arabic rather than compensating for their functions linguistically. To overlook the functional counterparts available in the TL can result in a loss in translation, and proofreaders should surely correct that by finding ways to render functions rather than simply relying on orthographic equivalents.

Where more familiar forms of punctuation have been altered, these are usually to improve the flow of the text. It is inherently difficult to produce guidelines for these issues, so the choice of style is up to those involved in editing and proofreading translations. However, improvements may be possible by having clear guidelines for

full stops in headings and tables of contents, which appeared to be an issue in the proofreading of TT3.

There are also many issues relating to presenting English proper names and phrases as they do not conform to Kalima's requirement to present them on one line. Instead, most of them were split into two. This presentation requirement is very important for comprehension and readability, because Arabic is written from right to left, whereas English is written from left to right. This was a key issue identified in both TT1 and TT2, and it accounted for the majority of the proofreader's comments on layout, typography and structure. On the other hand, TT3 did not suffer from this issue as it did not present the English at all, which raises the question of consistency regarding translating names and whether Kalima has clear guidance regarding the importance of adding an English version. Kalima should therefore develop detailed guidelines to address these issues and ensure consistency in the house style.

4. Orthographical and typographical errors

Many spelling problems revolve around understanding certain orthographical rules regarding hamza and transliteration. The analysis also reflects the importance of paying more attention to Arabic syntax by focusing on the grammatical cases of some words, which may require the marking of indefiniteness by nunation (*tanwīn*) or specific diacritics. These errors are to be expected in any text and are a key task for proofreaders to address.

All the texts had problems relating to hamza, and this may be worth raising as a specific proofreading issue in guidance to proofreaders. TT1 appeared to have the most problems with the hamza, as reflected in the table of frequencies, with the majority of mistakes being due to a missing initial hamza. This may suggest a lack of focus on the part of the translator.

'Typos' were common in all the texts. Again, the frequency of such 'typos' might be an indicator of the quality of self-checking by the translator; however, this is also a core part of the proofreader's job, and some mistakes are to be expected.

7. Chapter Seven: Revision analysis

As presented in Chapter Three, the translation process in the organisational context involves a common practice in which at least two professionals collaborate in the production of the TT. This collaboration can be between translator, reviser and proofreader (see 2.2.3). The previous chapter presents the analysis and findings of proofreading text analysis at Kalima. This chapter continues by investigating Kalima's second level of in-process QC procedures, namely revision. The chapter begins by presenting a theoretical overview on translation revision and Mossop's (2014) revision parameters around which the analysis and its findings is constructed. This aims at understanding and studying the revision process in a quality management context, as adopted by Kalima and similar TSPs, for related managerial and technical norms in the UAE. This is intended to help in arriving at an effective and sound conclusion.

7.1 Definition of Revision

At the most general level, revision means scrutinising a piece of work, written draft or activity in order to improve it. Revision, also sometimes called bilingual editing, is defined under ISO 17100 as “bilingual examination of target language content against source language content for its suitability for the agreed purpose” (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.2). Suitability for purpose may be understood as both fitting the purposes of the TT and the expectations of the readership (Mossop, 2014, p.22). As an activity, this may include the comparison of TT against the ST for terminological consistency, language register and formatting (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, pp.10-11). According to Mossop (2014, p.1) revision includes “reading a translation to spot problematic passages, and making any needed corrections or improvements”.

According to Chakhachiro (2005, p. 23), the aim of revision is “to ensure that a translation is an accurate and acceptable rendition of a ST for the target readership”. Martin (2007) in his article *Managing Risks and Resources* is of the view that revision's primary purpose is to mitigate errors, while improvement to enhance the readership quality is an added benefit. However, he is concerned with the cost and resources the process of revision involves and argues that it is essential to have an

overall understanding of the cost-effectiveness of the process.

Revision, in the translation process, is also a tool for assessment or for maintaining quality assurance in the translation process. In her article *A Comparison of Translation Quality Assessment Practices*, Brunette (2000, p. 173) identifies revision as one of the most significant factors for quality assurance. She lists different testing methods, which are described by Pérez (2002) as assessment practices that “summarise the complex and broad field of translation quality management and offer a useful introduction to a much discussed area of quality definition for language services”. As part of her quality testing practices, Brunette (2000, p. 173) distinguishes two types of revision, namely, didactic revision and pragmatic revision. The former is a synonym for ‘formative revision’: the ST is compared thoroughly and carefully to the TT while aiming to improve on the translator’s skills by giving him/her useful feedback. The latter, however, refers to revision that is carried out by another individual who does not have contact with the translator and aims merely to improve the final text with reference to the ST. In practice, Martin (2007) says that revision is not well understood as a concept or an activity in TSPs. He proposes a fit-for-purpose strategy for the industry that should be adopted in order to balance their resources and requirements and minimise risk.

Many terms are used interchangeably to refer to the concept of revision presented above. On the one hand, the process of revising a translation by the same translator after the translation process may be called ‘checking’ (Graham, 1989; BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.10), ‘revision’ (Sager, 1994, p.238; Shih, 2006, p.295) or ‘self-revision’ (Shih 2006, p.297; Mossop 2007, 2014). On the other hand, revising a translation by using another pair of eyes may be called ‘bilingual revision’, termed “révision bilingue” in French by Brunette (Brunette, 2003 as cited in Robert, 2008, p.6), ‘other-revision’ (Mossop, 2007, 2014) or just revision (Mossop, 2007, 2014; Sager, 1994; Newmark, 2001, p.105; BSI ISO 17100, 2015).

In light of the definitions and terms presented above, the concept of ‘revision’ may involve self-revising or revision by another person in an effort to ensure that work achieves the highest level of authenticity as well as its intended outcome. The essence of revision is, therefore, to check, amend and finalise a translated text for

the sake of improvement and quality assurance. However, this thesis adopts the relevant established terms of ISO 17100, i.e. ‘check’ refers to one’s own revision, whereas ‘revision’ refers to revising the work of another translator (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.10).

7.2 Revision loyalty

Künzli (2007, p.42) suggests that the revision process should be undertaken by a professional other than the translator to check errors and apply required changes to the TT, while ensuring its loyalty to the ST. The concept of ‘loyalty’ in translation was introduced by Christiane Nord in 1989 (Nord, 2001, p.185) in response to functionalism (see 2.1.1.3), arguing that loyalty of translation considers three aspects: (1) the ST’s authors, including their choices and intentions they preserve; (2) the commissioners or translation requesters who have a specific purpose and specifications for the TT; (3) the target readers of TT who have expectations and cultural considerations to be respected. However, this view regarding loyalty has been criticised by Pym (1997) for overlooking the translator’s key role and interpretational efforts in the process of transfer rather than conforming to others’ requirements. In this regard, Kautz (2002) (as cited in Künzli, 2007) adds a fourth aspect to those suggested by Nord (2001), namely the loyalty of translators to themselves, an aspect which considers the translator’s values, ethics and competencies. In this respect, translators may not accept a task that contradicts their own ethical standpoint. On loyalty in translation revision, Künzli (2007, p.53) points to the “need to consider the responsibility revisers have to themselves, i.e. their own legitimate interests and expectations”. Yet this, it has been argued, may be jeopardised by speed and time constraints which may entail revisers settling their ethical values on quality and degree of revision (Mossop, 2014, pp.126-127). Revisers may find themselves in a dilemma with respect to fulfilling the requirements of the ST’s author, translator, TT’s requester, target readers, proofreader and subject-matter expert who may have different views (Mossop, 2014, p.123). To overcome this dilemma and deal with time and speed constraints, Künzli (2007, 54) points out that translation briefs (see 7.2) are not enough for revision since it is important to provide revisers with a tailored brief for revision, “stating explicitly what is expected from them in terms of full or partial revision and what

parameters of the draft translation they are supposed to check” (see 2.2.3.3). Otherwise, revisers would possibly be working less than confidently with regard to loyalty both to themselves and the other partners involved in the process (Künzli, 2007, 54.).

7.3 Revision tasks

As indicated by the definitions, revisers are expected to examine the content of the TT against the ST while considering the target readership and other requirements agreed upon at the assigning stage. In this regard, Mossop (2014, p.115) observes:

With some texts, the reviser’s job is restricted to correcting: fixing omissions, major mistranslations, gross translationese, significant terminology errors, and departures from the rules of the standard language. With other texts, revisers must also make improvements: make the writing quality better (i.e. do stylistic editing; eliminate minor translationese) and make minor adjustments in meaning to better reflect the source text.

However, the scope of these tasks varies from one TSP to another and may be customised to meet the expectations of the target readership or requirements of the commissioner.

7.4 Importance of the Revision Process

The criteria for regulating the revision process play an important role in revision as a sub-process of translation. According to Hermans (1996, p. 27), the norms of revision established in the industry are part of the whole production process and not only an element of the process of translation. Such norms facilitate decision-making for amending a word, text or sentence during revision. Further, Hermans (ibid.) believes the reviser’s role is as essential as that of the translator. This is because translators make decisions when translating a ST into a different language in accordance with the translation brief, while revisers serve as referees to verify the validity and suitability of these decisions in order to maintain quality and produce consistent results (ibid.). As stated above (see 2.2.3.3), expected qualifications of revisers are similar to those needed from translators. However, there are some other competencies that may be required to complete revision. For instance, although revisers should examine the decision-making carried out during the translation process, they “are expected to move through the text far more rapidly than the

original translator” (Mossop, 2014, p.101). Hence, revisers are likely to follow identified and implemented criteria for already translated work more keenly, in a more skilful fashion and in less time.

7.5 Revision in the translation workflow

Preparation for revision begins by obtaining the ST, the translated text and the translation brief. As stated above (see 2.2.4.1), the translation brief sets out the guidelines or instructions issued by the client to provide specific directions for the translator to follow. Fraser (2000, p. 53) points to the importance of a translation brief for “decision-making on style, register, how to deal with cultural concepts, amplification, and similar issues”. The revision process is also assessed in relation to the translation brief (Adab, 2000, p. 223). Revisers therefore rely on how the commissioner deals with these issues in the translation brief to determine changes, such as omissions, additions, inaccuracies or spelling mistakes. Another issue is ensuring consistency within the TT so that changes in one place do not affect other parts of the work. However, as mentioned above (see 7.2), it is argued that briefs provided to revisers should include more aspects that are specifically related to the process of revision (Künzli, 2007, 54).

7.6 Revision parameters

Newmark (2006, p. 186) argues that the attributes of a good translation differ in terms of meaning, content and quality since there is no absolute definition of quality in the translation industry. This is in line with Mossop (2014, p. 22), who says “quality is always relative to needs”. Mossop (2014, p.22) and ASTM F2575 (ASTM International, 2014, p.1075) argue that quality control and quality assessment procedures must be predefined in an agreement with the client so that the intended quality objectives are met. To achieve this, Mossop proposes a quality revision framework that specifies the revision parameters for the reviser to check (2014, pp.134–149). He details the most important errors in a reasonably short list. His model was selected due to its manageable and reliable nature as it classifies errors into different groups and provides a basis for further discussions on the questions of transfer, content, language and presentation.

7.6.1 Brian Mossop's revision parameters

Mossop's model of revision consists of four parameters, namely: (1) transfer, (2) content, (3) language and (4) presentation. These parameters are detailed below, as presented in the 3rd edition of Mossop's book *Editing and Revising for Translators* (2014, pp.134–149):

1. Problems of meaning transfer (Transfer)

Accuracy

The foremost task of the translator is to ensure that the content of the TT means (more or less) the same as the ST. Thus, for a reviser the first thing to check is that no major mistranslations have occurred. Mossop (*ibid.*, pp.135-136) is of the view that accuracy is not limited to the level of words, phrases and sentences but also includes the correct rendering of the overall message conveyed in the source text.

Completeness

Unintentional omissions in, or additions to, the concepts presented in the ST are among the most common issues identified in translation processes. This problem increases the salience of the concept “No Addition, No Subtractions” (NANS) (*ibid.*, p.137), which is referred to by Mossop as “completeness”. Completeness is a core element of the translation process, and revisers should carefully monitor and identify such errors to maintain the quality of the translation and achieve a higher level of execution.

2. Problems of content (Content)

Logic

According to Mossop (2014, p.140), revisers should carefully monitor the logic of a text and ensure that the ideas in the TT are not silly or outrageous. By this he means illogical, nonsense or contradictory sentences in the target text which do not make sense to the reader. Many revisers have encountered texts where the translator refers to totally different scenarios within the same sentence. For instance: “We are making use of innovative technologies because the latest advancements are not affordable” (Mossop, 2014, p.141). The sentence is meaningless and appears to contradict itself. Such errors are mostly encountered with word-for-word translations. Another important process is to check the ST itself to ensure the

mistake is not in the original text.

Facts

Checking facts or figures for statistical or mathematical errors is one of the tasks included in revision (ibid., p.142). In some cases, if a change of unit is needed then the reviser should check the changing figures. For instance, for financial translations, changing the unit from dollars to Emirati dirhams is not sufficient as a conversion of the figures should be done as well. Such errors are of communicative importance to the reader and must align with the text. These can be spotted easily by subject experts, and thus should not be left unchallenged if clearly observed. When this occurs, it is very important for the translator/ reviser to note and report the error to the end-user to clarify that the problem originates in the ST, not in the translation. The reviser should also verify such facts and clearly state the reason for highlighting them.

3. Problems of language and style (Language)

Mossop (ibid., pp.144-147) identifies language and style errors as sub-categories that guide revisers to look at the smoothness of a text, idioms, tailoring and the mechanics of the text. According to Mossop (ibid.), this level checks the smoothness of text to examine the flow of words in context as well as the relationships between sentences and paragraphs. Sequencing of adjectives in translation from English to Arabic is a common problem. For instance, there are different valid versions to translate ‘the beautiful flawless shiny 2-carat round-cut diamond ring’ to Arabic, such as (خاتم الألماس الجميل النقي اللامع بحجم قيراطين وقصة الدائرية) / khātam al-almās al-jamīl al-naqay al-lāmi^c bi-ḥajm qīrāṭayn wa-qassah dā’irīyah – the-diamond ring the-flawless the-shiny of two-carats and round cut), (الخاتم الجميل والمرصع بالألماس النقي اللامع) (الخاتم الألماسي) / al-khātam al-almāsay al-jamīl al-dā’iri al-naqay al-lāmi^c dhū al-qīrāṭayn wa-al-qassah al-dā’irīyah – the-beautiful ring inlaid with the-diamond the-flawless the-shiny of two-carats and the-round cut) or (الجميل الدائري النقي اللامع بحجم قيراطين وقصة الدائرية) / al-khātam al-almāsay al-jamīl al-dā’iri al-naqay al-lāmi^c bi-ḥajm qīrāṭayn – the-diamond ring the-beautiful the-round the-flawless the-shiny of two-carats). Arguably, all of them may be grammatically correct, but the reviser should determine which version would provide a perfect flow in the

given context.

Further, the translation has to be tailored to the target audience. This is often related to technical terms, phrases or expressions that might not be suitable for everyone to read and understand. For example, translating a manual for installing a TV at home should be tailored to the level of understanding of a lay reader.

Under this parameter, revisers should also consider that different types of texts and writing styles may have their own lexical, syntax and rhetorical constraints in a language. These styles need to be maintained in the TT for clarity. In English, for example, minutes of meetings are written in the past tense, while French and Spanish use the present tense. Thus, when translating the minutes of a meeting from English to French, the translator is expected to follow the conventions of that genre in the TL. Similarly, academic papers, essays, books etc. follow a particular rhetorical style in each language that should be taken into careful consideration during translation and revision. Mossop refers to this as a sub-language of the style (*ibid*, 144).

4. Problems related to the visual rather than verbal aspects of a text (Presentation)

Lastly, the presentation, typography and layout of a text are assessed to make sure that the content is presented to the reader as per the guidelines (*ibid.*, pp.148-149).

Therefore, the analysis below will follow these four main four parameters:

1. Transfer
2. Content
3. Language
4. Presentation

7.7 Revision analysis of TT4, TT5 and TT6

This section will present examples of translation problems that occur in 20-page samples of three books translated by Kalima. These three books were selected by Kalima on the basis of their evaluation being very good, good and bad translations, respectively, and each one was provided in two versions: pre-revision and post-revision. These are not the same books as those provided for proofreading analysis

so they will be presented separately and consecutively as TT4, TT5 and TT6 for practical cross-referencing purposes. Where appropriate, the pre-revised translations are referred to as TT4a, TT5a and TT6a, to distinguish them from the revised translations presented as TT4b, TT5b and TT6b, respectively. Revision changes are neither marked nor tracked in the way proofreading versions are. Instead revisers applied changes directly to the word-processed document.

It should be noted that the interviews conducted with Kalima professionals (IP4 and IP6) suggest that revision is perceived in the same sense as Mossop's definition which is "a full re-reading of the translation for accuracy and language quality, with each sentence being compared to the corresponding part of the source text" (Mossop, 2014, p.116). However, Kalima does not provide any brief (neither translation nor revision), guidance or checklists that can be used as a benchmark for revision analysis (IP4, 2014). Further, revision is assigned only when proofreaders find that a passage or sentence in the translation sounds odd. In this case, the full text is sent to a reviser for a full revision (IP4).

The revision analysis is structured in accordance with the four revision parameters derived from Mossop's model to study the strengths, weaknesses and efficiency of the revision process at Kalima, and evaluate the role of revision in maintaining quality in the translation process.

7.7.1 Revision analysis of TT4

About the book (ST4)

Arab Voices: What They Are Saying to Us and Why it Matters by James Zogby is a 256-page popular social science book published in 2010. It analyses the findings of attitude surveys in Arab countries conducted by the polling organisation Zogby International. It also includes interviews and personal anecdotes as well as a section on how Western governments can remedy their misunderstandings of Arab attitudes. The book was republished in 2012 with an afterword covering issues raised by recent uprisings in the region.

Revision parameters

Studying the two versions (before and after revision) exposed issues related to the accuracy of content and information transfer. These issues were usually due to lexical changes, additions or omissions. This analysis compared ST4 with the revised TT4b, showing 82 mistakes related to transfer and content, and non-functional additions and omissions. These mistakes, however, were not corrected in the process of revision. The examples below elucidate the revision process adopted for TT4.

1. Transfer

1.1 Transfer/ inaccuracy

Example TT4.1.1a

ST4, (table of contents)	Listening to the Levant
TT4a, p. 4 (translator)	قدرة المشرق على سماع الآخر
Transliteration	Qudrat al-mashriq °alā samā ° al-ākhar
English gloss	The Levant's ability to hear the other
TT4b, p. 3 (reviser)	قدرة المشرق على الاستماع إلى الآخر
Transliteration	Qudrat al-mashriq °alā al-istimā ° li-al-ākhar
English gloss	The Levant's ability to listen to the other

The translator's rendition here misinterpreted 'the-Levant' in ST4 as the object and rendered it in TT4 as the subject. Instead of 'listening to the Levant', the message became 'The-Levant's ability to listen to the-other'. The reviser did not correct this inaccuracy as s/he focused on improving the translation instead of checking its accuracy by changing the word (سماع / samā° – hearing) to (الاستماع / al-istimā° – listening). The unclear conceptual distinction between (سماع / samā° – hearing) and (استماع / istimā° – listening) that appears here is discussed further in 2.1 and 2.3 of TT4 analysis. The following is another example of inaccuracy:

Example TT4.1.1b

ST4, p.3	At that time, I noted that if she had attempted to sell rice the same way she had sought to market America, Uncle Ben's never would have left the shelf.
TT4a, p.9 (translator)	أدركت بيريذ أنذاك أنها لو حاولت أن تببيع الأرز بالطريقة ذاتها التي حاولت من خلالها الترويج لأمريكا فإن أرز العم بينز لن يغادر أرفف المحلات التجارية.

Transliteration	Adrakat birīz ānadhāk annahā law ḥāwalat an tabī ^c al-arauz bi-al-ṭarīqah dhātihā al-latī ḥāwalat min khilālihā al-tarwīj li-amrīkā fa-inna aruz al- ^c am Binz lan yughādir arfuf al-maḥallāt al-tijārīyah.
English gloss	Beers realised at that time that if she attempted to sell rice the same way by which she attempted to market for America Uncle Ben's rice would not leave the shelves of the shops.
TT4b, p.8 (reviser)	أدركت بيريز أنذاك أنها لو حاولت [قديمًا] بيع الأرز بالطريقة ذاتها التي روجت بها لأمریکا، ما كان لأرز العم بينز أن يغادر أرفف المحلات التجارية.
Transliteration	adrakat birīz ānadhāk annahā law ḥāwalat [qadīman] bay ^c al-arauz bi-al-ṭarīqah dhātihā al-latī rawajat bihā li-amrīkā, mā kāna li-aruz al- ^c am Binz an yughādir arfuf al-maḥallāt al-tijārīyah.
English gloss	Beers realised at that time that if she tried [before] selling rice the same way she marketed for America, Uncle Ben's rice would not have t left the shelves of the shops.

The example here also appears to reflect a partial reference to ST4. For instance, the reviser attempted to compensate for the lack of a past participle verb form in Arabic grammar by adding [before] between square brackets to compare an action occurring in the past 'marketing for America' with another one occurring further in the past 'selling Uncle Ben's rice'. The structure of the sentence was also revised and changed to (ما كان لأرز العم بينز أن يغادر أرفف المحلات التجارية) (mā kāna li-aruz al-^cam bīnz an yughādir arfuf al-maḥallāt al-tijārīyah - Uncle Ben's rice would have not left the shelves of the shops). The Arabic revised version shown here does not structure the sentence by using a past participle as suggested in the English gloss, but rather it implies it through the term (ما كان / mā kāna) which functions as 'would have not'.

In this example, the reviser apparently paid greater attention to the structure of ST4 than to its sense. It was obvious that Zogby, the author, was referring to himself in 'I noted', but the translator associated the verb with Beers instead and the reviser did not correct this mistaken reference but addressed other issues relating to sentence structure.

1.2 Transfer/ lexical choice

The following example exhibits a number of issues related to translating ST4 and revising TT4 in terms of transfer. One of them relates to lexical choice.

Example TT4.1.2

ST4, p. 5	The full picture of a people emerges not only from high-profile discussions and methodical polling , but also from the countless number of chance encounters with Arabs going about their daily lives.
TT4a, p.12 (translator)	لم تتضح الصورة الكاملة لهذه الأمة من خلال نقاش وحوار حظي بدعم إعلامي واسع الانتشار فقط، بل من خلال عدد لا يُحصى من اللقاءات الغير مرتبة مسبقاً مع عرب يمارسون حياتهم اليومية.
Transliteration	Lam tattaḍiḥ al-šūrah al-kāmilah li-hādhīh al-ummah min khilāl niqāsh wa-ḥiwār ḥaẓīya bi-da^cm i^clāmī wāsi^c al-intishār faqaṭ , bal min khilāl ^c adad lā yuḥṣā min al-liqā'ālt al-ghayr murattabah musbaqan ma ^c ^c arab yumārisūn ḥayatahum al-yawmīyah.
English gloss	The full picture of this nation is not clear through a-discussion and a-dialogue that gained a widespread media support only, but by countless number of the-non-arranged meetings previously with Arabs engaging in their daily lives.
TT4b, p.11 (reviser)	لم تتضح الصورة الكاملة لهذه الأمة عبر حوار حظي بدعم إعلامي واسع الانتشار فقط، وإنما عن طريق عدد لا يُحصى من اللقاءات غير المرتبة سلفاً مع عرب يمارسون حياتهم اليومية.
Transliteration	Lam tattaḍiḥ al-šūrah al-kāmilah li-hādhīh al-ummah ^c abr ḥiwār ḥaẓīya bi-da^cm i^clāmī wāsi^c al-intishār faqaṭ , bal min khilāl ^c adad lā yuḥṣā min al-liqā'ālt al-ghayr murattabah salafan ma ^c ^c arab yumārisūn ḥayatahum al-yawmīyah.
English gloss	The full picture of this nation is not clear thru a-dialogue that gained a widespread media support only, but by means of countless number of non-arranged meetings formerly with Arabs engaging in their daily lives.

The words ‘A people’ are translated as (الأمة / al-ummah), which is directly equivalent to ‘the-nation’ in English. According to *The Oxford English Dictionary* (2015), ‘A People’ denotes “The members of a particular nation, community, or ethnic group”. ‘Nation’, on the other hand, refers to “a large body of people, associated with a particular territory, that is sufficiently conscious of its unity to seek or to possess a government peculiarly its own” (ibid.). The two words seem to be synonyms and more likely correspond to (الشعب / al-sha^cb –the people) in Arabic, which also denotes a group of people who belong to the same tribe or country (Al-Şaḥḥāḥ, 1987). The translator’s rendition (الأمة / al-ummah – the-nation) also refers to a group of people who live in one country and share similar aspirations and common characteristics, such as race, language and religion (*Contemporary*

Dictionary of Arabic 2008). Although these terms, (الشعب / al-sha^ʿb – the people) and (الأمة / al-ummah – the-nation), may appear synonymous, this section of TT4 does not read well contextually, as (الأمة / al-ummah – the-nation) is arguably used more commonly in patriotic or religious contexts, as indicated by the Arabic Web Corpus – Stanford Tagger (Sketch Engine, 2012). The translator’s rendition here does not pay attention to the indication in ST4 that the referent ‘A people’ in fact symbolises ordinary ‘people’ who meet spontaneously without prior arrangement, emphasising a sense of ‘public’ or ‘community’ and real daily life. The reviser seems not to have been actively involved in making this decision, as no changes were made in this regard.

The translator could have also opted for a more specific reference such as (العرب / al-^ʿarab – Arabs) or even a semantically equivalent term such as (الشعب / al-sha^ʿb – the people) instead of (الأمة / al-ummah – the nation).

1.3 Transfer/ addition

Although the reviser’s lexical substitutions are presented in a table of examples, TT4.3.1a below conveys ST4’s message about the obsolescence and uselessness of the path chosen by Beers, the reviser added (سبق للولايات المتحدة أن تعاملت بها مع الشرق / sabaqa li-al-wilāyāt al-muttaḥidah an ta^ʿāmalat bi-hā ma^ʿ al-sharq al-awsaṭ – the United States had previously used to deal with the Middle East) as an explanation after (مستهلكة / mustahlakah – used). This addition could have been avoided, as it was unnecessary given the reviser’s substitution and it resulted in a message that is not equivalent to that in ST4. Unlike many other examples discussed regarding the revision of TT4, the reviser’s change to this sentence also suggests reference was made to ST4 while revising. This is also the case in changing (حيث / haithu kānat tattakhidh ijrā’āt mukhtalifah dūn an tastami^ʿ li-al-ākhar - as it used to take various actions without listening to the other) to (واهي: تصرف دون أن تأبه [بالأخر] / wa-hiya: taṣarraf dūn an ta’bah [bi-al-ākhar] - which is: acting without caring [about-the-other]). The reviser here re-translated the sentence to make it closer to ST4 in terms of lexical choice and structure. For instance, the translator opted for translation by explanation, whereby elements that do not appear in ST4 were added in TT4a, such as attaching the term ‘variety’ to the

noun ‘actions’. The reviser’s rendition includes both literal and idiomatic strategies, appearing to copy the punctuation of ST4 by inserting a colon and to imitate ST4’s sentence construction. The word ‘listening’, however, is rendered in Arabic as ‘caring’. It can be argued that the reviser undermined the significance of ST4’s figurative use of ‘listening’ and ‘hearing’ (see examples TT4.1.1a and TT4.2.1a). However, the reviser’s choice of ‘without caring’ might be to convey the figurative message in ‘not listening’ as perceived by TT4 readers. Although Arabic distinguishes between physical hearing (السمع / al-sam^c - hearing) and deliberate or active listening (الاستماع / al-istimā^c – listening), the reviser’s strategy here probably considered the ideology behind ‘listening’ in an Arabic context, which entails ‘caring’ about ‘the other’. The revision process here might also have considered the perception of the target readers politically, whereby U.S. ‘actions’ towards the Middle East indicate a lack of ‘caring’ – which could go beyond ‘listening’ in Arabic.

The reviser’s reference to ST4 in this example seems to reflect his/her careful and hesitant application of addition. The genitive phrase (بالآخر / bi-al-ākhar – about the other) is inserted between square brackets to identify it as an element added to the translation. Such a strategy provides clarification and perhaps therefore does not need to be identified as an intrusive addition.

1.4 Transfer/ facts loss

The adjectival ‘high-profile’ used in ST4 in example TT4.1.2 above to describe ‘discussions’ and ‘methodical polling’ is defined as “Attracting much attention or publicity” (*The Oxford English Dictionary*, 2015). The translator rendered its equivalent in TT4a as (من خلال نقاش وحوار حظي بدعم إعلامي واسع الانتشار) / min khilāl niqāsh wa-ḥiwār ḥaẓiya bi-dacm i^clāmī wāsi^c al-intishār - through a discussion and a dialogue that gained a widespread media support). Here, the translator left ‘methodical polling’ without any rendition in TT4a while opting for the synonyms (نقاش وحوار / niqāsh wa-ḥiwār – a discussion and a dialogue) instead. According to the *Contemporary Dictionary of Arabic* (نقاش / niqāsh – discussion) refers to exchanging ideas and points of view (Omar, 2008), whereas (حوار / ḥiwār – dialogue) refers to dialogue between two or more people (ibid.). The omission of ‘methodical polling’ led to a loss of equivalence when transferring the content of

ST4, as ‘methodical polling’ was one of the three elements providing a full picture of Arab people: discussions, methodical polling and chance encounters. The reviser here did not notice the loss of content in TT4a and chose to omit one of the synonyms (نقاش / niqāsh – discussion) as the retention of (حوار / ḥiwār – dialogue) provided an equivalent.

2. Content

2.1 Content/ conceptual errors

The distinction between (سمع / samā^c – hearing) and (استماع / istimā^c – listening) is not clear in either TT4a or TT4b. Consider example TT4.2.1a below, together with the previously presented example above in TT4.1.1a:

Example TT4.2.1a	
ST4, (table of contents)	Hearing problems
TT4a, p. 4 (translator)	القدرة على سماع المشاكل
Transliteration	Al-qudrah °alā samā ^c al-mashākil
English gloss	The ability to hear problems
TT4b, p. 3 (reviser)	القدرة على الاستماع إلى المشاكل
Transliteration	Al-qudrah °alā al-istimā ^c ilā al-mashākil
English gloss	The ability to listening to problems

In both examples, the translator rendered both ‘hearing’ and ‘listening’ as (سمع / samā^c – hearing), but the reviser changed these to (استماع / istimā^c – listening). Whereas ‘hearing’ refers to “perceive with the ear the sound made by (someone or something)” (*The Oxford English Dictionary*, 2015), ‘listening’ means to “Give one’s attention to a sound” (ibid.). From the context of the book as a whole and the content of the these sections (examples TT4.2.1a and TT4.1.1a) in particular, both ‘hearing’ and ‘listening’ appear to refer to a communication gap between the West and the Arab World which is referred to figuratively as a ‘hearing problem’. Although both instances refer to the same issue, the distinction made in ST4 should be reflected in TT4 as well. The reviser did not seem to be referring to ST4 when

making these changes. A quick glance at the table of contents indicates that the author's choice to give Chapter 1 the title 'Hearing problems' and to name the sub-chapter 'Listening to the Levant' has significant figurative implications. The author is drawing an analogy between problems resulting from both sides not listening to the other and someone who has 'hearing problems' that affects his/her ability to hear the communications of others.

2.2 Content/ logic

The following excerpt involves an example of mistranslation which was not addressed by the reviser:

Example TT4.2.2

ST4, p.1	Beers had started out as a product manager for Uncle Ben's rice – a modest beginning to an impressive career.
TT4a, p.6 (translator)	بدأت بيرز حياتها المهنية كمديرة لقسم الإنتاج في شركة أرز العم بينز (Uncle Ben's Rice) وكانت تلك بداية متواضعة لشخصية مثيرة للإعجاب مثل شارلوت بيرز.
Transliteration	Bada'at bīrz ḥayātahā al-mihanīyah ka-mudīrah li-qism al-intāj fī sharikat aruz al- [°] am Binz [(Uncle Ben's Rice)] wa-kānat tilka bidāyah mutawāḍī'ah li-shakhṣīyah muthīrah li-al-i'jāb mithl shārlut bīrz.
English gloss	Beers started her-career life as-a-manager of-production department in the company of the-Uncle Bens (Uncle Ben's Rice) and that was a-modest beginning for-an impressive personality like Charlotte Beers.
TT4b, p.5 (reviser)	بدأت بيرز حياتها المهنية مديرة لقسم الإنتاج في شركة أرز العم بينز (Uncle Ben's rice)، وكانت تلك بداية متواضعة لامرأة مثيرة للإعجاب مثل شخصيتها.
Transliteration	Bada'at bīrz ḥayātahā al-mihanīyah mudīrah li-qism al-intāj fī sharikat aruz al- [°] am Binz [(Uncle Ben's Rice)], wa-kānat tilka bidāyah mutawāḍī'ah li-imra'ah muthīrah li-al-i'jāb mithl shakhṣīyatihā.
English gloss	Beers started her-career life as-a-manager of-production department in the company of the-Uncle Bens (Uncle Ben's Rice), and that was a modest beginning for-an impressive woman like her-personality.

In rendering "a modest beginning to an impressive career", the translator attached the adjective 'impressive' to 'the personality of Charlotte Beers' rather than to her 'career'. The reference to 'Beer's personality' has been added by the translator as it is not mentioned in that part of ST4, and this led to its mistranslation due to a faulty reference. The reviser did not correct this mistake although the sentence is about

Charlotte's career, not her personality. Apparently, the reviser focused on improving the language of TT4a more than checking the accuracy of its content in relation to ST4. For instance, s/he substituted (وكانت تلك بداية متواضعة لشخصية مثيرة للإعجاب مثل) / wa-kānat tilka bidāyah mutawāḍi'ah li-shakhṣiyah muthīrah li-al-i'jāb mithl shārlut bīrz – and that was a modest beginning for an impressive personality like Charlotte Beers) with (وكانت تلك بداية متواضعة لامرأة مثيرة للإعجاب مثل شخصيتها) / wa-kānat tilka bidāyah mutawāḍi'ah li-imra'ah muthīrah li-al-i'jāb mithl shakhṣiyatihā – and that was a modest beginning for an impressive woman like her personality). Here, the reviser further added the word (امرأة / imra'ah – woman), who is described as 'impressive', and the reference to 'her personality' is also kept. The reviser's changes made here are still based on the translator's rendition. These changes do not correct the error in the content regarding the adjective 'impressive', as indicated explicitly in ST4.

3 Language

3.1 Language/ Lexical errors: substitutions and corrections

The reviser made a number of lexical changes for stylistic reasons. Consider the example below:

Example TT4.3.1a	
ST4, p.2	Yet after her unsuccessful trip, Beers instead chose a well-worn path in U.S. engagement with the Arab World: acting without listening .
TT4a, p.8 (translator)	(...) إلا أن بيرز اختارت، بعد فشل جولتها في العالم العربي، طريقاً بالٍ في محاولة اندماج الولايات المتحدة مع الشرق الأوسط حيث كانت تتخذ إجراءات مختلفة دون أن تستمع للآخر.
Transliteration	(...) illa anna birīz ikhtarat, ba [°] d fashal jawlatahā fī al- [°] ālam al- [°] arabī, ṭarīqan bālin , fī muḥāwalat indimāj al-wilāyat al-muttaḥidah ma [°] al-sharq al-awsaṭ ḥaiṭhu kānat tattakhidh ijrā'āt mukhtalifah dūn an tastami[°] li-al-ākhar .
English gloss	(...) yet Beers, after the failure of her tour in the Arab world, chose a well-worn path in an attempt to integrate the United States with the Middle East whereby it takes different measures without listening to the other .
TT4b, pp. 6–7 (reviser)	(...) بيد أن بيرز اختارت، بعد إخفاق جولتها في العالم العربي، طريقة مستهلكة، سبق للولايات المتحدة أن تعاملت بها مع الشرق الأوسط وهي: تصرف دون أن تأبه [بلاخر].
Transliteration	(...) bayda anna birīz ikhtarat, ba [°] d ikhfāq jawlatahā fī al- [°] ālam al- [°] arabī, ṭarīqah mustahlakah , sabaqa li-al-wilāyat al-muttaḥidah an ta [°] amakāt bihā ma [°] al-sharq al-awsaṭ wa-hiya :

English gloss	taṣarraf dūn an ta’bah [bi-al-ākhar]. (...) but Beers, after the failure of her tour in the Arab world, chose a used path, which the United States had previously used to deal with the Middle East which is: acting without caring [about-the-other].
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The reviser here changed the translator’s choice of adjective to describe the path chosen by Beers to engage the U.S. with the Arab world. In this case, similar to many other changes in this book, the reviser substituted (بالٍ / bālin – well-worn) with a near-synonym (مستهلكة / mustahlakah – used). The word (بالٍ / bālin – well-worn) is used in Arabic more frequently in association with old worn-out clothes. The Stanford Tagger corpus (2012) gives a frequency of 115 for the adjective (بالٍ / bālin – well-worn) in association with (ثوب / thawb – cloth), but only 12 for it with (طريقة / ṭarīqah – path). Improving the text in terms of collocations might therefore require substituting this adjective. The reviser opted for (مستهلكة / mustahlakah – used) with which s/he seemed not to be satisfied as this substitution was followed by an added sentence for clarification, as explained above (see 6.2), possibly to eliminate any confusion that might be caused by the word (مستهلكة / mustahlakah), which also has the senses of ‘consumed’ or ‘customer’ in its feminine form. However, this substitution could have been more efficient if ‘well-worn’ was translated as (مبتذلة / mubtadhalah – well-worn) instead, as it is more neutral in terms of connotations and use. A quick search in a language corpus to check the adjective (مبتذلة / mubtadhalah – well-worn) in collocation with (طريقة / ṭarīqah – path) and (طرق / ṭuruq – paths) shows a frequency of 267.

The word (فشل / fashal) and its derivatives, used in the pre-revised version of TT4 (TT4a, pp. 8, 9, 11, 14) to mean ‘failure’, was changed to (إخفاق / ikhfāq) and its derivatives in the revised version (TT4b, pp. 6, 7, 9, 13). According to *Lisān Al-‘rab* (Ibn-Manzūr, 2000) and *Al-mu‘jam Al-wasīṭ* (2004), (فشل / fashal) denotes weakness, carelessness, laziness or cowardice. Using it to refer generically to ‘failure’ is a common mistake made in Arabic (Al-‘adnānī 1983, p. 195). However, ‘adnānī (ibid.) also states that the Academy of the Arabic Language, which is a major reference for Arabic, later approved the use of (فشل / fashal) in the sense of ‘failure’. Such corrections are therefore no longer necessary (see Example TT4.1.3b). Here is another example of lexical substitution:

Example TT4.3.1b	
ST4, p.14	There was simply no evidence linking al-Qaeda or any other Islamic or Arab group to the crime.
TT4a, p. 20 (translator) Transliteration	لم يتوافر أي دليل ببساطة، من شأنه ربط منظمة القاعدة أو أي جماعة مسلمة أو عربية بتلك الجريمة Lam yatawaffar ay dalīl bi-basāṭah, min sha'nih rabṭ munazzamat al-qā'idah aw ay jama'ah muslimah aw 'arabīyah bi-tilk al-jarīmah.
English gloss	There was simply no evidence existing , which could link Al-Qaeda organisation or any Muslim or Arab group to that crime.
TT4b, p.8 (reviser)	لم يتوافر أي دليل ببساطة، من شأنه ربط منظمة القاعدة أو أي جماعة مسلمة أو عربية بتلك الجريمة
Transliteration	Lam yatawāfar ay dalīl bi-basāṭah, min sha'nih rabṭ munazzamat al-qā'idah aw ay jama'ah muslimah aw 'arabīyah bi-tilk al-jarīmah.
English gloss	There was simply no abundant evidence, which could link Al-Qaeda organisation or any Muslim or Arab group to that crime.

Here, the reviser has changed the verb (يتوافر / yatawaffar) to (يتوافر / yatawāfar). Although they share the same stem (وَ ف رَ / wa fa ra), they are semantically different. The first denotes 'existing' and 'presence', whereas the latter is a verb derived from the gerunds (الوفرة / al-wafrah) and (التوافر / al-tawāfur), denoting 'abundance' (Al-muʿjam Al-wasīṭ 2004). However, this distinction is not established in other dictionaries, such as the *Contemporary Dictionary of Arabic* (Omar, 2008) where both words, (توافر / tawāfur), used in the reviser's version, and (توفر / tawafur), from the translator's version, are synonyms. This word was similarly corrected in another instance where it appears in adjectival form as (متوافرة / mutawaffirah – existing) in the translator's version (TT4a, p.25) and was changed by the reviser to (متوافرة / mutawāfirah – abundant) (TT4b, p.24). The change made by the reviser is, therefore, incorrect in the former case (the context does not suggest an 'abundance' of evidence in either ST4 or TT4a, but its absence), and unnecessary in the second. Although the reviser's substitution in Example TT4.2.1a is arguably to correct a lexical mistake, it may also result in changing the message of ST4. (توافر / tawāfur), the reviser's substitution, suggests that there is not much evidence but there is some, which is not the case in ST4.

In the example TT4.3.1b, the translator has added the word (منظمة / munazzamah – organisation) when introducing ‘al-Qaeda’ for clarification and better readability. In Arabic, ‘al-Qaeda’ refers to ‘the base’ or ‘the foundation’. Although the context suggests that the referent is ‘al-Qaeda’ the militant group, introducing it as an Arab ‘organisation’ eliminates confusion and strengthens the style. However, the word chosen (منظمة / munazzamah – organisation) could have been substituted with another term, such as (تنظيم / tanzīm – organisation) that complies with the target reader’s ideology and perceptions of ‘al-Qaeda’. (منظمة / munazzamah – organisation) as opted for by the translator evokes a sense of legality which does not apply to the case of ‘al-Qaeda’. On the other hand, (تنظيم / tanzīm – organisation) is usually ideologically associated with illegal groups. The Arabic Web Corpus Stanford Tagger (Sketch Engine, 2012) gives a frequency of 2,316 for (منظمة القاعدة / munazzamat al-qā'idah – al-Qaeda organisation), but 169,118 for (تنظيم القاعدة / tanzīm al-qā'idah – al-Qaeda organisation). The reviser should therefore have replaced (منظمة / munazzamah – organisation) with (تنظيم / tanzīm – organisation). The following example involves a lexical correction by the reviser:

Example Example TT4.3.1c

ST4, p.16	How was it, I wondered, that as these hijackers prepared to kill thousands, they weren't moved to question their intended evil by the good they saw around them every day?
TT4a, p.23 (translator)	تساءلت كثيراً كيف لم يتأثر هؤلاء الخاطفون الذين ضمروا الشر للآخرين، بينما كانوا يخططون لقتل الآلاف، من تجاهل الخير الذي شهده وأحسوه من حولهم في المجتمع الأمريكي.
Transliteration	Tasa'alt kathīran kayf lam yata'aththar hā'ulā' al-khāṭifūn al-ladhīn ḍamarū al-shar li-al-ākharīn, baynamā kānū yukhaṭṭifūn li-qatl al-ālāf, min tajāhul al-khayr al-ladhī shahidūh wa-aḥassūh min ḥawlihim fī al-mujtama' al-amrīkī.
English gloss	I wondered a lot how these kidnappers who weakened evil to others were not moved, at-the-time they were planning to kill thousands, about ignoring the good they lived and felt around them in the American society.
TT4b, p.22 (reviser)	تساءلت كثيراً كيف لم يتأثر هؤلاء الخاطفون الذين أضمروا الشر للآخرين، بينما كانوا يخططون لقتل الآلاف، من تجاهل الخير الذي شهده وأحسوه من حولهم في المجتمع الأمريكي.
Transliteration	Tasa'alt kathīran kayf lam yata'aththar hā'ulā' al-khāṭifūn al-ladhīn aḍamarū al-shar li-al-ākharīn, baynamā kānū yukhaṭṭifūn li-qatl al-ālāf, min tajāhul al-khayr al-ladhī

shahidūh wa-aḥassūh min ḥawlihim fī al-mujtama^c al-amrīkī.

English gloss

I wondered a lot how these kidnappers who **harboured evil against others** were not moved, at-the-time they were planning to kill thousands, about ignoring the good they lived and felt around them in the American society.

The words (ضمروا / ḍamarū) and (أضمروا / aḍmarū) share the same morphological root and are almost identical, apart from the latter beginning with (أ / a – alif). They are, however, semantically different. (ضمر / ḍamara), the stem of the verb used by the translator, refers to ‘shrinking in size’ or ‘weakening’ (Al-mu^cjam Al-wasīṭ, 2004). This might be a ‘typo’ or a spelling mistake by the translator as it does not fit the context. It could also be a language mistake as the Arabic Web Corpus – Stanford Tagger (Sketch Engine, 2012) has a frequency of (ضمير الشر / ḍamar al-shar), indicating the possibility of incorrectly referring to the same sense but in the wrong form. The reviser changed it to (أضمروا / aḍamarū) meaning ‘harbour’ [a feeling], which is more fitting for the context in which it appears. The collocation (أضمير الشر / aḍmar al-shar – to harbour evil) appears 90 times in the Arabic Web Corpus – Stanford Tagger (Sketch Engine, 2012).

On the other hand, neither (الذين ضمروا الشر للآخرين / al-ladhīn ḍamarū al-shar li-al-ākharīn – weakened evil to others) nor (الذين أضمروا الشر للآخرين / al-ladhīn aḍmarū al-shar li-al-ākharīn – harboured evil against others) is part of ST4 as presented in the example. The translator added this content and the reviser technically corrected it in TT4b (in terms of its spelling), probably without referring to ST4. Such an addition presents another example of content addition as discussed above in 1.4

This example (TT4.3.1c) also shows that the translator changed the structure of the sentence from a question to a statement.

3.2 Language / Preferences and unnecessary changes

The reviser of TT4 made unnecessary changes when replacing words and expressions with synonyms and equivalents, e.g. changing (إلا أن / illā anna – however) (TT4a, p.8) to (بيد أن / baida anna – nevertheless) (TT4b, p.6), (فقط / faqaṭ – only) (TT4a, p.8) to (فحسب / faḥsab – only) (TT4b, p.7) and (بأكملها / bi-akmalihā -

all-of-it) (TT4a, p.12) to (كلها / kullihā –all of it) (TT4b, p.10), as well as other expressions, such as in the example below.

Example TT4.3.2

ST4, (table of content) ..around the world.

TT4a, p.12 (translator) ...في أنحاء مختلفة من العالم.

Transliteration fī ānhā' mukhtalifah min al-[°]ālam.

English gloss ...in different parts of the world.

TT4b, p.10 (reviser) ...على امتداد البسيطة.

Transliteration [°]alā imtidād al-basīṭah

English gloss ..across the globe

Such changes are unnecessary and are a matter of preference.

3.3 Language/ transliteration: proper nouns

The reviser corrected the transliteration of the magazine 'Fortune' (ST4, p. 1), from (فورشن / furshun) (TT4a, p.6) to (فورتشن / furtshun) (TT4b, p.5). Checking and correcting transliteration in the process of revision is important as revisers, unlike proofreaders, have access to the ST and are expected to master its language.

3.4 Language / House style: Roman vs Assyrian months

Months in the Gregorian calendar can be translated into Arabic in two different versions or ways depending on who the target readers are. In eastern parts of the Arab World (Egypt, Sudan, Yemen and GCC countries) Arabised Roman months are used (such as July, August and September), while Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, Jordan and Palestine prefer Arabised Assyrian months (such as Tammuz, Av and Elul). The absence of guidelines regarding which style to opt for results in an inconsistent process of translation and revision. In some instances, s/he opted for Assyrian months such as in (تشرين الأول / tishrīn al-awwal – October) (TT4a, p.6) and (آذار / ādhār – March) (TT4a, p.9). But in other instances, s/he opted for Roman months such as in (سبتمبر / sibtimbir – September) (TT4a, p.16). The reviser did not correct this and was also inconsistent, changing (تشرين الأول / tishrīn al-awwal – October) (TT4a, p.6) to 'October' but not changing (آذار / ādhār – March) in TT4a, p.9 and (نيسان / nīsān – April) in TT4a, p.18 to their Roman equivalents in TT4b.

3.5 Language / Collocations

Example TT4.3.5	
ST4, p.3	The stakes are extremely high
TT4a, p.10 (translator)	إن المخاطر المتعلقة بالشرق الأوسط في الوقت الحاضر عالية للغاية
Transliteration	Inna al-makhāṭir al-muta ^ʿ alliqah bi-alshaq al-awsaṭ fī al-waqt al-ḥāḍir ʿāliyah li-alghāyah
English gloss	the- risks associated with the Middle East at the present time are extremely high
TT4b, p.8 (reviser)	إن المخاطر المتعلقة بالشرق الأوسط في الوقت الحاضر شديدة جداً
Transliteration	Inna al-makhāṭir al-muta ^ʿ alliqah bi-alshaq al-awsaṭ fī al-waqt al-ḥāḍir shadīda jiddan
English gloss	the risks associated with the Middle East at the present time are very strong

Here, the reviser unnecessarily changed the adjective (عالية للغاية / ʿāliyah li-alghāyah – very high) associated with (المخاطر / al-makhāṭir – the risks) to (شديدة جداً / shadīda jiddan – very strong). Although the translator’s rendition of the adjective is accurate and collocates well with (المخاطر / al-makhāṭir – the risks) (Ghazala, 2007, pp.1148–1149), both are valid. The Arabic Web Corpus – Stanford Tagger (Sketch Engine, 2012) shows a frequency of 861 for the translator’s choice, but only 399 for the reviser’s.

3.6 Language/ Genitive construction

The reviser changed sentence structures in several instances to correct language usage errors. Consider the examples below:

3.6.1 Multiple terms in genitive construction

Example TT4.3.6.1	
ST4, p.4	...forged a coalition of its own to invade and occupy Iraq .
TT4a, p.10 (translator)	وقامت بتزوير ائتلاف خاص بها لغزو واحتلال العراق.
Transliteration	Wa-qāmat bi-tazwīr I’tilāf khāṣ bihā li-ghazu wa iḥtilāl al-irāq
English gloss	It-fabricated a coalition of its own to-invade and occupy Iraq
TT4b, p.7 (reviser)	وقامت بتزوير ائتلاف خاص بها لغزو العراق واحتلاله.

Transiteration	Wa-qāmat bi-tazwīr I'tilāf khāṣ bihā li-ghazu al-irāq wa iḥtilālih
English gloss	It-fabricated a coalition of its own to-invade Iraq and occupy-it.

The reviser here changed the order of the words (لغزو / li-ghazu – to-invade) and (احتلال / iḥtilāl – occupy) in the sentence, as both are nouns in the genitive case (العراق / al-irāq – Iraq). Unlike English where two or more nouns and verbs can be added consecutively in the genitive form, such as in ‘to invade and occupy Iraq’, a good style of genitive construction should not add more than one term to a genitive. Rather, the first noun should be taken as a ‘governing noun’ while the second is placed after the genitive construction and referred to by a suitable affixed pronoun (Schulz *et al.*, 2000, p. 69). Such badly constructed phrases in English to Arabic translations result from translators opting to transfer English sentence structures to Arabic. The reviser corrected similar genitive constructions on two other occasions.

3.6.2 Definiteness in genitive constructions

Example TT4.3.6.2

ST4, p.4	Countless number of chance encounters with Arabs ...
TT4a, p.12 (translator)	عدد لا يُحصى من اللقاءات الغير مرتبة
Transliteration	^C adad lā yuḥṣā min al-liqā'āt al-ghayr al-murattabah
English gloss	Uncountable amount of the-non planned the-interviews
TT4b, p.11 (reviser)	عدد لا يُحصى من اللقاءات غير المرتبة
Transliteration	^C adad lā yuḥṣā min al-liqā'āt ghayr al-murattabah
English gloss	Uncountable amount of non- the-planned the-interviews

The reviser changed the definiteness of the compound adjective (غير المرتبة / ghayr al-murattabah – non-planned). S/he removed the definite article (الـ / al- – the-) from the first word (غير / ghayr – non) and added it to the second (المرتبة / al-murattabah – planned). This compound adjective functions as a genitive construction in the sentence above, where (غير / ghayr – non) negates the ‘interviews’ being previously ‘planned’. A common mistake in Arabic is to mark the first term of a compound adjective in a genitive construction with the definite article (الـ / al- – the-), such as (الغير / al-ghayr – the-non-), (الشبه / al-shibh – the-semi) or (النصف / niṣf – the-half).

While it is grammatically correct not to add it to the second word, this option is described as exhibiting a ‘careless style’ (Schulz *et al.*, 2000, p. 290). Such mistakes put the translator’s competency in Arabic in question.

3.7 Language/ Cohesion

The reviser in the following example added an additive cohesive device (و / wa – and) at the beginning of the paragraph to link it to the paragraph it follows (the paragraph in Example TT4.2.10). Such additions improve the coherence of the text.

Example TT4.3.7a

TT4b, p.12 (reviser)	وعلى الرغم من أن العديد من أمم الغرب بدت بعيدة عن العالم العربي، (...)، فإن مجرد الاستماع إلى العرب بإمكانه أن يقرب الهوة الشاسعة (...). لقد قابلت أحد الأشخاص الذين فهموا هذه الجزئية على أفضل وجه وهو الشيخ عبدالله بن زايد (Abdulla bin Zayed)، (...)، وهو ميل إلى الهدوء والتأمل، (...)، ووالده الشيخ زايد؛ (...). وقد نال الشيخ زايد احترام الوطن العربي كله (...).
Transliteration	wa- [°] alā al-rughm min anna al- [°] adīd min umam al-gharb badat ba-īdah [°] an al- [°] ālam al- [°] arabī, (...), fa-inna mujarrad al-istimā [°] ilā al- [°] arab bi-imkānih an yuqarrib al-huwwah al-shāsi [°] ah(...). laqad qābalt aḥad al-ashkhāṣ al-ladhīn fahamū hadhih al-juz’iyah [°] alā afdhal wajh wa-huwa al-shaykh cabdullah bin zāyid [(Abdulla bin Zayed)], (...), wa-huwa mayyāl ilā al-hudū’ wa-al-ta’ammul, (...), wa-wālidahu al-shaykh zāyid; (...), wa-kad nāl al-shaykh zāyid iḥtirām al-waṭan al- [°] arabī kullah (...).
English gloss	And -although many western nations seemed to be far from the Arab World, (...), then listening merely to Arab can narrow the enormous gap (...). I have met one of the people who understood this bit in a perfect way who is Sheikh Abdulla bin Zayed, (...), and he is inclined to be quiet and reflective, (...), and his father is sheikh Zayed; (...). And Sheikh Zayed gained the respect of the entire Arab World (...).

(ف / fa) is used in Arabic as a linking device or to indicate a sequence (Al-Zannad, 1993, p. 370). In example TT4.2.7a, the reviser also added it to link the concessive clause beginning with (على الرغم / [°]alā al-rughm – although) to the rest of the sentence. Other cohesive devices, (قد / qad) and (و / wa – and), were also added in the TT4b to emphasise the relationship between the sentences, as illustrated in the English gloss. By adding cohesive devices such as (و / wa – and), (ف / fa – so or then) and (قد / qad) in 36 instances throughout the TT4b, the reviser opted for

explicitation (Klaudy, 2011, pp.104–108). However, there are some instances where similar cohesion seems to be absent and was not addressed in the process of revision in eight instances. Consider the examples below:

Example TT4.3.7b

TT4b, p.6 (reviser)	انطلقت ببرز بعد ذلك في رحلة خارجية زارت فيها دولاً عدة (...), واعتمدت خطة ببرز على التعرف إلى المنطقة عن طريق البدء بمحادثات مع تلك الشعوب التي حاولت فهم عقليتها. <u>أعتقد أنها كانت خطة "عبقرية"؛ بحق.</u> على أي حال، علمت فيما بعد من مسؤول في وزارة الخارجية كان قد رافق ببرز أن نتائج مختلطة انبثقت عن جولة الاستماع تلك. <u>حظيت ببرز بترحيب رسمي شديد الحماسة عندما حطت في المغرب ومصر.</u> ولكن عندما ...
Transliteration	inṭalaqat bīrz baʿd dhālik fī riḥlah khārijīyah zārat fihā duwalan ʿiddah(...), wa-iʿtamadat khuṭṭat bīrz ʿalā al-taʿarruf ilā al-mantiqah ʿan ṭarīq al-bid’ bi-muḥādathāt maʿ tilk al-shuʿūb al-latī ḥāwalat fahm ʿaqlīyatihā. <u>Aʿtaqad</u> annahā kānat “abqariyah”; biḥaq. ʿalā ay ḥāl, ʿalimt fīmā baʿd min mas’ūl fī wazārat al-khārijīyah kān kad rāfaq bīrz anna natā’ij mukhtalaṭah inbathaqat ʿan jawlat al-istimāʿ tilk. ḥaziyat bīrz bi-tarḥīb rasmī shadīd al-ḥamāsah ʿindamā ḥaṭṭat fī al-maghrīb wa-maṣr. wa-lākin ʿindamā ...
English gloss	Beers boarded then on a foreign trip where she-visited various countries (...), and Beers plan adopted getting to know the region by initiating talk with those nations which she attempted to understand its mind. <u>I</u> think that was a “genius” plan indeed. <u>Anyway</u> , I later learned from an official in the Department of State who had accompanied Beers that the mixed results emerged from that tour of listening. <u>Beers</u> received an official and very enthusiastic welcome when she landed in Morocco and Egypt. But when...

In this example, the reviser added the additive cohesive device (و / wa – and) before (اعتمدت / iʿtamadat – adopted) to show cohesion among the sentences. However, the underlined parts lack any similar additions of cohesive tools such as (قد / qad) or (و / wa – and) which would improve the coherence at both syntactic and textual levels.

3.8 Language and style/ prepositions

Prepositions were changed in 35 instances in the revision of TT4. For instance, the reviser of TT4 omitted (ك / k – k), known as (كاف الاستقصاء / kāf al-istiṣāʿ) (Al-ʿadnānī, 1983 p.268; Ammār, 1998, pp.261–263) (see TT1 3.2) when used incorrectly in the sense of ‘as’ in (كمدير / ka-mudīrah – as-a-manager) (TT4a, p. 6). However, the revision process of TT4 was inconsistent in relation to this rule as this

mistake was not corrected in another instance where it appeared in (كمواطنين / ka-muwāṭinīn – as-locals) (TT4b, p. 19) and (كانت ردود أفعال هؤلاء، في المقام الأول، تعبر عن / kānat rdūd afcāl hā'ulā', fī al-maqām al-awwal, tu'abbir 'an mashā'irihim **ka-muwāṭinīn** yantamūn ilā Uklāhūmā – the responses of those, in the first place, expressed their feelings **as-locals** who belong to Oklahoma). As mentioned earlier, such a use of (ك / k – k) is incorrect because it functions as a tool to compare and compose similes, whereas nothing can be a simile of itself. Some linguists (Hijāzī *et al.*, 1983, p.187), however, argue that it can be used in this way, i.e. in the sense of 'Beers had started out as a product manager' (ST4, p. 1). Nonetheless, the text should be consistent in its compliance with TL rules. Prepositions were also changed for reasons of accuracy, depending on the words they collocate with.

Example TT4.3.8a

TT4a, p.19	تسبب بمقتل مائة وثمانية وستين شخصاً
(translator)	
Transliteration	Tasabbab bi-maqtal mā'ah wa'thamāniyah wa-sittīn shakhṣan
English gloss	it-caused the death of one hundred and sixty-eight people
TT4b, p.18 (reviser)	تسبب في مقتل مائة وثمانية وستين شخصاً
Transliteration	Tasabbab fī maqtal mā'ah wa'thamāniyah wa-sittīn shakhṣan
English gloss	it caused the death of one hundred and sixty-eight people

In example TT4.2.8a, the word (تسبب / tasabbab – caused) is followed in the translator's version by the preposition (بـ / bi). According to the Contemporary Dictionary of Arabic (Omar, 2008), the correct preposition that collocates with (تسبب / tasabbab – caused) is (في / fī), as corrected by the reviser.

The prepositions (لـ / li – to-) and (إلى / ilā – to) are equivalent to 'to' in English. However, using them accurately depends on the words they collocate with. For example (بالنسبة / bi-al-nisbah) in the sense of 'for' is associated with the preposition (لـ / li). According to *Al-mu'jam Al-wasīṭ* (2004) and *Al-Ṣaḥḥāḥ* (1987), the derivatives of (نسب / nasab) from which the word (بالنسبة / bi-al-nisbah) is derived

collocate with (إلى / ilā). This justifies the reviser's correction of this preposition in nine instances throughout the sample of TT4a. On the other hand, some words such as (الاستماع / al-istimā^c- the-listening) collocate with both (لـ / li) and (إلى / ilā) (Ibn Manzūr, 2000; *Al-mu^cjam Al-wasīṭ*, 2004).

Example TT4.3.8b

TT4a, p.18 (translator)	الاستماع للعرب وفهم عالمهم
Transliteration	Al-istimtā ^c li-al- ^c arab wa-fahm ^c ālamahum
English gloss	The enjoyment to the Arabs and understanding their world
TT4b, p.18 (reviser)	الاستماع إلى العرب وفهم عالمهم
Transliteration	Al-istimā ^c ilā al- ^c arab wa-fahm ^c ālamahum
English gloss	listening to the Arabs and understanding their world

By replacing (لـ / li) with (إلى / ilā) here, the reviser has here made an unnecessary change.

3.9 Language/ Typing errors

In example TT4.2.8b above, the reviser also changed (الاستمتاع / al-istimtā^c – enjoyment) (TT4a, p. 18) into (الاستماع / al-istimā^c – listening). Although the word (الاستمتاع / al-istimtā^c – the-enjoyment) is a valid word in Arabic, it could easily be recognised as a ‘typo’ by its context in TT4a without referring to ST4. This example indicates that the process of revision in translation can overlap with tasks expected in the process of proofreading. Revisers may tend to make such effortless corrections, yet should not invest a lot of time in them. The text will be assigned afterwards to a proofreader who is expected to devote a great deal of time to such issues.

3.10 Language and style / Punctuation marks

The reviser added commas in 51 instances throughout the sample of TT4. Consider the following example:

Example TT4.3.10

TT4b, (reviser)	p.12 إن إنشاء علاقة إيجابية ناجحة مع العالم العربي يعدّ أمراً أساسياً بالنسبة إلى مصالحي الولايات المتحدة ومصالح العالم أجمع، لكنني أدرك في الوقت ذاته أن مثل هذا الأمر يصعب تحقيقه دون أن نسعى إلى توسيع آفاق فهمنا للعالم
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العربي، لتتجاوز الجدل العتيق، البالي، المحدود الذي شوّه صورة هذا العالم وشعوبه.

Transliteration	Inna inshā' alāqah ijābīyah nājiḥah ma' al-ālam al-arabī yu'add amran asāsīyan bi-al-nisbah ilā maṣāliḥ al-wilāyat al-muttaḥidah wa-maṣāliḥ al-ālam ajma', lākinnanī udrik fī al-waqt dhātih anna mithl hādhā al-amr yaṣub taḥqīqag dūn an nasā ilā tawṣī āfāq fahminā li-al-ālam al-arabī li-natajāwaz al-jadal al-atīq, al-bālī, al-maḥdūd al-ladhī shawwah ṣūrat hādhā al-ālam wa-shu'ūbuh.
English gloss	That-is forming a positive relationship with the-Arab world is essential to the interests of the United States and the entire world, but I realise at the same time that such thing is difficult to attain without seeking to expand our understanding's horizon of the Arab World, to overcome the- outdated, shabby, limited debate that distorted the image of this world and its nations.

Such additions in Arabic facilitate readability, enhance the smoothness of a text and avoid the confusion associated with the lengthy construction of Arabic sentences (Ghazala, 2004, pp.234–236). However, punctuation marks in Arabic are not standardised, so using them, especially in the case of commas, is mostly a matter of personal preference. Again, revisers should spend less effort fixing such optional mechanisms and leave it to the proofreaders.

4 Presentation

Generally, both versions of TT4 (before and after revision) are in the same font: 'simplified Arabic', size 14. No changes were applied to the format of the document or the paragraphs. The only change made by the reviser at the level of presentation and layout was to remove empty space from the top of the introduction page (see Appendix I):

7.7.2 Revision analysis of TT5

About the book (ST5):

Botchan by Natsume Sōseki is a popular Japanese novel first published in 1906. It is widely considered a classic and often studied by Japanese schoolchildren. The story is narrated by the main character, Botchan, himself, a proud, reckless and plainspoken character from Tokyo who gets a job at a rural school where he faces

pranks from students and political manoeuvres from another teacher. There have been several translations into English, and the 172-page version by Joel Cohn, published in 2005, which was chosen by Kalima for translation into Arabic, is considered notable for reading fluently while maintaining cultural nuances.

Revision parameters:

1. Transfer

1.1 Transfer/ lexical substitution

Example TT5.1.1

ST5, p. 16	Anyway , he had that feminine streak and he was a sneak, ...
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TT5a, p. 8	وفي مطلق الأحوال، كان مخنثاً بعض الشيء وخبيثاً، ...
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(translator)

Transliteration	Wa-fi muṭlaq al-aḥwāl , kān mukhkhannathan ba ^ḍ al-shay' wa-khabīthan, ...
------------------------	--

English gloss	In any case , he was somewhat a gay and a sneak, ...
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TT5b, p.15	على أية حال، كان ذا طبع أنثوي بعض الشيء وخبيثاً، ...
-------------------	--

(reviser)

Transliteration	'alā ayyat ḥāl, kān dhā ṭab ^c unthawai ba ^ḍ al-shay' wa-khabīthan...
------------------------	--

English gloss	Anyway , he was somewhat with feminine qualities and a sneak, ...
----------------------	---

In translating “he had that feminine streak”, the translator opted for (مخنثاً / mukhannathan – a gay), which refers to a homosexual, someone who is bisexual or a man who tries to imitate women in their manners, the way they talk and act (*Contemporary Dictionary of Arabic*, 2008). However, ST5 does not equate homosexuality with the person referred to. Rather, he is described as a person who has feminine qualities but he does not have to be homosexual or gay. The reviser corrected this incorrect transfer of information by replacing the word (مخنثاً / mukhannathan – a gay) with (ذا طبع أنثوي بعض الشيء) / dhā ṭabc unthawayy bacḍ al-shay' – somehow with feminine qualities). It is worth noting here that the concept

(مخنثاً / mukhannathan) has recently been established in Arabic ideology in the sense of ‘homosexual’ or ‘gay’. Most of the dictionaries, such as *Lisān Al-^crab* (2000), *Al-mu^cjam Al-wasīṭ* (2004) and *Al-Ṣaḥḥāh* (1987), define it as one who relaxes and softens his actions and acts like a woman. Therefore, if ST5 describes the person referred to as ‘gay’, TT5 should clearly use the equivalent word (مخنثاً / mukhannathan - gay) – which is not the case here.

In this example, the reviser has unnecessarily changed the translator’s rendition of “anyway”, as illustrated in the table above, for another equivalent expression. This change has been made equally throughout the sample of TT5 in three instances. Such an effort, which is most likely due to personal preferences, could have been avoided while preserving the translator’s contribution and decision-making during the process of translation since it does not affect the accuracy of ST5’s content. However, such changes prove that the final product TT represents a collaboration by all players who have contributed to the process of translation and its revision, where each has his/her necessary or unnecessary input.

1.2 Transfer/ inaccuracy

Example TT5.1.2

ST5, p. 24	At any rate, she was an old-fashioned kind of woman, and she thought of our relationship in terms of the master-retainer relations of feudal times. She seemed to believe that if I was her master, then I ranked as her nephew’s master as well.
TT5a, p. 12 (translator)	الواقع أنها كانت من الزمن الماضي، ترى العلاقة بيننا كما في عهد الإقطاع، علاقة بين أسياد وخدم. وبما أنني كنت بنظرها سيدها، فكانت تتصور بالتالي أنني سيد قريبها.
Transliteration	Al-wāqī ^c annahā kānat min al-zaman al-māḍī, tarā al- ^c alāqah baynanā kamā fī ^c ahd al-iqtā ^c , ^c alqah bayn asyād wa-khadam. Wa-bimā annanī kunt bi-naẓarihā sayyidihā, fa-kānat tataṣawwar bi-al-tālī annanī sayyid qarībihā.
English gloss	In fact she was from the past, she saw our relationship as in the feudal times, a relationship between masters and servants. As I was her master in her eyes, she thus thought I was her relative’s master.
TT5b, p.23 (reviser)	على أية حال، كانت تنتمي للزمن الماضي وترى العلاقة بيننا، كما في عهد الإقطاع، علاقة بين أسياد وخدم. وبما أنني كنت بنظرها سيدها، فكانت تتصور بالتالي أنني سيد قريبها.
Transliteration	Al-wāqī ^c annahā kānat tantamī li-al-zaman al-māḍī, wa-tarā al- ^c alāqah baynanā kamā fī ^c ahd al-iqtā ^c , ^c alqah bayn asyād wa-khadam. Wa-bimā annanī kunt bi-naẓarihā sayyidihā, fa-kānat tataṣawwar bi-al-tālī annanī sayyid

English gloss	qarībihā. Anyway, she belonged to the past and saw our relationship as in the feudal times, a relationship between masters and servants. As I was her master in her eyes, she thus thought I was her relative's master.
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The translator's rendition here of the adjective 'old-fashioned' was changed in the revised version, as displayed in the table above. Yet it is obvious that the reviser's change is affected by how the adjective 'old-fashioned' was interpreted by the translator. In this context, 'old-fashioned' means "favouring traditional or conservative ideas or customs" (*The Oxford English Dictionary*, 2015). The context describes an old lady, 'Kiyo', who used to be a maidservant to the novel's narrator, 'Botchan', as 'old-fashioned' for her old-school and conservative way of thinking. The translation, however, applies this description to Kiyo (كانت من الزمن الماضي / kānat min al-zaman al-māḍī – was from the past) or, as paraphrased by the reviser, (كانت تنتمي للزمن الماضي / kānat tantāmī li-al-zaman al-māḍī – she belonged to the past), where neither interpretation transfers adequately the meaning of the adjective 'old-fashioned'. Rather, they depict her as not being part of the present. The reviser could have opted for (عتيقة الطراز / ʿatīqat al-ṭirāz – an old-fashioned) or (عتيقة التفكير / ʿatīqat al-tafkīr – of old ideas) instead. But this was not corrected by the reviser.

1.3 Transfer/ addition and omission

Example TT5.1.3

ST5, p. 25	After I had boarded the train she stood there on the platform, gazing at me through the window. (...) Once the train started to pick up speed I thought I would be all right and stuck my head out the window and looked back. She was still standing there. Somehow she looked awfully small.
TT5a, p. 13 (translator)	وبعدما صعدت الى القطار ووجدت حافلتني، وقفت على الرصيف تحديق بي عبر النافذة (...). وحين بدأ القطار يسرع شيئاً فشيئاً بعد مسافة، فكّرت أنه بات في وسعي أن أمدّ رأسي من النافذة لأنظر الى الخلف، فرأيتها لا تزال واقفة هناك. كم بدت لي صغيرة ورقيقة في البعيد!
Transliteration	Wa-ba ^ḍ damā ṣa ^ḍ adt ilā al-qitār wa-wajdt ḥafilatī , waqafat ʿalā al-raṣīf tuḥaddiq bī ʿabr al-nāfidhah. (...) Wa-ḥīn bada' al-qitār yusri ^ḥ shay'an fa-shay'an ba ^ḍ d masāfah. Fakkart annahu bāt fī wis ^ḥ ī an amud ra'sī min al-nāfidhah li-anḡur ilā al-khalf, fa-ra'aytahā lā tazāl wāqifah hunāk. Kam badat lī ṣaghīrah wa raqīqah fī al-ba^ḥīd!

English gloss	And after I had boarded the train and found my bus , she stood on the platform gazing at me through the window.(...) And when the train started speeding little by little, I thought I could tilt my head out of the window to look back. And I so her still standing there. How she looked small and thin from far!
TT5b, p.25 (reviser)	وبعدما صعدت إلى القطار ووجدت حافلتني، وقفت على الرصيف تحديق بي عبر النافذة. (...) وحين بدأ القطار يسرع شيئاً فشيئاً بعد مسافة، فكّرت في أنه بات في وسعي أن أمد رأسي من النافذة لأنظر إلى الخلف، فرأيتها لا تزال واقفة هناك. كم بدت لي صغيرة ورقيقة في البعيد!
Transliteration	Wa-ba [°] damā ṣa [°] adt ilā al-qitār wa-wajdt ḥāfilatī , waqafat [°] alā al-raṣīf tuḥaddiq bī [°] abr al-nāfidhah. (...) Wa-ḥīn bada [°] al-qitār yusri [°] shay [°] an fa-shay [°] an ba [°] d masāfah. Fakkart annahu bāt fī wis [°] tī an amud ra [°] sī min al-nāfidhah li-anṣur ilā al-khalf, fa-ra [°] aytahā lā tazāl wāqifah hunāk. Kam badat li ṣaghīrah wa raqīqah fī al-ba[°]ʿid!
English gloss	And after I had boarded the train and found my bus , she stood on the platform gazing at me through the window.(...) And when the train started speeding little by little, I thought I could tilt my head out of the window to look back. And I so her still standing there. How she looked small and thin from far!

The translator here has added (وجدت حافلتني / wajadt ḥāfilatī – I found my bus), which is not part of ST5. Also, this added element creates confusion in TT5 over the mode of transport which is referred to and presented in the English gloss. The reviser, however, did not correct this mistake, which affects the content's accuracy and transfer of information.

Another instance worth considering is this example where the translator rendered 'Somehow she looked awfully small' by splitting (Dickins *et al.*, 2002, p.47) the description 'awfully small' in two adjectives (صغيرة ورقيقة / ṣaghīrah wa-raqīqah – small and thin) while leaving out 'somehow' and 'awfully', without rendition, yet adding the element (في البعيد / fī al-ba[°]ʿid – from far) for clarification. Adding the adjective (رقيقة / raqīqah – thin) does not compensate for the loss created by omitting the adverb 'awfully'; therefore, it is an unnecessary addition. The message in TT5a was incomplete as it is important to depict how 'awfully' small Kiyō looked as the train moved forward, which may have figurative indications, such as her weakness and loneliness. The word 'somehow' may also play a significant role in the message as it dilutes the strong effect of the description 'awfully small'. In this regard, the reviser did not make any rectifications or corrections. This could have been

changed, for instance, to (وبدت بطريقةٍ ما صغيرة على نحوٍ مروع) / wa-badat bi-ṭarīqatin mā ṣaghīra ʿalā naḥwin murawwiʿ – she somehow looked awfully small).

2. Content

2.1 Content / conceptual errors

Example TT5.2.1

ST5, p. 22-23	(...)I happened to walk past the Institute of Physical Sciences and saw a sign saying STUDENTS WANTED. This, I figured, was meant to be, so I took a look at their list of regulations , and signed up right then and there.
TT5a, p. 12 (translator)	(...) فالقيت نظرة على تنظيماتهم وشروطهم وتسجلت على الفور.
Transliteration	Fa-alqayt nazrah ʿalā tanzīmātihim wa-shurūṭihim wa-tasajjalat ʿalā al-fawr.
English gloss	(...) so I took a look at their regulations and conditions and signed up immediately.
TT5b, p.22 (reviser)	(...) فالقيت نظرة على تنظيماتهم وشروطهم وتسجلت على الفور.
Transliteration	Fa-alqayt nazrah ʿalā tanzīmātihim wa-shurūṭihim wa-tasajjalat ʿalā al-fawr.
English gloss	(...) so I took a look at their regulations and conditions and signed up immediately.

The translator here has rendered the word ‘regulations’ by using (تنظيماتهم وشروطهم) / tanzīmātihim wa-shurūṭihim – their regulations and conditions). Arguably, the translator’s rendition delivers the meaning of ST5 although s/he has added the word ‘conditions’. However, it could be argued that the reviser should have changed the word (تنظيماتهم) / tanzīmātihim – their regulations), which is contemporary and used conceptually in association with illegal organisations such as Al-Qaeda and ISIL (see TT4.2.1a), such as (تنظيم القاعدة) / tanzīm al-qāʿidah – Al-Qaeda organisation) and (تنظيم الدولة الإسلامية) / tanzīm al-dawlah al-islāmīyah – Islamic State Group/ ISIL). This connotation (taking a look at the university’s illegal organisations) could have been avoided in TT5 if the reviser had opted for another word such as (أنظمة) / anzīmah – regulations). A quick comparison of the words associated with (الجامعة) / al-jāmiʿah – the-university), (الكلية) / al-kullīyah – college) and (المعهد) / al-maʿhad/ institute) in the Arabic Web Corpus – Stanford Tagger (Sketch Engine, 2012) shows the following frequencies:

Word association	Frequency
(تنظيمات الجامعة / tanzīmāt al-jāmi [°] ah – the-university regulations)	6
(تنظيمات الكلية / tanzīmāt al-kulīyah – the-college regulations)	1
(تنظيمات المعهد / tanzīmāt al-ma [°] had – the-institute regulations)	0
(أنظمة الجامعة / anzīmat al-jāmi [°] ah – the-university regulations)	485
(أنظمة الكلية / anzīmat al-kullīyah – the-college regulations)	65
(تنظيم القاعدة / tanzīm al-qā [°] idah – Al-Qaeda organisation)	169,118

2.2 Content/ lexical substitution

The translator chose to render a given figure (feet) in ST5 in another unit (metres) and converted its quantity accordingly, as illustrated in the table below:

Example TT5.2.3

ST5, p. 14	Yamashiro-ya's property was six feet lower than our garden.
TT5a, p. 5 (translator)	أرض ياماشيرو يا كانت منخفضة مترين عن مستوى بستاننا.
Transliteration	arḍ yāmāshīrūyā kānat munkhafīdah mitrayn [°] an mustawā bustaninā.
English gloss	Yamashiro-ya's land was lower by 2 metres than our garden.
TT5b, p.13 (reviser)	أرض ياماشيرو يا كانت منخفضة بمقدار ست أقدام عن مستوى بستاننا
Transliteration	arḍ yāmāshīrūyā kānat munkhafīdah bi-miqdār sit aqdām [°] an mustawā bustaninā.
English gloss	Yamashiro-ya's land was lower by 6 feet than our garden.

The translator's choice was probably to opt for a more frequent unit in the TL as the Stanford Tagger corpus (2012) shows a greater frequency for (متر / mitr – metre) than (قدم / qadam- feet) as measuring units (tested by collocating them with (ارتفاع / irtifa[°] – height), by 271 to 19, respectively. The reviser, however, changed the unit back to its appearance in ST5, although it is accurately rounded up to an equal value in TT5a as 6 feet is equal to 1.82 metres. Although both units are accurate in TT5a and TT5b, the higher frequency of using 'metres' in Arabic more than 'feet' as a measuring unit makes such a rendition by the reviser unnecessary.

3. Language

3.1 Language/ Lexical choice

The translator has rendered 'middle school' in ST5 (p.8, 10, 20, 23) as (المدرسة / al-madrasah al-takmīliyah – the supplementary school). 'Middle school' in Arab countries, which comprises grades six, seven and eight, is generally known as

(المدرسة المتوسطة / al-madrasah al-mutawassitah – the middle school) or (المدرسة الإعدادية / al-madrasah al-i^ʿdādīyah – the preparatory school). However, in some limited areas such as Lebanon, a ‘middle school’ is referred to as (المدرسة التكميلية / al-madrasah al-takmīlīyah – the supplementary school). According to the Arabic Web Corpus – Stanford Tagger (Sketch Engine, 2012), the most frequent term used is (المدرسة الإعدادية / al-madrasah al-i^ʿdādīyah – the preparatory school) with a frequency of 3,290, followed by (المدرسة المتوسطة / al-madrasah al-mutawassitah – the middle school) at 1,165, whereas (المدرسة التكميلية / al-madrasah al-takmīlīyah – the supplementary school) has a frequency of only 52. In the analysed sample of TT5, the reviser has changed the term from (المدرسة التكميلية / al-madrasah al-takmīlīyah – the supplementary school) to (المدرسة المتوسطة / al-madrasah al-mutawassitah – the middle school) in two instances (TT5b, pp.7, 10) but kept the translator’s rendition without change in two other instances on other pages (TT5b, pp.19, 22). This results in terminological inconsistency and may lead to interpretational confusion over the difference between the two. In English, for instance, ‘supplementary schools’ are voluntary schools which are attended to support learning in addition to attending a mainstream school. This is not the case in Arabic as all three aforementioned terms are used interchangeably in the Arab world. The choice should be based on the target readers of the text. Since Kalima targets all readers of Modern Standard Arabic, the decision-making should be determined by the most frequent usage, besides being accurate. The reviser here seems to be losing stamina or focus as the term is not changed consistently on later pages.

3.2 Language/ unnecessary lexical substitution

To render the word ‘old’ in the analysed sample of TT5, the translator opted for the word (العجوز / al-^ʿajūz – the-old), as displayed in the example below. However, the reviser, in both examples, changed them to other synonyms, once as (المسنن / al-musinn – the old) and once as (الطاعن / al-ṭā^ʿin – the-old) (see the two examples below):

Example TT5.3.2a	
ST5, p. 5	old Mosaku's carrot patch.
TT5a, p. 7 (translator)	وخرينا بستان موساكو العجوز المزروع بالجزر
Transliteration	Wa-kharrabnā bustān musākū al-^cajūz al-mazrū ^c bi-aljazar.
English gloss	We ruined old Mosaku's garden which was planted with carrots.
TT5b, p.13 (reviser)	وخرينا بستان موساكو المُسِن المزروع بالجزر
Transliteration	Wa-kharrabnā bustān musākū al-musinn al-mazrū ^c bi-aljazar.
English gloss	We ruined old Mosaku's garden which was planted with carrots.
Example TT5.3.2b	
ST5, p. 15	old Mr. Furukawa burst in.
TT5a, p.8 (translator)	دخل علينا السيد فوروكاوا العجوز
Transliteration	Dakhal ^c alaynā al-sayyid furūkāwā al-^cajūz
English gloss	Old Mr. Furukawa came in upon us.
TT5b, p.14 (reviser)	دخل علينا السيد فوروكاوا الطاعن
Transliteration	Dakhal ^c alaynā al-sayyid furūkāwā al-ṭā^cin
English gloss	Old Mr. Furukawa came in upon us.

Al-mu^cjam Al-wasīṭ (2004), an Arabic dictionary, defines (العجوز / al-^cajūz – the-old), (المسنن / al-musinn – the old) and (الطاعن / al-ṭā^cin – the old) as 'old'. Therefore, the reviser's change was unnecessary.

3.3 Language/ Word order and sentence structure

The structure of the sentence was also changed by the reviser, from nominal to verbal, in three instances in the sample of TT5 as follows:

Example TT5.3.3	
ST5, p. 10	The pasty-faced English teacher Koga becomes Uranari Hyōtan, a pale, puffy squash
TT5a, p.5 (translator)	أستاذ اللغة الإنكليزية الشاحب السحنة كوغا يصبح في الرواية "اوراناري هيوتان"، ..
Transliteration	ustādh al-lughah al-inkilīziyah al-shāḥib al-suḥnah kughā yushbiḥ fī al-riwāyah "Unārāy Hayautan", ...
English gloss	The teacher of English , the pale faced becomes in the novel 'Uranari Hyōtan'
TT5b, p.9 (reviser)	يصبح أستاذ اللغة الإنكليزية الشاحب السحنة كوغا في الرواية "اوراناري هيوتان"، ..

Transliteration	yuṣbiḥ ustādh al-lughah al-inkilīzīyah al-shāḥib al-suḥnah kughā fī al-riwāyah “Unārāy Hayautan”, ...
English gloss	[becomes] the teacher of English the pale faced in the novel ‘Uranari Hyōtan’,...

As mentioned earlier in 3.2, unlike English, Arabic favours a verbal structure [Verb + Subject + Object]. Similarly, the reviser has changed the translator’s nominal rendition to imitate an English structure [Subject (أستاذ اللغة الإنكليزية / ustādh al-lughah al-inkilīzīyah – the teacher of English) + Verb (يصبح / yuṣbiḥ – becomes)] into verbal [Verb (يصبح / yuṣbiḥ – becomes) + subject (أستاذ اللغة الإنكليزية / ustādh al-lughah al-inkilīzīyah – the teacher of English)]. The time and effort for such corrections could have been avoided had the translator been competent enough to abide by such basic language rules.

3.4 Language / prepositions

Prepositions were changed by the reviser in nine instances. For instance, the reviser of the TT5 omitted (ك / k – k) known as (كاف الاستقصاء / kāf al-istiṣṣā’) (Al-^cadnānī, 1983, p. 268; Ammār, 1998, pp.261–263) (see TT1 3.2), when used incorrectly, as follows:

Example TT5.3.4a

ST5, p. 20	Even if it meant that I’d have to work as a milkman, ...
TT5a, p.10 (translator)	حتى لو اقتضى الأمر العمل كبانع حليب.
Transliteration	ḥattā law iqtadā al-amr al- ^c amal ka-bā’i^c ḥalīb.
English gloss	Even if it meant that I’d have to work such as -a milkman
TT5b, p.19 (reviser)	حتى لو اقتضى الأمر العمل بانعاً للحليب.
Transliteration	ḥattā law iqtadā al-amr al- ^c amal bā’i^can li-al-ḥalīb.
English gloss	Even if it meant that I’d have to work as a milkman

As mentioned earlier, such incorrect use of (ك / k – k) results from English to Arabic translation as in Arabic it functions as a tool to compare and compose similes, whereas ‘Botchan’ and ‘milkman’ cannot be put into an analogy/ simile in this context. The reviser corrected this in four instances.

Prepositions were also changed for reasons of accuracy, depending on the words they collocate with, such as changing (عاجز على المشي / ^cājiz ^calā al-mashī – incapable

to walking) (TT5a, p.7) to (عاجز عن المشي / °ājiz °an al-mashī – incapable of walking) (TT5b, p. 12) and (لأرغب بأي املك / lā arghab bi-ay amlāk – I don't want [of] any possessions) (TT5a, p.10) to (لا أرغب في امتلاك / lā arghab fī imtilāk – I don't want to possess) (TTb, p.18).

Below are the frequencies of these prepositions in association with the given words in these examples as they appear in the Arabic Web Corpus – Stanford Tagger (Sketch Engine, 2012):

Example	Choice	Preposition association	Frequency
TT5.3.4b	Translator	(عاجز على / °ājiz °alā – incapable to)	478
	Reviser	(عاجز عن / °ājiz °an – incapable of)	18,698
TT5.3.4c	Translator	(أرغب بـ / arghab bi – want of)	28,444
	Reviser	(أرغب في / arghab fī– want to)	9,274

The frequencies above show that the reviser's corrections are more frequent in the first example (TT5.3.4b), whereas the translator's choices are more frequent in the second (TT5.3.4c). This indicates the importance of referring to linguistic corpora and relevant references for choices and decision-making in translation and revision.

3.5 Language/ Orthography

The reviser has also corrected typographical errors in the sample of TT5 in four instances, as follows:

Example TT5.3.5a	
ST5, p.11	Like his creator, Botchan takes great pride in his identity as an Edokko
TT5a, p.6 (Translator)	وبوتشان مثل مبتكره بانتمائه إلى أيدو
Transliteration	Aydū
English gloss	Aydo
TT5b, p.10 (proofreader)	وبوتشان مثل مبتكره بانتمائه إلى إيدو
Transliteration	Iydū
English gloss	Edo

Edokko is a Japanese term that is used to refer to a person who was born or raised in Edo – renamed in 1868 and known today as Tokyo. The translator here has rendered the sentence freely, as displayed in the table, by using the name of the city instead of translating the term equally, as it is challenging to coin it in Arabic. The translator

perhaps wanted to avoid any confusion that might be caused due to equal coinage of the term ‘Edokko’. This strategy of the translator was successful. This shows that the revision process of TT5 paid great attention to ST5, especially proper nouns that were not added to TT5a in English beside the Arabic renditions.

Example TT5.3.5b

ST5, p. 14	He had a son...
TT5a, p.7 (translator)	كان لديه ابن
Transliteration	kān ladayh’ ibn
English gloss	He had a son
TT5b, p.12 (proofreader)	كان لديه ابن
Transliteration	kān ladayh ibn
English gloss	He had a son

In this example, the reviser has corrected an orthographical mistake in the word (ابن / ibn – son) by deleting the initial *hamza*, as shown in the table above.

However the reviser left four typographical errors without corrections, as follows:

Example TT5.3.5c

ST5, p.	Pretensions
TT5a, p.3 (translator)	ادعاءات
Transliteration	iddi [°] dā’āt
English gloss	-
TT5b, p.5 (proofreader)	ادعاءات
Transliteration	iddi [°] dā’āt
English gloss	-

The reviser here should have corrected it by using (ادعاءات / iddi[°]dā’āt – pretensions). This mistake was left out, probably because it looks the same orthographically as the one that appeared in the translator’s version. The reviser could have been engrossed in comparing ST5’s lines to TT5’s, leaving such mistakes uncorrected.

4. Presentation

Both versions of TT4 (before and after revision) are in the same font: ‘simplified Arabic’. Yet the font size was changed during revision from 12 to 14, while the line-

spacing was increased from 0 to 1.5 No other changes were applied to the format of the document or to the paragraphs

7.7.3 Revision analysis of TT6

About the book (ST6):

Dam by Trevor Turpin was published by Reaktion books in 2008. In its 256 pages the author provides a historical account of dam-building worldwide, with many illustrated case studies describing the processes of their development, the personalities who made them possible and their impacts. Without attempting to take sides, the book explores the arguments different proponents and opponents have made about the consequences of dam-building projects.

Revision parameters:

1.1 Transfer/ inaccuracy

The translation involved a number of elements that do not reflect the ST, as in the examples below.

Example TT6.1.1a

ST6, p. 16	This chapter considers what dams symbolize as well as their intended functions: there is more to these confident masonry structures than just the granite .
TT6a, p. 12 (translator)	لا يتناول هذا الفصل من فصول الكتاب ما ترمز إليه السدود وحسب وإنما يعمد إلى إبراز وظائفها المتوخاة فنمة في السدود ما يتخطى كونها مجرد صوان صلد وإنشاءات ذات عرامة وهيبية.
Transliteration	Lā yatanāwal hādhā al-faṣl min fuṣūl al-kitāb mā tarmiz ilayh al-sudūd wa ḥasb wa-innamā ya ^ʿ mad ilā ibrāz waz'ifihā al-mutawakhāh fa-thimmat fī al-sudūd mā yatakhaṭṭa kawnuhā mujarrad ṣinwān ṣald wa inshā'āt dhāt ʿarāmah wa haybah .
English gloss	This chapter of the-book's chapters does not consider what is symbolised by the-dams only but works towards highlighting their-intended functions as there is in that-dams what's beyond being hard granite and structures of strength and respect .

TT6b, p. 10 (reviser)	لا يتناول هذا الفصل من فصول الكتاب ما ترمز إليه السدود وحسب وإنما يعمد إلى إبراز وظائفها المتوخاة فثمة في السدود ما يتخطى كونها مجرد صوان صلد وإنشاءات ذات عرامة وهيبة.
Transliteration	Lā yatanāwal hādhā al-faṣl min fuṣūl al-kitāb mā tarmiz ilayh al-sudūd wa ḥasb wa-innamā ya ^ʿ mad ilā ibrāz waz'ifihā al-mutawakhāh fa-thimmat fī al-sudūd mā yatakhaṭṭa kawnuhā mujarrad ṣinwān ṣald wa inshā'āt dhāt ʿarāmah wa haybah.
English gloss	This chapter of the-book's chapters does not consider what is symbolised by the-dams only but works towards highlighting their-intended functions as there is in that-dams what's beyond being hard granite and structures of strength and respect.

In example TT6.1.1a, the translator has rendered the sentence by opting for a negative statement 'does not ... only but', where prominence is given to highlighting their functions as hard granite structures. However, this formulation in TT6 does not reflect the meaning of ST6 in which the symbolic significance and functional roles of dams are given equal value.

In addition, the Arabic translation of 'there is more to these confident masonry structures than just the granite', as translated back into the English gloss above, puts 'these confident masonry structures' on the same level as 'just the granite' by putting the functions of dams in the foreground, implying that there is more to be said about that aspect of dams. This is different from the implication in ST6 that these confident masonry structures have more symbolic value than just being granite objects. In addition, ST6 provides an element of suspense about their symbolic value by describing the masonry structures as 'confident' in ways that go beyond 'the granite' that composes them. This information is not wholly transferred in TT6a and the difference is not corrected by the reviser in TT6b.

The following are other examples of inaccurate transfer of information in TT6:

Example TT6.1.1b

ST6, p. 8-9	..., it closed seven times in its first decade of operation..
TT6a, p. 5 (translator)	الحقبة الأولى
Transliterate	Al-ḥiqbah al-ūlā

English gloss	The-first era
TT6b, p.5 (reviser)	العقد الأول
Transliteration	Al- ^ʿ iqd al-awwal
English gloss	The-first the-decade

The reviser here has corrected the mistranslation of the word ‘decade’ (عقد / ^ʿiqd - decade), which refers to “a period of ten years” (*The Oxford English Dictionary*, 2015), while the translator opted for (حقبة / ḥiqbah – era), denoting “a long and distinct period of history” (*The Oxford English Dictionary*, 2015). This resulted in a mistranslation of information in TT6a which necessitated a correction by the reviser.

Example TT6.1.1c

ST6, p. 7	112 kilometres
TT6a, p. 4 (translator)	112 ميل
Transliteration	112 mīl
English gloss	112 miles
TT6b, p.4 (reviser)	112 ميل
Transliteration	112 mīl
English gloss	112 miles

The translator rendered the unit ‘kilometres’ as ‘miles’ without converting the figure ‘112’. The reviser did not correct the unit in his/her version either. Kilometres and miles are completely different measurement units, with 1 kilometre equal to 0.621 miles. Since the translator chose to use ‘miles’ instead of ‘kilometres’, for whatever reason, the figure should be converted to its equivalent of 69.5 miles for accuracy of translation. This error was not corrected during revision. The Arabic Web Corpus – Stanford Tagger (Sketch Engine, 2012) shows a higher frequency for the unit (ميل / mīl – miles) than (كيلومتر / kīlūmitr – kilometre) at 118,466 to 56,753, respectively. This may justify the translator’s choice of the unit ‘mile’ over ‘kilometre’, yet it reflects a lack of knowledge about units as ‘kilometres’ not being equal to ‘miles’. It would be acceptable to preserve the translator’s choice of the unit if the value was converted to its equivalent in the chosen unit. Both examples, TT6.1.1b and TT6.1.1c, may also relate to content and facts.

Here is another example of transfer inaccuracy in translation:

Example TT6.1.1d	
ST6, p. 19	Construction of the Amir Dam at Shiraz started 1000 years ago and was a typical multi-functional structure, being a mill, a dam and a bridge.
TT6a, p. 14 (translator)	وكان إنشاء سد أمير في شيراز منذ ألف عام نموذجاً أميناً للبناء المتعدد الوظائف فهو في آن معاً طاحونة وسدّ وقنطرة.
Transliteration	Wa-kān inshā' sad amīr fī shīrāz mundh alf 'ām namūdhajan amīnan li-albinā' al-muta ^c addid al-wazā'if fahuwa fī ān ma ^c an ṭāhūna wa sad wa qanṭarah.
English gloss	And-the-construction of-Amir Dam in Shiraz since one-thousand years was-a faithful model of-the-multi-functional construction as-it-is a-mill and-a-dam and-a-bridge at the same time.
TT6b, p.12 (reviser)	وكان إنشاء سد أمير في شيراز قد بدأ منذ ألف عام وشكل نموذجاً للبناء المتعدد الوظائف باعتباره طاحونة وسداً وجسراً.
Transliteration	Wa-kān inshā' sad amīr fī shīrāz qad bada'a mundh alf 'ām wa shakkal namūdhajan li-albinā' al-muta ^c addid al-wazā'if bi ^c tibāriḥ ṭāhūnah wa saddan wa jisran.
English gloss	And-the-construction of the Amir Dam in Shiraz started since one-thousand years and it-formed a-model of multi-functional structure as-being a mill, a dam and a bridge.

The sentence above provides the following information: construction of the Amir Dam began 1000 years ago; the Amir Dam was a typical multi-functional structure because it served as a mill, a dam and a bridge simultaneously. The translator's rendition, however, neglected the predicate 'started', opting instead for (منذ ألف عام / mundh alf 'ām – since one-thousand years) to refer to the dam's longevity rather than dating the start of its construction as indicated in ST6. Although the sentence in TT6a is structurally well-formed, it does not faithfully render the message of the ST. The interpretation of 'since 1,000 years ago' in the translator's version may also be confusing since it may be taken as either a measure of the length of time the dam has existed, or how long the Amir dam has been [a faithful model] of a multi-functional construction. This issue was tackled by the reviser in TT6b, as presented in the table.

2.1 Transfer/ addition

Example TT6.1.1a above may also be a reflection of the very free style adopted by the translator in his/her semantic rendition. For instance, 'the granite' is presented in ST6 without any qualifying adjective, but the translator added the adjective (صلد /

şald – hard). In this example, the ‘structures’ are also described as ‘confident masonry’. ‘Confident’ here indicates the impression of prestige these structures may communicate to their viewers, whereas ‘masonry’ denotes their strength and endurance since, in the field of engineering, ‘masonry’ refers to strong stonework commonly used in constructions as building blocks (*The Oxford English Dictionary*, 2015).

The translator also rendered the word ‘bridge’ in example TT6.1.3 below by using the synonyms (جسور / jusūr – bridges) and (قناطر / qanāṭir – water bridges), which are simplified by the reviser to give (جسر / jistr – bridge). As presented in example TT6.1.1d above, the context suggests that since dams which also function as bridges are built in water, deciding whether to render them using a general term (جسر / jistr – bridge) or a more specific term (قنطرة / qanṭarah – water bridge) is a question of preference. However, it is not justifiable to use them both, as the translator does here, because it inserts additional information that is not equivalent to the content in ST6.

2.2 Transfer/ omission

Example TT6.1.3	
ST6, p. 20	The Khadjoo, constructed in the 1650s under Shah Abbas II, doubles as a bridge and was described by Lord Curzon in 1892 as the most beautiful dam in the entire world. It only holds back 3 metres of river head but is 180 metres long.
TT6a, p. 14 (translator)	إن سد خادجو – المقام في العام 1650 إبان عهد الشاه عباس الثاني والذي وصفه اللورد كيرزون في العام 1892 بأنه الأجل بين سدود العالم قاطبة – كان يستخدم كأحد الجسور والقناطر . ورغم أن طوله يبلغ 180 مترا إلا أنه لا يحتجز سوي ثلاثة أمتار مكعبة من مياه النهر
Transliteration	Inna sad khadjū – al-muqām fī al- [°] ām 1650 ibān [°] ahd al-shāh [°] abbās al-thānī wa-al-ladhī waṣafah al-lurd kīrzūn fī al- [°] ām 1892 bi-annah al-ajmal bayn sudūd al- [°] alam qāṭibah – kān yustakhdam ka-aḥad al-jusūr wa al-qanāṭir. Wa rughm anna ṭūluh yaḅluḡ 180 mitran illā annah lā yaḅtajiz siwā thalāthat amtār muka^{cc}abah min miyāh al-nahr.
English gloss	That-is Khadjoo Dam – constructed in 1650 during the time of-the-second Shah Abbas and which was described by Lord Curzon in 1892 as the most-beautiful amongst the dams of the entire world – was used as one of the bridges and water bridges. And although its length is 180 metres it does not

	hold but three square metres of river waters.
TT6b, p.12 (reviser)	وقد وصف اللورد كيرزون Curzon في العام 1892 سدّ خادجو، الذي أنشئ في خمسينيات القرن السادس عشر في عهد الشاه عباس الثاني ويستخدم أيضاً بمثابة جسر، بأنه أجمل سدود العالم قاطبة. ورغم أن طوله يبلغ 180 متراً فإنه لا يحتجز سوى ثلاثة أمتار من مصدر مياه النهر.
Transliteration	Wa-kad waṣaf al-lurd kīrzūn [Curzon] fī al-ʿām 1892 sad khadjū, al-ladhī unshī' fī khamsīniyat al-qarn al-sādis ʿashar fī ʿahd al-shāh ʿabbās al-thānī wa-yustakhdam ayḍan bi-mathābat jisr, bi-annah ajmal sudūd al-ʿālam qāṭibah. Wa ruḡhm anna tūluḥ yablugh 180 mitran fa-innah lā yaḥtajiz siwā thalāthat amtār min maṣdar miyāh al-nahr.
English gloss	And-Lord Curzon described Khadjoo dam in 1892, which was constructed in the 50s of the sixteenth century during the time of Shah Abbas the second and is used also as a bridge, as the most beautiful amongst the dams of the entire world. And-although its length is 180 metres it does not holds but three metres of river waters resource.

By ignoring the value of 'river head', the translator has failed to convey the message in ST6 in example TT6.1.3. This results in misinterpreting the message where s/he assumes that 3 metres refers to the volume of river water, and changes the unit from 'metres' to 'square metres' accordingly. The '3 metres' in ST6 actually refers to the 'river head', not the 'river waters'. The reviser corrected this mistake, as shown above.

2.3 Content/ conceptual errors

Example TT6.2.3

ST6, p. 13	The floodwalls and levees of New Orleans were neither designed nor maintained to withstand the Category-Four storm that Hurricane Katrina brought with it in August 2005. The consequent loss of life and devastation raised questions not only about engineering, but about the very nature of American 'civilization'.
TT6a, p. 8-9 (translator)	إن حواجز منع الفيضانات و السدود الواقية في نيو أورلينز (بولاية لويزيانا الأمريكية المترجم) لم تصمم ولم يتم إعدادها من أجل تحمل الآثار الناجمة عن عواصف المستوى الرابع العنيفة التي صاحبت إعصار كاترينا في شهر أغسطس آب عام 2005. لقد أدت الخسائر في الأرواح و الدمار الذي أصاب المنطقة إلى إثارة أسئلة كثيرة و جدلاً حامي الوطيس ليس فقط عن هندسة السدود وإنما عن طبيعة الحضارة الأمريكية في حد ذاتها.
Transliteration	Inna ḥawājiz man ^c al-fayaḍānāt wa-al-sudūd al-waqiyah fī niyū urliyānz (bi-wilāyat luwīzānā al-amrīkiyah – al-mutarjim) lam tuṣammam wa-lam yatim i ^c dāduhā min ajl

taḥammul al-āthār al-nājimah °an °wāṣif al-mustawā al-rābi°
al-latī ṣāḥabat i°ṣār katrīnā fī shahr **ughuṣṭus āb °ām 2005**.
Laqad addat al-khasā'ir fī al-arwāḥ wa-al-damār al-ladhī
aṣāb al-manṭiqah ilā ithārat as'ilah kathīrah wa-**jadalan**
ḥāmī al-waṭīs laysa faqaṭ °an handasat al-sudūd wa-innamā
°an ṭabī°at al-ḥadhārah al-amrīkīyah fī ḥadd dhātihā.

English gloss

Barriers to prevent floods and protective dams in New Orleans (in the American Louisiana State – translator) were not designed nor were not prepared to endure the resulted consequences of **the-fierce** four stage storm which came along with Katrina storm in the **month of August Av year 2005**. The losses of lives and the-devastation happened to the area led to raising many questions and **a heated controversy** not only about the dams' engineering but about the nature of the-American civilisation itself.

TT6b, p.7 (reviser)

إن حواجز الفيضان والمصاطب في نيو أورلينز لم تصمم ولم تتم صيانتها
لتنحتمل العاصفة من الدرجة الرابعة التي صاحبت إعصار كاترينا في
أغسطس/آب 2005. وقد أثارت الخسائر في الأرواح و الدمار الذي خلفته
أسئلة كثيرة لا تتعلق بهندسة السدود فحسب، وإنما بطبيعة الحضارة الأمريكية
في حد ذاتها.

Transliteration

Inna ḥawājiz al-fayaḍānāt wa-al-maṣāṭib fī niyū urliyānz
lam tuṣammam wa-lam tatim ṣiyānatuhā li-tataḥammal al-
°aṣifah min al-darajah al-rābi°ah al-latī ṣāḥabat i°ṣār katrīnā fī
ughuṣṭus/ āb 2005. Wa-qad athārat al-khasā'ir fī al-arwāḥ
wa-al-damār al-ladhī khallafath as'ilah kathīrah lā tata°allaq
bi-handasat al-sudūd faḥasb, **wa-innamā bi-ṭabī°at al-**
ḥadhārah al-amrīkīyah fī ḥadd dhātihā.

English gloss

Flood barriers and **levees** in New Orleans were not designed nor designed to the storm of four stage storm which came along with Katrina storm in **August\ Av 2005**. The losses of lives and the resulted devastation raised many questions not only about the dams' engineering only, but about the nature of the-American civilisation itself.

The reviser has changed the translator's rendition of 'floodwalls' and 'levees' in example TT6.2.3 above. The translator renders 'floodwalls' by explaining the term as (حواجز منع الفيضانات / ḥawājiz man° al-fayaḍānāt – barriers to prevent floods), including the redundant addition of the word (منع / man° – prevent) as (حواجز / ḥawājiz – barriers), which was chosen instead of (جدران / judrān – walls), prevent floods. The reviser has realised this redundancy and omitted (منع / man° – prevent).

The translator's rendition of 'levees' (السدود الواقية / al-sudūd al-wāqiyah – the protective dams) was changed by the reviser to (المصاطب / al-maṣāṭib). According to *Oxford English Dictionary* (2015), a 'levee' denotes "An embankment built to prevent the overflow of a river" or "A ridge of sediment deposited naturally alongside a river by overflowing water", which in Arabic it is equivalent to (حاجز المياه / ḥājiz al-miyāh – water barrier) or (سد / sad – dam) (*Al-Maany English-Arabic Dictionary*, 2010). Therefore, the translator's rendition of 'levees' is correct. The addition of (الواقية / al-wāqiyah – protective) to 'dams' may have a clarifying role as the main function of dams is to store water and the 'protective' aspect is an additional feature. The reviser's change in this case is unnecessary and what s/he opted for (المصاطب / al-maṣāṭib) is semantically incorrect as (المصاطب / al-maṣāṭib) is a plural form of (مصطبة / maṣṭabah), which denotes a river terrace or an outdoor bench for seating (*Al-mu'jam Al-wasīṭ* 2004).

3. Language

3.1 Language/ addition

Example TT6.3.1	
ST6, p. 10	Dams are not new: the oldest, dating to 3000 BC, can be found north of Amman in Jordan.
TT6a, p. 6 (translator) Transliteration	إن عملية إنشاء السدود ليست ظاهرة حديثة، لأن أول سد شيد في العالم كان منذ ٣٠٠٠ سنة قبل الميلاد وكان ذلك في شمال العاصمة عمان في الأردن inna 'amalīyat inshā' al-sudūd laysat zāhirah ḥadīthah, li'anna aqal sad shuyyid fī al- ^ḥ alam kān munth 3000 sanah qabl al-mīlad wa- kān dhālik fī shamāl al- ^ḥ āsimah 'amman fī al-urdun.
English gloss	The process of-founding the-dams is-not a-new phenomenon, because first dam was founded in the-world was since 3000 years BC and it-was in north the capital Amman in Jordan.
TT6b, p.4 (reviser) Transliteration	السدود ليست منشآت حديثة، إذ أنشئ أقدمها سنة ٣٠٠٠ قبل الميلاد شمال العاصمة الأردنية عمان. al-sudūd laysat munsha'āt ḥadīthah, idh unshi'a aqdamuhā sanat 3000 qabl al-mīlad shamāl al- ^ḥ āsimah al-urdunīyah 'amman.
English gloss	The dams are not new buildings, as the oldest was founded in 3000 BC in north the Jordanian capital Amman.

The reviser added the word (منشآت / munsha'āt – establishments) to the adjective (حديثة / ḥadīthah – new) when a more fitting term would be (إنشاءات / inshā'āt –

constructions). In Arabic, (إنشاءات / inshā'āt – constructions) is used in engineering and construction contexts whereas (منشآت / munsha'āt – establishments) usually refer to business firms, workplaces or facilities (*Al-Maany English-Arabic Dictionary*, 2010). For instance, the frequency of the word (منشآت / munsha'āt – establishments) with (هندسية / handasīyah – engineering) is 41, while (منشآت / munsha'āt – establishments) collocates with it at a frequency of 97 (Arabic Web Corpus – Stanford Tagger (Sketch Engine, 2012)

When translating the month and year, 'August 2005', the translator added the words (شهر / shahr – month) and (عام / 'ām – year) in example TT6.2.3. These additions are unnecessary but they do have a function in providing clarification. However, the reviser removed them in TT6b, although these additions do not affect the message of ST6. On the other hand, the translator added the adjective (العنيفة / al-ʿanīfah – the-fierce) to describe “the Category-Four storm that Hurricane Katrina brought with it”. Although the added element conforms to the general message and the nature of 'Hurricane Katrina' and its consequences, it contributes to an intensely descriptive writing style that does not match the style in ST6. The reviser observed this addition and omitted it in TT6b.

The excerpt from which example TT6.3.3 is taken includes a note from the translator explaining that New Orleans is in the state of Louisiana. The reviser removed this note, suggesting it may not be important for the target readers. The reviser may have considered this note unnecessary as Hurricane Katrina occurred in 2005, only three years before the publication of the book. The reviser did, however, keep other notes added by the translator (see 3.3 in this section, Figs 6 and 7).

As previously noted, the translator adopted a free style of translation with more elaborate descriptions and additional elements that affect the general style of TT6a. Another such example is in example TT6.2.3 where “consequent loss of life and devastation” is said to cause a (جدلاً حامي الوطيس / jadalān ḥāmī al-waṭīs – heated controversy), in addition to the more understated “raised questions” in ST6. This addition is non-functional and does not reflect ST6. Moreover, (حامي الوطيس / ḥāmī al-waṭīs) is a metaphorical expression with connotations of warfare and intense

fighting where (حامي / ḥāmī) means (extremely hot) and (الوطيس / al- waṭīs) means intense heating, as of a furnace (Ibn Manẓūr, 2000). This example, therefore, suggests an analogy with warfare and fighting, a rhetorical and non-functional addition that affects the message transferred from the ST.

3.2 Language and style / omission

The reviser, for instance in example TT6.3.1 above, omitted words and phrases added in the translator's version, such as (عملية إنشاء / °amālīyat inshā' – the process of founding), as well as continuing the translator's tactic of omitting "can be found" by referring to the location directly. The form of the reviser's sentence follows the English version, whereas the translator opted for a more elaborate form.

3.3 Language/ Lexical substitution

The reviser in TT6.1.1d above made an unnecessary change by replacing the word (قنطرة / qanṭarah – waterbridge) with (جسر / jistr – bridge). According to (Al-°askarī, 1997), both words refer to a bridge, but the former is more specific in the sense that it is a bridge that is built as a means of crossing over water. Although the context implicitly supports this rendition, as dams are built to hold water, the reviser opted for the more general term. Both the translator and the reviser are aware of this distinction, as evidenced in example TT6.1.3.

3.3 Language/ punctuation

Example TT6.3.3

ST6, p. 19	Apart from their functions, (...) – they can be read in many ways. The terms that come to mind are power, strength, achievement, domination – not all of them complimentary!
TT6a, p. 14 (translator)	وبمعزل عن وظائف السدود المتعددة (...) التي يمكن أن تتعدد قراءاتنا لها علي أنحاء كثيرة . وإن ما يرد علي ذهن من معانٍ عند ذكر السدود من قبيل الطاقة ، القوة ، الإنجاز ، السيطرة ليست كلها معانٍ احتفائية !
Transliteration	Wa-bi-ma°zal °an wazā'if al-sudūd al-muta°addidah (...) al-latī yumkin an tata°addad qirā'atunā lahā °alā anḥā' kathīrah. Wa-inna mā yarid °alā al-dihh min m°ānin °ind dhikr al-sudūd min qabīl al-ṭāqah, al-quwwah, al-injāz, al-saiṭarah laysat kullahā m°ānin iḥtifā'iyah!
English gloss	Apart from the-dams' multi-functions (...), as they-can-be read in many aspects. And-what comes to the mind

of meanings when mentioning the dams such as the power, the strength, the achievement, the dominance are not all of celebratory meanings!

TT6b, p.12 (reviser)	وبمعزل عن وظائف السدود المتعددة، (...)، إذ يمكن تقرأ بعدة طرق. ومن المصطلحات التي ترد إلى الذهن عند ذكر السدود الطاقة، والقوة، والإنجاز، والسيطرة. وهي ليست كلها مدحية
Transliteration	Wa-bi-ma ^c zal ^c an waḏā'if al-sudūd al-muta ^c addidah, (...), idh yumkin an tuqra' bi- ^c iddat ṭuruq. Wa-min al-muṣṭalahāt al-latī tarid ^c alā al-dhihn ^c ind dhikr al-sudūd al-ṭāqah, wa-al-quwwah, wa-al-injāz, wa-al-saiṭarah – wa-hiya laysat kullahā madhīyah!
English gloss	Apart from the-dams' multi-functions, (...), as they can be read in many ways. Amongst the concepts that come to the mind when mentioning the-dams the power, and the achievement, and the dominance – which not all of them are complimentary.

In example TT6.2, the translator has misinterpreted the sentence highlighted in bold and combined the first part, 'The terms that come to mind are power, strength, achievement, domination', with the second part, which is preceded by a dash '– not all of them complimentary!' As noted earlier in 3.3.1, dashes are used for different purposes (Blakesley and Hoogeveen, 2011). In this case, it is used to present a statement denying any assumption on the reader's part that all the listed terms, 'power, strength, achievement, domination', are complimentary, through the qualification 'not all of them complimentary'. The translator's interpretation, however, ignores the function of this punctuation mark and its effect on reading the sentence, as shown in the table. This misinterpretation is recognised and corrected by the reviser who uses a dash in the same way as in ST6. Although dashes are normally used in Arabic to mark parentheses and interruptions (see 3.3.1), it can be argued that since punctuation marks are not standardised in Arabic (El-Farahaty, 2015, pp. 51, 149) they can be used flexibly to perform logical functions in given statements (Al-Rawi, 1966; Ghazala, 2004, p. 235).

The reviser in example TT6.3.5 below has changed the comma which the translator inserted to replace the 'and' in '1811 **and** 1812'. This punctuation in TT6a is unjustifiable, as Arabic has an equivalent, (و / wa – and), with similar functions. While the use of punctuation marks in Arabic can be very idiosyncratic, they have to be used to perform certain functions (Marzari, 2006, p. 55). As the comma is

employed to enhance readability and avoid confusion in Arabic (Ghazala, 2004, p. 234), ‘and’ should be rendered by (و / wa - and) rather than a comma in this example, as recognised by the reviser.

3.4 Language/ Cohesion

Example TT6.3.3 also raises an issue about maintaining cohesion in English to Arabic translations, as the translator did not mark cohesion between the words in:

(السيطرة ، الإنجاز ، القوة ، الطاقة / al-ṭāqah, al-quwwah, al-injāz, al-saiṭarah – the power, the strength, the achievement, the dominance).

Arabic marks cohesion explicitly and uses conjunctive tools such as the connector (و / wa – and) to link sentences, clauses, phrases and paragraphs within a text (Ryding, 2005, p. 407). Listing a number of terms consecutively entails the explicit use of the additive conjunction (و / wa – and) before each of them, except for the first, to clarify the additive relationship between them. This is not the case in English where ‘and’ is used only once, before the last word in a list. The reviser here has added (و / wa – and) before each word, as shown above. The reviser’s sentence, however, seems to lack cohesion in two areas of its construction: (1) the listed ‘terms’ beginning with (الطاقة / al-ṭāqah – the-power) come immediately after the word (السود / alsudūd – the-dams) without an introductory element, such as a colon or pronoun, resulting in a badly formed sentence; (2) the parenthetical phrase (the sentence after the dash) should probably be linked cohesively to the previous statement in a more explicit manner by using one of the cohesive devices available in Arabic, such as (و / wa – and) or (ف / fa – so or then).

3.5 Language/ style of writing

Another part of getting a text to sound right and ensuring faithfulness to the original is attending to the style of writing, as in the example below:

Example TT6.3.5

ST6, p. 16	When Shelley penned this line,(...). In 1811 and 1812 he stayed in the Elan Valley in mid-Wales, first at Cwm Elan, where he described the scenery as ‘ a very great bore ’, and then at Nantgwillt, where he hoped to set up a commune.
TT6a, p. 12 (translator)	عندما نظم الشاعر البريطاني شيللي Shelley هذا الشطر الشعري ببراعة (...) فقد أقام شيللي خلال عامي 1811، 1812 في وادي إيلان Elan Valley بوسط ويلز، أول الأمر في منطقة كوين إيلان حيث وصف المكان بأنه

	"مثير للضجر للغاية" ثم شد الرحال إلى منطقة نانتغويلت حيث داعبته فكرة إنشاء بلدة صغيرة.
Transliteration	°indamā nazam al-shā°ir al-brīṭānī shillī [Shelley] hadhā al-shaṭr al-shi°rī bi-barā°ah (...). Faqad aqām shillī khilāl °āmayy 1811, 1812 fī wadī īlān [Elan Valley] bi-wasaṭ waylz, awwal al-amr fī maṭīqat kuwīn īlān ḥaithu waṣaf al-makān bi-annah "muthīr li-al-ḍajar li-alghāyah" thumma shad al-riḥāl ilā maṭīqat nāntqwilt ḥayth dā°abathu fikrat inshā° baldah ṣaghīrah.
English gloss	When the-British poet Shelley penned this poetic line cleverly (...). Shelley stayed between the years 1811, 1812 in Ellan Valley in mid Wales, first at Cwm Elan where he described the place as "very boring" then he sat out on a journey to Nantgwillt where an idea flirted with him of establishing a-small town.
TT6b, p.10 (reviser)	عندما نظم الشاعر البريطاني شيللي Shelley هذا الشطر الشعري، (...) فقد أقام شيللي في سنتي 1811 و 1812 في وادي إيلان Elan Valley في وسط ويلز، أول الأمر في منطقة كوين إيلان حيث وصف المكان بأنه "مثير للضجر للغاية"، ثم شد الرحال إلى منطقة نانتغويلت حيث أمل في إنشاء بلدة صغيرة.
Transliteration	°indamā nazam al-shā°ir al-brīṭānī shillī [Shelley] hadhā al-shaṭr al-shi°rī (...). Faqad aqām shillī fī sanatay 1811 and 1812 fī wadī īlān [Elan Valley] bi-wasaṭ waylz, awwal al-amr fī maṭīqat kuwīn īlān ḥaithu waṣaf al-makān bi-annah "muthīr li-al-ḍajar li-alghāyah" thumma shad al-riḥāl ilā maṭīqat nāntqwilt ḥayth amal fī inshā° baldah ṣaghīrah.
English gloss	When the-British poet Shelley penned this poetic line,(...). Shelley stayed between the years 1811 and 1812 in Ellan Valley in mid Wales, first at Cwm Elan where he described the place as "very boring" then he-sat-out on-a-journey to Nantgwillt where hoped to establish a-small town.

The translator's language sometimes differs from the language in ST6 in the sample analysed with his/her use of forms of rhetoric more commonly found in literary texts. In the example above, s/he has opted for (شد الرحال / shadda al-riḥāl – he-sat-out on-a-journey) to describe an assumed process of moving from 'Elan Valley' to 'Nantgwillt'. ST6, however, only states that Shelley stayed in two places in 1811 and 1812, first in 'the Elan Valley' then in 'Nantgwillt'. The process of moving to 'Nantgwillt' was added by the translator and rendered using an archaic rhetorical expression for having a determined intention to travel (Abdul-Munem, 1999). The expression consists of the verb (شد / shadda – pull) and the noun (الرحال / al-riḥāl), which has two senses: either saddles or other belongings people carry with them when they travel (Al-Zabidi, 1965). So pulling the camel's saddle or packing and preparing belongings indicate a determination to travel while conveying a sense of

hardship associated with travelling. These evocations are added by the translator and maintained in the revised version.

An attraction to creative and literary writing probably tempted the translator to add content that does not exist in ST6. In another example, the translator has added the adverb (ببراعة / bi-barā'ah – cleverly) to ‘penned this line’. This unjustifiable addition was removed in the revised version.

Example TT6.3.5 is also another instance where the translator opted for an inappropriate expression when translating ‘he hoped to set up a commune’. The translator rendered it as (داعبته فكره / dā'abathu fikrat – an idea flirted with him). To ‘have an idea’, however, is semantically different from ‘to hope’. Apart from the lack of equivalence of the information transferred, there is a different equivalent for the phrase ‘to be flirted with the idea of’ in English (he flirted with the idea of). Such a rendition in Arabic, however, sounds inappropriate unless constructed for rhetorical purposes, and the phrase ‘he hoped to set up a commune’ does not carry any such rhetorical elements, nor is there any other reason for it to be rendered in this way in TT6. This was amended during revision.

In example TT6.3.5, the translator has rendered ‘a very great bore’ as (مثير للضجر / muthīr li-al-ḍajar li-al-ghāyah – raising boredom immensely). The repetition of the preposition (لـ / li) in (للضجر / li-al- ḍajar) and (للغاية/ li-al-ghāyah) results in a weak structure and style in TT6a. The translator could have opted for (مُمِل للغاية / mumil li-al-ghāyah – boring immensely), which has an equivalent meaning and a more appropriate style in the TL. The reviser, however, kept the translator’s rendition, as shown above.

3.6 Language and style / Proper nouns

Example TT6.3.5 also shows how inconsistent both the translator and reviser were in providing English versions of proper nouns. For instance, the translator included English versions of the name ‘Shelley’ and the place ‘Elan Valley’, but not ‘Cwm Elan’. The reviser did not pick up on this inconsistency.

3.7 Language and style / House style: Roman vs Assyrian months

In example TT6.2.3, the translator has rendered the month ‘August’ as (أغسطس آب / augustus āb – August Av), providing both the Arabised Roman and Assyrian months together. The reviser inserted a slash in his/her version to establish the distinction between August and Av. Whether this is correct, however, is a matter of house style that should be specified in translation guidelines, which Kalima does not have.

4. Presentation and layout

In general, both versions of TT6 (TT6a and TT6b) have the same font types and sizes. The reviser, however, has made slight changes to the document margins. Changes to paragraph indentation and text alignment were made in the revised version. Indents were removed from the first lines of paragraphs and text alignment was changed from ‘justified’ to ‘left alignment’. Further, the reviser corrected paragraphing, changed text alignment and moved translator’s notes from the body of the text to footnotes.

7.8 Revision process at Kalima: Discussion and recommendations

The following section summarises the process of revision as it appears in the analysis of the revision versions of the samples of TT4, TT5, and TT6 based on Mossop’s revision parameters.

Generally speaking, the revision processes of the selected samples of the three books that have been studied here show different limitations of interference. For instance, the reviser of TT4 seemed to be very careful about addition for clarification when s/he added some lexical elements in text between brackets (see examples TT4.3.1a and TT4.1.1b). However, a number of unnecessary changes were made, such as in 3.1 in TT4, examples TT4.3.2 and TT4.3.5. Perhaps the reviser felt these improved the style, but the analysis does not support such a conclusion, suggesting that the reviser may have been tailoring the language to suit his/her own preferences rather than to the needs of the target audience. The reviser appeared to aim for naturalness of language, showing a concern to meet the needs of the audience, which is a key quality consideration under the ISO 17100 standard (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.10), and this may be considered a fresh look at the form of revision in Mossop’s

typology. These strengths are shown in the correction of genitive constructions, explicitation through using cohesiveness markers and the addition of commas.

There are also weaknesses, however, which show a lack of care by the reviser of TT4 (see TT4 analysis, subsection 3.4). This is reflected in the inconsistency in handling months, sometimes correcting them to Roman equivalents, and sometimes leaving them in Assyrian form. Since Kalima translates books that are published globally and targets all Arabic readers (see GILT 1.1.4), it should set clear style guidelines that consider the target readers of a TT. Preserving both styles together is acceptable in Arabic publications in the format (Roman/ Assyrian). For instance, the format (شباط / فبراير / fibrāyir/ shbāt – Sebat/ February) shows a frequency of 26,844 in the Arabic Web Corpus – Stanford Tagger (Sketch Engine, 2012). Further, explicitation of cohesive devices (see TT4.3.7a and TT4.3.7.b) and the correction of prepositions (see TT4 analysis, subsection 3.8), although common, are also undertaken inconsistently, so although the changes made contribute to cohesion, this is unevenly applied.

Generally, the sample of TT5a shows two major inaccuracies, with only one of them being corrected by the reviser while the other is left carelessly without correction (see TT5.1.2 and TT5.2.2). The reviser of TT5 opted for good revision strategies when dealing with problems of language and style (Mossop, 2014, p.134), such as correcting the transliteration of misspelled proper nouns, compared to how they appear in ST5, such as correcting language-related mistakes, e.g. the wrong use of the preposition (ك / k) as (كاف الاستقصاء / kāf al-istiḡāʿ), and changing sentence structures as per Arabic syntax conventions (from nominal to verbal) (see the examples presented in subsections 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5 of the TT5 analysis). However, the reviser seemed to be losing his/her stamina and correcting terms inconsistently, leaving some spelling mistakes with no correction (see 3.1 in TT5 and example TT5.2.5c).

The process of revision involves many unnecessary changes, such as substituting equal lexis (see examples TT5.1.1, TT5.3.2a and TT5.3.2b). These unnecessary efforts, which are most probably due to personal preferences, could have been avoided. Moreover, the reviser should have left them in order to maintain the authenticity of the translator's work and decision-making during the translation process. Similar changes by the reviser neglect the translator's decision-making and

choice of words, such as opting for ‘metres’ as a more frequent measurement unit for target readers than ‘feet’ in the TL (see examples TT5.2.3 and TT5.3.4c). Testing some of the reviser’s changes in a language corpus in comparison with the translator’s renditions shows that the reviser’s choices were arguably incorrect (see examples TT5.2.3 and TT5.3.4c). Some mistakes left out show that the reviser should have paid more attention when reading TT5 as an independent unit (see TT5.3.5c).

TT6a is characterised by two specific areas of weakness. First, it has weaknesses in achieving its purpose of providing factual information to the same extent as ST6, with failures in transferring information fully and accurately in examples TT6.1.1b, TT6.1.1c, and TT6.1.1d. The reviser was effective in remedying these particular failures in examples TT6.1.1b and TT6.1.1d, but not TT6.1.1c, which resulted in false information being disseminated. In addition, the translator added information that went beyond what was in ST6 in examples TT6.1.1a and TT6.1.3, and this was not corrected by the reviser in TT6.1.1a. The second major weakness was in maintaining the tone of voice of ST6. The translator added rhetorical elements more suited to literary works than the formal and factual style of ST6. Instances of such inappropriate language were presented in examples TT6.1.1a and TT6.2.3. The reviser dealt with them in some instances, like in TT6.2.3, but did not remove them in others, like in TT6.1.1a. Further, the reviser sometimes made inappropriate lexical choices (examples TT6.3.1 and TT6.2.3).

While the reviser of TT6 did make efforts to improve cohesion, the results were imperfect (see example TT6.3.3 and subsection 3.4 in TT6 analysis). The revision may have improved the language and style more effectively than it appeared to improve the accuracy of the text, but it was still inconsistent and imperfect (see subsection 2.5 in TT6 analysis).

The degree of revision performed in the three texts (TT4, TT5, and TT6) is unclear and inconsistent. This could possibly be due to the absence of translation or revision briefs. As suggested by Künzli (2007, 54), such absence may leave revisers unconfident about the parameters to follow or aspects to focus on. For instance, the reviser appeared to check the TT4 against ST4 only at some points (TT4.3.1a and TT4.1.1b) and not others (see examples TT4.1.1a, TT4.2.1a and TT4.2.2). Part of

the explanation of the unevenness may be due to the reviser changing his/her strategy and deciding to reduce the number of changes s/he made to the TT. This is apparent from Figure 19 below, which summarises the frequency of reviser changes to TT4 as the document progressed. Figure 19 shows the number of changes declining on later pages, except for pages 15 and 22. This is consistent with the finding that the reviser appeared to check for consistency with the ST4 in some instances but not in others, in the examples cited above. This could indicate that the process is one of revision called unilingual re-reading (Mossop, 2014, p.229) as opposed to revision defined by ISO 17100 (BSI, 2015), except perhaps when obvious contradictions or problematic sections prompt the reviser to check the TT against the ST. The reason for the change of strategy is not clear but may be due to informal guidance from colleagues, tiredness, loss of concentration, time constraints, a decision that the changes were insufficiently important and too common to be worth the time and effort, or possibly a belief that it would be the proofreader's or editor's job to make such corrections.

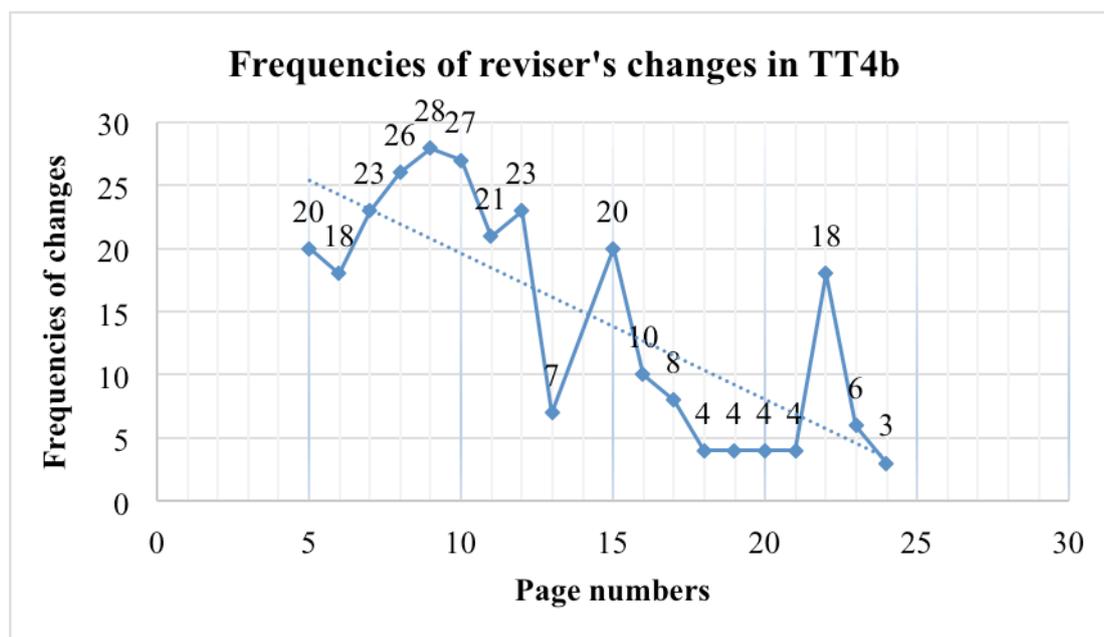


Figure 19: Frequencies of Reviser's changes in TT4b

The same applies to the revision process of TT5 where the reviser appeared to lose stamina as s/he brought in further corrections (See 3.1 in TT5 analysis). Figure 20

below shows the frequencies of reviser's changes over the pages. Although the analysis above exposed inconsistencies of corrections and changes, Figure 20 indicates a consistent average of performance throughout the pages. In this case, the reviser should have employed the word- processing features of 'find' and 'replace' for consistent changes of spelling mistakes.

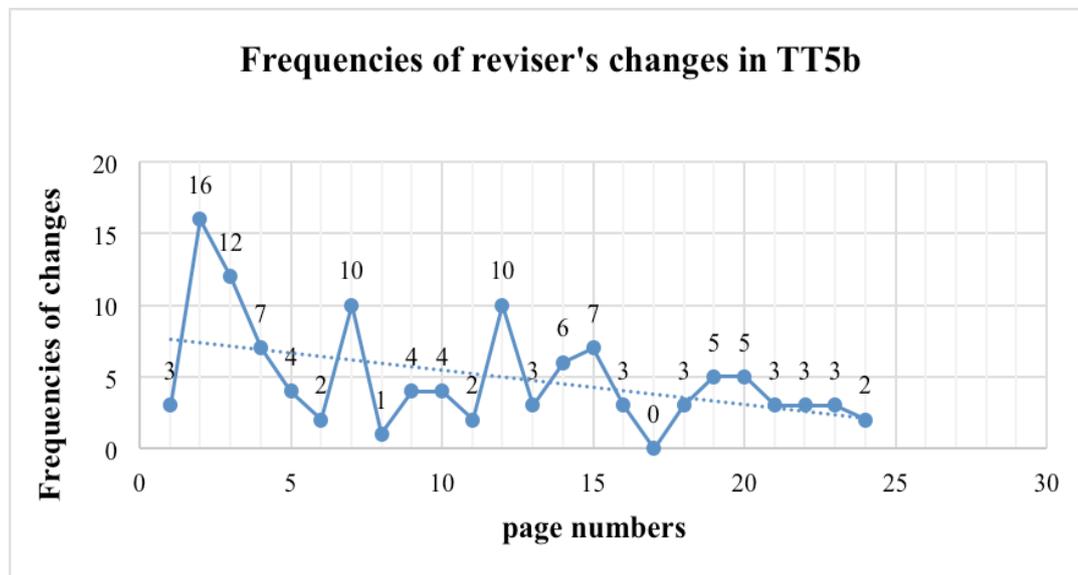


Figure 20: Frequencies of reviser's changes in TT5b

Revisers' changes to TT4 and TT5 were tracked manually based on the error levels mentioned in the analysis. When comparing the two versions (pre-revised and post-revised) in the Word document [Tools > track changes > compare document], the results show that the revisers applied these changes directly on the softcopy documents of TT4b and TT5, and mostly at the word and sentence level. This is unlike the case of TT6a, where major changes were made by the reviser at the paragraph level. Comparing the two versions (TT6a and TT6b) in Microsoft Word software implies that paragraphs in the selected sample were completely changed except in pages (10, 14, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 24, and 25), as illustrated in the graph below (Figure 21). This process would have been interpreted as re-translating unless IP4 confirmed it as 'revising'.

Although the process of revision adopted in TT6 cannot be seen as analogous to the process of revising TT4 and TT5, as the former is more a case of re-writing and re-translating, the reviser's stamina in the case of TT6 appeared to have been lost as

s/he moved forward. For instance, unchanged words increased significantly from 19 to 138 by the time page 24 was reached (Figure 21).

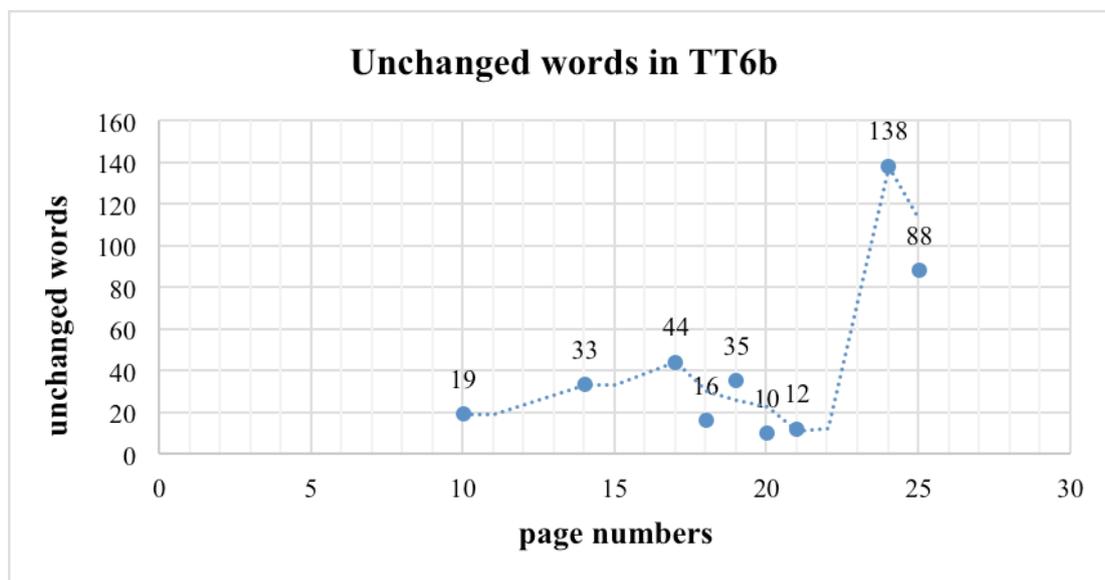


Figure 21: Unchanged words in TT6b

Generally, the presentation of the three texts was largely unchanged. All of their revisers, however, took reasonable care with the appearance for the target audience by removing empty spaces, increasing the font size to 14, increasing the line-spacing and amending margins. The presentation and layout of TT6 were improved more effectively than the language elements of the revision. For instance, the revised presentation was more closely in accordance with the ST6 (in terms of paragraphing and footnotes). The effort required to improve the presentation was far less than that for revising the language, style or content, with much of the execution automated by word-processing programmes rather than requiring line-by-line attention. However, the decision to change the presentation of footnotes and the attention to paragraph breaks does show an appropriate degree of effort and care on the part of the reviser.

8. Chapter Eight: Proposed Framework for CSF in TSPs

Chapter Five provided a detailed analysis of the general survey and interviews, whereas Chapters Six and Seven provided in-depth text-analysis of Kalima's proofreading, editing, and revision procedures. Chapter Eight now presents and discusses the proposed framework of critical success factors (CSFs) for implementing Total Quality Management (TQM) in translation service providers (TSPs) in the UAE. This framework integrates the findings concluded from the data analysed in Chapters Five, Six, and Seven.

8.1 Framework defined

A framework is a set of ideas, workflow or principles that are based on a judgment or decision. It helps in supporting and structuring a system in an elaborative and constructive manner. A detailed framework can facilitate execution of TQM by presenting ideas, models and plans and can help organisations to set guidelines in an effective manner with dynamic and resourceful results (Dale *et al.*, 2016, pp.59-60). Zairi and Yousef (1995, p.6) argue that a framework is very helpful for the organisation to improve work quality as it provides a clear idea of communication, vision and strategic objectives. At the same time, it addresses the substantial list of issues to be countered in terms of quality improvement; and, most importantly, it helps to implement the suggested model or idea to be implemented in the organisation. In the essence of this research, a quality improvement plan has been proposed through a framework to enable the organisation to improve its critical success factors (CSFs) for more efficient and effective performance.

8.2 Proposing a framework for implementing by TSPs in the UAE

The proposed TQM framework is an effort to establish quality improvement plans in the TSPs of the UAE by improving the management, procedures and processes in a coherent manner. Considering the setting in the UAE, one of the major issues encountered during the research was an informal structure characterising the

organisations whereby officials, particularly the top managers, had very limited commitment towards achieving objectives. One of the major reasons for this attitude is that the TSPs being researched are operating merely to deliver an ambitious target quantity of translations without a clear strategy or approach. An effective implementation of TQM should include all levels of the organisation in order to impact the organisational performance; as Reid and Sanders (2016, p.137) argue, TQM is “an integrated organizational effort designed to improve quality at every level”, but at the same time it is important for organisations to look for valuable changes whose impact works as a catalyst for organisational performance.

Considering the holistic aspect of the TQM concept as a management philosophy that attempts to integrate all an organisation’s functions, human and material resources effectively to meet its objectives (Mehra *et al.*, 2001 p.855; Dale and Smith, 1997, pp.307-311), the proposed framework by the researcher addresses managerial, structural, and procedural problems in TSPs in the UAE. This incorporation encompasses the prominent aspects of TSPs, considering their project and process based nature which resulted in forming the existing culture, structure, and operations.

The framework is proposed in the view of the TQM philosophy as established in literature by the quality gurus, namely Deming (1986/2000), Crosby (1980), Juran (1988), and Feigenbaum (1991/2005) (see 3.1.2); and as conceived in the different models of implementing TQM such as the EFQM Excellence Model (see 3.1.8), while taking into account the extant studies on identifying the CSFs for implementing TQM such as Talib and Rahman’s model for the service organisations (2010) (see 3.2.4).

This framework therefore integrates the CSFs, which are identified from the study (see Chapters Five, Six, and Seven) as explained below:

8.2.1 Factor 1: Leadership commitment and strategic directions (Leadership)

To ensure quality processes, the first element for successful implementation of TQM and quality practices is having clear objectives and mission to follow. As mentioned above (see 5.4), the aims and objectives of the TSPs that were studied are defined; however, any planning for a persistent and consistent mode of operation that clearly

defines goals and leadership commitment is absent. Clearly, this was due to less accountability and the prevalence of a bureaucratic culture, as reflected in the interview process. To overcome this problem, in order to improve the quality of work, leadership commitment with clear aims and objectives has to be defined.

Deming (1982) in his approach to TQM also shares the same viewpoint and argues that leadership plays a crucial role in the success of the quality of work, as it communicates the vision to the company that sets a clear roadmap to follow. This can be achieved through strategic and leadership commitment by the top managers. Top management should develop a string of management processes that is aligned with the objectives of the organisations to establish an effective structural and efficient procedural workflow. Indeed, this is a point that has been argued by various authors in different literatures (Dale *et al.*, 2016; Oakland, 2003; Besterfield, 2004). Management leadership is considered to be the fundamental principle determining the success of an organisation in TQM terms. Top-level managers foster the culture of the organisation through their commitment, policy and systems in use that allow for improved results.

Interestingly, top-level managers are central to the proposed framework. This is contradictory to other setups in which employees are central to the organisation, and then roots protrude out towards top managers so that they may have a monitoring system to look for quality improvement purposes. The case is different here due to the absence of any clear process and structure. Thus, top-level managers who are decision-makers need to take drastic steps to establish an organisation with a clear perspective and mission. The management can start by establishing a quality council to implement a quality improvement plan of three levels, focusing on the most critical issues starting from the centre of the model and expanding outwards, as presented in Figure 22.

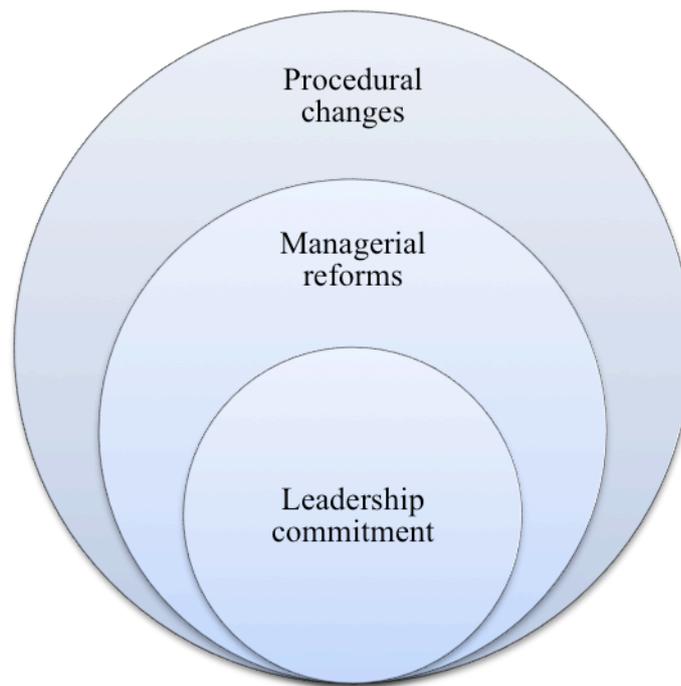


Figure 22: Three levels of change towards TQM in TSPs (developed by the researcher for this research)

8.2.2 Factor 2: Structural and functional management (managerial aspects)

The analysis of the data reveals that TSPs in the UAE have some gaps in management roles. The analysis shows that resource planning was not in balance with the TSPs' objectives owing to the lack of clear organisational structure (see 5.3.1.1 and 5.4.3.2). Nevertheless, roles and positions were defined in terms of titles, but the responsibilities for most of the positions were not specified. The findings also show that many employees have no idea about their development plan (see 5.4.1.5 and 5.4.3.7); if there is local relevant training available and employees are interested, s/he is enrolled from the organisation into the training. Moreover, during the current study on TSPs in the UAE, one of the major problems encountered is the absence of a development process in terms of its optimal execution that provides a rationale of resource allocation. The project managers, for instance, start a project without identifying its specifications. Therefore the researcher below recommends a dramatic improvement from managerial perspectives which, in turn, leads to the improvement of translation services.

The second factor of the proposed framework is the structural and functional management of the organisation, particularly in terms of resource management. The Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK) discusses various processes, techniques and philosophies for allocating the resources in the right manner in order to develop the process in project management (PMI, 2008). However, project management is a broad term and contains a lot of functions and processes that incorporate resource management, cost and financial management, organisational structures, flow process and project management tools. Optimising these functions, however, cannot be achieved unless an authoritative position is fully involved.

The framework suggests that TSPs in the UAE need to focus on the organisation's strategy and resource management in order to optimise financial, technical and human resources to deliver an efficient and effective quality of work. In this regard, there should be an appointment of a 'portfolio manager' as per the term proposed by Giammarresi (2011, p.22) to address the overall strategy of the project's execution and effective utilization of the resources to balance risk and value of work. 'Portfolio' is the total "representation of the organization's intent, direction, and progress" (PMI, 2013, p.3). Portfolio Manager bridges the gap between strategy and execution, or in other words, between top-level management and low-level management. Portfolio manager will, therefore, have a huge responsibility in terms of approving or rejecting the projects, allocating the resources both financial and human for each project to ensure an optimal max of high-quality translation based on the defined strategy and goals.

Many TSPs have expanded their translation functions in the past decade with a focus on producing a higher quantity of translated work to enhance productivity, profit and knowledge. In essence, most of the individuals who had experience in the translation industry were appointed as project managers to plan, analyse, implement and control the project. However, although their experience is extensive in translation work, it has limited knowledge of the viability of the project from managerial perspectives. Since the TSPs studied are non-profit organisations, the business perspective is dwarfed as there is no financial profit which the companies are looking to grow. Kalima, for

instance, as a non-profit translation organisation, gives importance to the quantity of translated content, as its mission is to enrich the Arabic content. The project manager's main concern is to meet the target of completing the translation of 100 books every year. This leads to a system where selection of books is conducted without a deliberate and careful consideration of their value in line with the organisational objectives. For instance, the researcher was surprised during an interview visit to one of these TSPs when a participant told her that she was welcome to choose any book of her choice and that the TSPs would publish it for her. This was not preceded by any kind of assessment of the researcher's translation competence other than knowing that she was a translator. This totally underlines the degree to which book selection is not properly regulated.

As explained earlier in Factor 1, clear strategic goals need to be implemented. Further, for execution and achievement of goals that align with the objective of the organisation, a specialist needs to be placed in the organisation to monitor from a managerial function in order to improve the quality of work by rationally selecting the product based on the strategic objectives of the company, as well as allocate the financial, technical and human roles. PMBOK[®] guide (PMI 2008) extensively details this role and specifies a term - *Project Portfolio Management* - defined as the "centralized management of one or more portfolios that enable executive management to meet organisational goals and objectives through efficient decision making on portfolios, projects, programs and operations" (PMI, 2008, p.367). This means that portfolio management is the process of optimal resource allocation in order to achieve corporate product goals (Cooper *et al.*, 2001, p.1).

The term portfolio management is a financial term borrowed from the investment industry, where the portfolio manager's main role is to monitor the ROI (return on investment) related to each project in terms of human and financial resources, risk assessment, time consumption and technological analysis (Giammarresi, 2011, p.26). Portfolio management is also important to non-profit organisations such as those studied in this research as its surplus fund is used to maintain the organisation's goals in the long run (PMI, 2013, p.1). However, the concept of portfolio management is most

probably new to the translation industry, in which functional procedures are broadly controlled by the project manager as an add-on function. In fact, among non-profit TSPs in the UAE, there is hardly any method to understand and assess the value of the project against its investment due to the absence of any monetary benefit. Thus, the current framework recommends a resource manager or project portfolio manager to be employed in the TSP to bridge the distance between top level executives and project teams, as framed in Figure 23 below:

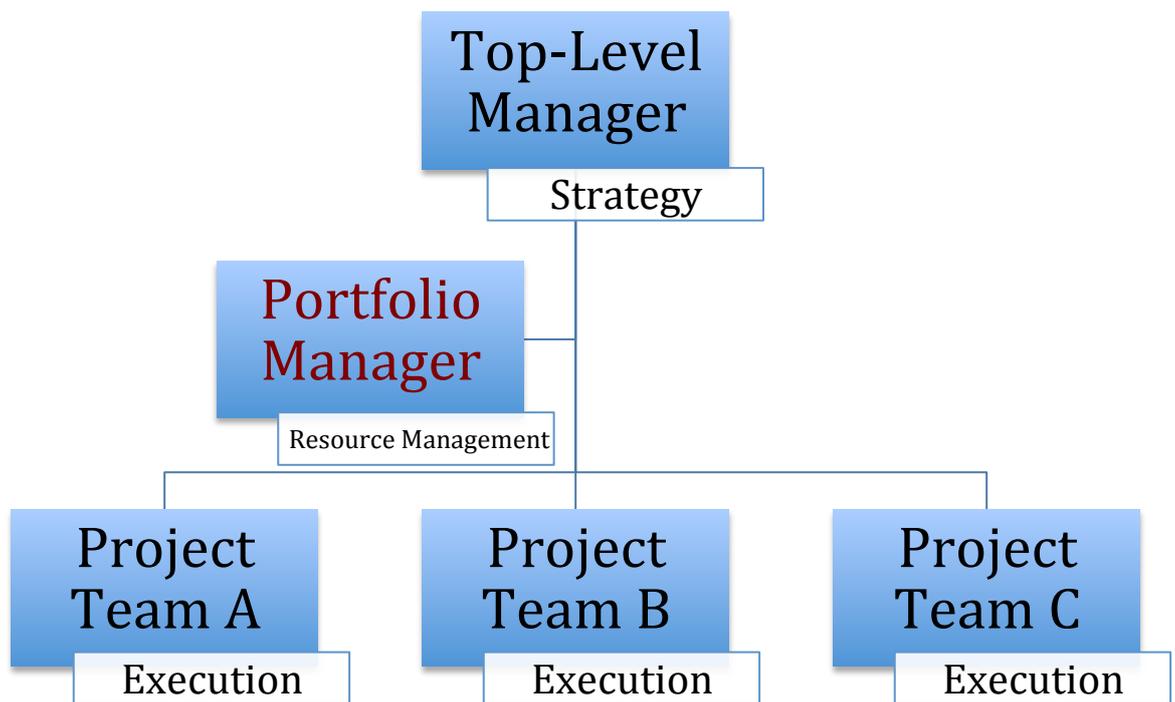


Figure 23: Portfolio Manager as a mediator between top-level management and project execution

Project portfolio manager will help in planning a balanced and optimised product that is aligned with the strategic goals of the corporation. However, there could be an argument that such functions can be performed by project managers who are already placed in many TSPs, but that would not be the ideal case. One of the most prominent reasons for this is the lack of managerial experience or expertise on the part of project managers who look into the work more from a translation and linguistic perspective and focus on improving the translator's work instead of considering the viability of a

product on which huge investment is being spent. Moreover, project managers scrutinise the details of each component in each individual product which has a fixed start and end date; whereas portfolio management takes a broader perspective and focuses on the contribution that each product takes in fulfilling the company's goals and objectives in the longer term (PMI, 2013, p.1).

8.2.2.1 Role and Duties of the Product Portfolio Manager

Giammarresi (2011, p.43) lists six drivers for a portfolio manager in localisation projects: strategy, risk, resource allocation, value, phase-end reviews and portfolio review.

Strategy

An organisation's strategy is determined by the top-level management (PMI, 2013, p.21) as a roadmap and a "guiding philosophy" to pursue goals or transitions of a given culture (Tennant, 2014, 35). Portfolio management centres around strategy as per Cooper *et al.* (2001, p.7), who argue that this is one of the key ways to operationalise business strategy. In TSPs, portfolio managers would make sure that selection of projects and resources fit the organisation's strategy (Giammarresi, 2011, p.43). The decisions on which projects are to be prioritised based on urgency and resource allocation needs a high-level approach of thinking which can link the product strategy and product management. Such balancing, as per McGrath (2004, p.299), is termed as a "strategic balancing". The need for clear directions is one of the major issues uncovered in the analysis and a critical success factor of the studied TSPs in the UAE (e. g.: 5.4.2.4. and 5.4.3.4). Therefore, setting a clear strategy will allow clearer decision making process. Having a portfolio manager would bring this strategy into play by efficiently investing all resources in a sustainable approach towards a continuous achievement of the organisation's objectives.

Risk Assessment

Giammarresi argues that the main risk in a localisation's project lies in the absence or lack of defined requirements for a given project (2011, p.28). It is the role of the portfolio manager to identify the risks associated with the execution of projects. In the

case of Kalima, for instance, the main risks are associated with translating the 100 books a year to a high standard. Failure can be avoided by means of previously defining the requirements of producing translated books. This in turn can be achieved by assessing all risks associated with translating and publishing books regarding budget, copyrights, linguists' competency, and printing. In this regard, Brentani argues that a portfolio manager's competence lies in his/her ability to assess risks (Brentani, 2004, p.xii). This can be added to his/her ability to respond immediately to any deviations from the organisation's goals. For Kalima, for instance, portfolio management should have a backup plan for delays in meeting deadlines or receiving a translation of bad quality such as having planned for extra books, having a ready list of titles in case of any delays associated with copyright acquisition or censorship approvals. Moreover, dealing with several printing companies for printing a given title would avoid disappointments regarding delays or production quality. Furthermore, investing in web-based software for collaborated and agile teamwork would minimise risks. For instance, the reviser could notify the translator in the early stages of translation if there is a terminological or conceptual error. This would effectively minimise risks of mistranslation. An optimal management of resources, which is an essential skill of the portfolio manager (Maynard, 2015, p.165), would also avoid the need for ADACH (the parent authority of Kalima) to take future action to cut funding due to excessive spending on unsatisfactory translations.

Resource allocation

Resource allocation is another important task that needs to be monitored and controlled by the portfolio manager (Giammarresi, 2011, p.43). One of the benefits of portfolio management in terms of resource management is that it helps an organisation to optimally utilise its resources, that is, finances, technologies and human resources in order to gain the maximum benefit to the organisation as a whole (Rad and Levin, 2006, p.14). An efficient allocation of resources by the portfolio manager will help in completing the projects in a timely and efficient manner with optimised utilization of the resources. The finding in this research indicates that Kalima, for instance, struggles

with its limited allocated resources for the in-house team to coordinate the management of 100 titles a year.

Although Kalima has met its target every year since its foundation, the text-analysis showed major translation problems related to linguists' incompetence (who might have been selected for the job based on inadequate budgeting), inconsistent work (probably due to unallocated resources for management and functional tools, e.g. terminology database and CAT tools), and a heavy workload falling on the shoulders of limited in-house human resources (who probably do not have time to develop internal guidelines). Moreover, resource allocation will provide opportunities to look into development of the organisation by focusing, for instance, on development through innovation and relevant training. Such training and development is the problem most attributed in terms of quality of work; thus there should be a specific budget for employees to develop and cope with the new relevant technologies. However, the decision of selecting and aligning the budget for such projects must have a high authority that can be well tackled by the portfolio manager. Unavailability of adequate and sufficient resources leads to delays in projects, incomplete work, and low organisational performance. Moreover, it is important to rationalise the management of budgets or human resources in order to avoid losses.

Value

Giammarresi (2011, p.44) listed value as one of the important aspects of portfolio management. In translation, the portfolio manager should understand the value of the projects for the targeted readership so it is aligned with the financial benefits to the organisation. This aspect is more applicable to for-profit organisations where the investments are directly related to financial benefits and valuation of the project is made. Giammarresi (2011, p.44-45) states that "portfolio managers and senior executives must clearly understand the relative value of localized products in different locales". However, in the case of non-profit TSPs in the UAE, the portfolio manager should make sure the selected projects do not contradict with the financial returns, which are used to help them pursue their goals.

Reviews: phase-end review and portfolio review

Portfolio management is a process that aims at continuous development and should be implemented based on defined criteria and objectives (Grinold and Kahn, 1995, p.364). In the context of managing TSPs, Giammarresi (2011, p.45) argues that portfolio management is a process which is carried out by means of “phase-end reviews”. These reviews are developed at the end phase of each production to check the “appropriateness of the resource allocation and strategic fit” (ibid., p.45). This review assesses whether the decisions taken during the project are aligned with the strategic objectives with a clear rationale. Giammarresi describes this as a bottom-up approach that helps to engage the lower level managers more (2011, p.45). In translation, such reviews would help in optimising the requirements of the procedural and functional aspects with the resources allocation and aligning it with the overall strategy. In the case of Kalima, for instance, a detailed phase-end review for revision (as a phase) would determine the appropriate time (as a resource) to complete any future revision processes. These small phase-end reviews are developed towards writing up an in-depth ***portfolio review*** two to four times a year (Cooper *et al.*, 2011, p.274). Contrary to the former, this review is more of a top-down approach in which the portfolio manager reviews all the projects, completed, under process and planned in order to prioritise or speed up the mandatory projects (Giammarresi, 2014, p.45). During this review, the portfolio manager can divert resources from a less profitable or optional project to more profitable projects. In extreme cases, projects which seem to be wasting a lot of resources can be cancelled by the portfolio managers in the best interest of the company. Such drastic decisions have to be from top-level managers, in the view that most of the TSPs studied in the UAE adopt vertical organisational structures. Thus implementing such structure will help to improve the functions of the organisation and enhance the quality of work by TSPs in the UAE in the long run by eliminating errors and bringing up consistency of quality at all stages.

8.2.3 Factor 3: Procedural aspects

The following model for procedural changes has been developed by the researcher based on text-analysis findings (see Chapters Six and Seven), as well as drawing from

some of the most relevant (even if not context-specific) existing models and frameworks, as briefly presented in Chapter Three and further reviewed in the precedent paragraph, namely the Business Performance Improvement Resource (BPIR) model, and the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) Excellence Model.

The suggested model therefore sets a precedent in regards to Yusof and Aspinwall's categorization of TQM implementation projects (Yusof and Aspinwall, 2000, pp.286-289). As briefly reviewed in Chapter Three, this categorisation splits TQM projects into three categories, namely expert-based frameworks, award-based frameworks and academic-based frameworks. However, the present model is unique in that it brings about a core perspective: the creation of value of procedural excellence, around which the key six constructs revolve.

The procedural model revolves around the creation of procedural excellence as its core focus, and is built on six main constructs, visualised in the shape of a hexagon, as shown in Figure 24. These six key constructs are expected to act synergistically, so as to ensure a closed loop cycle of high quality delivery and continuous improvement at the process level (Alhashmi, 2016, p.7). The six constructs are:



Figure 24: The proposed model for the six constructs for procedural excellence in TSPs, published by the researcher (Alhashmi, 2016, p.7)

‘Reliability’ refers to ensuring that TSPs select the most competent and skilled linguists, management and technical support team members to work together in view of clearly identifying and matching the final delivery request by achieving the best results within the set timeframe. These factors are paramount for the success of TQM implementation in the organisation, and will be the ones ensuring successful future projects, good appraisals from internal commissioners (in the case of non-profit TSPs), and consequently good reviews and satisfaction on the part of TTs users (readers).

‘Excellence’ stands for ‘operational excellence’ and refers to establishing a supportive organisational culture for TQM, focusing on teamwork, setting prevention-based systems that assure minimising errors and preventing repeating mistakes by means of introducing clear internally developed guidelines, translation briefs, TTs specifications and localisation-related standardisation systems such as ISO 17100:2015, and the ISO11669: 2012.

‘Performance’ stands for ‘Commitment and performance’ and means to set strategic plans towards attaining the organisation’s vision and mission, and must be led and aligned with corporate strategy and leadership. It should focus on creating the condition internally to have in-house and freelance employees proud to contribute their skills and expertise with a view to achieving the identified goals of the organisation. An appropriate appraisal and reward system must also be in place in the organisation to fully sustain these achievements.

‘Human Capital’ stands for ‘Learning and knowledge management for enabling human capital’ and refers to putting in place the total involvement of the employees and ensuring the full commitment of the managers. To fully achieve this, it is essential that the organisation considers educating and training employers/employees about the concepts of TQM and providing them with the requisite training for implementation, setting a prevention-based system that assures minimising errors and productive tracking by means of introducing clear guidelines and parameters for each procedural stage.

‘Transparency’ stands for ‘Transparency in communication across the organisation’ and focuses on attaining the organisation’s vision and mission by means of continuously operating with clear-cut responsibilities and commitment for both employees and managers, relying on transparent and well-defined communication channels to ensure the total involvement of the employees and making each team member accountable for their own actions.

‘Innovation’ stands for ‘Innovation and agility’. It requires a combination of human capital skills and expertise, reliable and highly performing processes and supportive technology, alongside a continuous assessment and quick innovative response to translation procedural issues and challenges.

8.2.3.1 Procedural changes required at Kalima

The following discusses the required procedural changes under the proposed model of the six constructs for procedural excellence: (1) reliability, (2) technical excellence, (3) commitment and performance, (4) human capital, (5) transparency, and (6) innovation.

The required procedural changes here are perceived through issues raised by text analysis of the proofreading and revision processes (TT1, TT2, TT3, TT4, TT5, and TT6) of Kalima. Such issues may vary, however, from one TSP to another. However, the suggestions involved below apply to TSPs of a similar context and environment to that of Kalima.

1. Reliability

The text analysis exposed different areas of reliability, as discussed below:

Terms and concepts of human resources

Concepts and terms regarding the assigned jobs in the process of producing the translated text are not established. The revision analysis of TT4 exposed a number of major inaccuracies and mistranslations that were left without corrections due to the inconsistent process of comparing the TT4 against the ST4 (for examples see TT4.1.1a, TT4.2.2). In some instances, the revision process of the TT4 seemed to be isolated from referring to the ST4 as a yardstick. Instead of opting for a revision in the comparative sense, the reviser probably opted for what Mossop termed ‘unilingual re-reading’ – revising the translation alone without referring to its ST unless a passage or sentence happens to be nonsensical (Mossop, 2014, p.229) (see examples TT4.1.1 and TT4.1.2). Unlike revision of TT5, the reviser’s corrections under the transfer and content parameters indicate that s/he opted for revision in the comparative sense (See examples TT5.1.1 and TT5.2.3). However, inaccuracies in content and transfer of TT5 were neglected carelessly, showing the translator’s inability to maintain his/her stamina (see examples TT5.1.2 and TT5.2.2). On the other hand, the revision analysis of TT6 shows that the adopted concept of revision was a mix of ‘unilingual’ and ‘comparative’. In some parts, the reviser tended to re-translate and paraphrase 95%²³ of the translation

²³ The researcher calculated the reviser’s changes by comparing the two documents (TT6a and TT6b) through Tools> Track changes> Compare documents.

(see Figure 21), while correcting inaccuracies and mistranslations based on the ST6 (see example TT6.2.2 and TT6.3.1). In other parts, s/he left out some of these inaccuracies and mistranslations probably due to their constant presence in the translation, which resulted in losing focus and being distracted. Thus, it becomes very important to adopt specialised standardisation documents such as the ISO 17100: 2015 that include the relevant and requisite terms for TSPs and eliminate any ambiguity that might be encountered as a result of relative conceptions of such terms being applied in different institutional settings. Alternatively, terms such as revision, proofreading and editing could be established internally by middle-management (project managers) so as to maintain the maximum level of consistency throughout the process of revision, which reflects a consistent quality of translation over the longer term.

Identifying tasks

The reviser of TT6 changed 95% of the translator's work. The effort and time spent in revising this translation could have been saved if the project manager had provided a translation brief and selected the right translator for the task. The huge percentage of changes carried out by the reviser raises the question of the reviser's limits on being able to interfere to improve the TT. The reviser's contributions in assuring the quality of the text should value the authenticity of the translator's effort. Alaoui (2016) lists a number of revision principles. In this regard, he states that revisers should not accept any translated work of a clearly poor standard of translation, which should be sent straight back to the translators. Additionally, changes in the revision process should not be in the form of rewriting translation or justified for "personal taste" (ibid., p.4). Rather, these changes should be in proportion to the translation brief. Furthermore, working in a more agile workflow as suggested in 5.5.1 would address some of these issues. For instance, the reviser could discuss problematic translation issues with the translator that arise at the early stages of working on the project so they can be avoided in later stages. This in turn would increase the effectiveness and efficiency of the translation project.

Workflow drawbacks

The process of proofreading in Kalima does not refer to the STs for comparison (Kalima, interview, June 2014). According to Kalima, the main reason behind proofreading is to enhance the readability of the TT from the TL perspectives lexically, syntactically, textually and stylistically. In some cases it appears the proofreaders could have benefited from access to the ST. This could be avoided if instead there was a revision process prior to proofreading. Under the current workflow of Kalima, translations go directly from translation to proofreading unless proofreaders ask for revision. However, the proofreaders at Kalima are not bilingual, so they would not be able to spot inaccuracies or incompleteness in the translation unless the text is checked against its ST.

Qualifications and competences

Qualifications denote academic and professional background, while competence in the British standards terms is the “ability to apply knowledge, experience, and skills to achieve intended results” (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.4). Unconsidered practices of outsourcing professionals for commissioning tasks waste the time and resources of the TSPs. A good evaluation of the potentials of the commissioned professionals by identifying their expertise, strengths and weaknesses is crucial for the performance of the TSPs and the quality of their services. Kalima needs to regulate the process of outsourcing based on established international standards for the qualifications and competences required for translators, revisers, and proofreaders. Such criteria are available in ISO 17100 (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.6). The analysis of the proofreading shows that proofreaders annotated their comments and corrections in handwriting on paper. The annotated version is sent to a typist to apply them to the word processing. The typist then sends his/her version back to the proofreader to make sure all annotations are entered accurately. This process of back and forth could have been saved in terms of time and resources if the proofreader had the technical competence that would allow him/her to complete the job without involving another party. The senior proofreader at Kalima states that Kalima outsources proofreaders. However, Kalima deals with 12 dedicated proofreaders with whom it is satisfied. In this case

Kalima could invest in training them to master the required technical skills and save the typist's task.

The quality of translation reflected in the revision analysis indicates that the current evaluation metric (sample of translation), which Kalima adopts as a criterion for the translators/revisers competencies, should be reconsidered. Rather than counting on broad and unclear standards and subjective views, Kalima should probably evaluate the translation samples against an established detailed error typology and consider relevant training and qualifications. A senior editor at Kalima is of the view that the translation sample is the only way to determine the quality of the translation and reflect the translator's competence level. Specialised qualifications in translation do not necessarily make a good translator (IP4), so a bilingual engineer can be assigned by Kalima to translate a book on engineering. However, the quality of analysed translation in this study reflected many inaccuracies that may put the competencies of the hired translators or reviser in question. It can be argued that an engineer who is fluent and eloquent in both SL and TL with no relevant academic qualifications in translation, yet has practiced translation for long time²⁴, is capable of providing an excellent translated text in the field of engineering. This however can happen only in very rare cases, especially in the absence of any translation brief.

The revision analysis shows that the revisers, in some instances, were lacking the full ability to realise the semantic differences among synonyms in the TT (see examples TT4.1.1, TT6.2.3, and TT4.3.1a as discussed in section 2.2 of TT4). Beside the segmental aspect of semantics, realising semantic connotations textually is important in revision just as it is in translation. Some examples (see example TT4.1.2) indicate the significance of a reviser's textual involvement and comprehension which goes beyond revision in the sense of line-by-line comparison. ISO 17100 specifies that a competent reviser, beside a translator, should deliver a translation that is accurate semantically in

²⁴ The industry standards of ISO 17100: 2015 (translation services – requirements for translation services) state that one of the translator's qualifications could be determined by completing a minimum of "five years of full-time professional experience in translating" (BSI 17100, 2015, p6).

the TL (BSI ISO 17100, 2015, p.10). Semantic accuracy-related decision-making should consider aspects such as the text-type and required register. These are important to the reviser, as well as the translator, and should be specified in a translation brief.

The analysed revision process exposed the fact that translators as well as revisers should have technical competence which enables them to use the technical resources to improve the quality and maintain the consistency of the translation. Some of the choices at the terminological levels could have been improved if the translators or revisers employed online language corpora (e.g. <https://www.sketchengine.co.uk>). Spelling mistakes, for instance, could have been avoided at the translation stage if translators had applied the auto-spelling check that is available in word- processing software. Consistency of corrected terms could have also been achieved by using useful functions of word processing such as [Find + Replace]. Such issues could have also been notified by Kalima in detailed guidelines, to be read carefully prior to commencing any translation/revision.

Translating lengthy texts sometimes tends to be a monotonous task in which translators as well as revisers and proofreaders could lose stamina and therefore consistency. This was apparent in the revision process of TT4, 5, and 6 as discussed in Chapter Seven. Consistent stamina is one of the important skills and competencies for translators, revisers, proofreaders and editors. In this regard, the researcher recommends opting for the following strategies: (1) breaking the task into chunks, whether it be chapters or sections of chapters. This could promote momentum towards completing the task with the same consistency of stamina; (2) working according to intervals. For examples, 20 minutes of work to 5 minutes break. This is relative and should be determined by the professionals themselves. The top-manager should also consider this issue since it is only human nature to lose stamina and patience when completing such lengthy tasks; (3) setting clear guidelines that specify clearly the tasks expected from them. This will stress their accountability for achieving the tasks and restrain them from getting distracted by other errors that could be corrected by their colleagues. For revisers, for instance, getting engrossed in minor tasks such as language and style-related corrections isolates the reviser gradually from the ST and consumes his/her stamina; (4) offering

monetary incentives for maintaining quality of translation and avoiding inaccuracies, mistranslations, inconsistencies. Of course this should be specified based on shared and agreed upon criteria for what makes a good translation for Kalima. In the context of outsourcing, such as in the case of Kalima, (5) promising translators, revisers, or proofreaders, who are outsourced, to get more tasks in the future if the task is delivered as required.

2. Technical Excellence

Setting preventive systems for translation is important to support the organisational culture of TQM. In this regard, the text analysis revealed many problematic issues related to the absence of a translation brief, identified house style, and clear guidance and standards at Kalima.

Translation brief

Unfortunately, Kalima does not provide translation briefs to their translators or revisers. The translator of TT6 opted for metaphorical expressions (see example TT6.2.3 as discussed in 2.1 of TT6) resulting in what Kalima described as a ‘bad translation’. However, the same translator might, arguably, deliver a ‘good translation’ in Kalima’s terms, if s/he was given a literary text rather than a technical one. The translation brief is important as it regulates the process of selecting the right translator for the right job. It works also as a crucial yardstick upon which translators, revisers and editors make harmonizing decisions.

House style

In transliteration, the proofreaders of Kalima are not expected to compare the Arabic TTs to their STs, which makes them difficult to correct. One strategy is to include the original English spelling alongside transliterations. If Kalima accepts this strategy in one unit, it should be maintained throughout all units (books) published under its name

for house style consistency. However, Kalima states in its proofreading guidelines that consistency should be maintained at the unit level only. In transliterating initials, determining what strategy to opt for should also be stated by the house/organisation (Kalima) for house style consistency. The lack of a consistent house style implies this is not considered a quality issue, although it probably should be. Despite guidance on the issue of presenting all English text (such as proper nouns) on a single line, this was not followed by two translators (TT1 and TT2), and the third provided no such text at all (TT3), which may be a further quality issue that could be addressed through consistent guidelines which translators are reminded of. Since none of the translations analysed met this standard, it suggests a lack of enforcement of some guidelines that should be addressed.

Lack of guidelines and standards

In spite of being one of the reasons behind them, the lack of clear guidelines and standards for translators and revisers does not justify inconsistent corrections. These guidelines and standards help translators and revisers to save time in solving many dilemmas such as including both the Roman and Assyrian versions separated by a slash for the widest audience throughout the Arab world, and ensuring consistency in providing English versions of proper nouns (see example TT6.3.5). Adopting localisation-specific international standards documents such as ISO 17100 provides clear definitions of tasks such as ‘translation’, ‘revising’, ‘reviewing’ and ‘proofreading’ to eliminate ambiguity and overlapping of tasks. The content of such documents should be made available for the outsourced professional. It is worth noting that these guidelines should include specific conventions of English>Arabic translation based on previous translations and be updated constantly. Offering translation memory systems of English to Arabic references such as Wordfast Professional (Champollion, 2016) and CAT tools like Trados (Trados GmbH, 2015) is important to ensure consistency at the segment level, especially in the case of technical texts such as TT6. General tips should be provided to improve the quality of work. For instance, the revision analysis of the three books TT4, TT5, and TT6 shows that revisers left many errors without corrections. Revisers of Kalima make their changes directly on word

processing documents. Although working on-screen may be faster since changes can be input directly, empirical studies prove that errors can be spotted more efficiently on paper than on screen (Mossop, 2014, p.107). Kalima, therefore, should encourage their revisers to work on paper. However, on-paper working followed by applying on-screen changes may slow down the whole process.

3. Commitment and performance

The text analysis of the proofreading and revision reveals many symptoms of the lack of engaging the translators, revisers, and proofreaders to achieve a high quality of work in line with Kalima's claimed mission and visions. For instance, there is a sense of carelessness and unaccountability when submitting work, at any level (translation, proofreading, or editing), with a significant number of errors which could have been spotted effortlessly in 'reviewing', e.g. spelling mistakes and inconsistent correction of terms. Beside the significance of choosing the right professional for the task, one of the main strategies to engage them in the organisational objectives is to align their performance with an effective reward and appraisal system. Although it is challenging to apply this in the outsourcing context, it is worth considering that freelance translators and revisers are looking for a regular, consistent income from their work. So appraising freelancers could be tied to awarding them future tasks and incentives. Such appraisal systems should be also conducted against clear common guidelines and criteria. Inviting them to Kalima's annual conference and events and allowing them to engage and share their experience would trigger their loyalty to Kalima and encourage them to give their best in translation. Kalima, however, may need to study whether such appraisals are feasible and it is possible to allot a budget for them. On the other hand, it is important to consider the potential return on investing in such appraisals in the context of meeting Kalima's objectives in the long run.

4. Human Capital

The text analysis raised areas where training and continuous development appear to be essential elements to support an organisational culture for TQM, as discussed below:

Training and resources

The proofreading analysis exposed issues at the lexical level that would often be easier to address with access to the STs in the absence of revision, as well as to better dictionaries and databases. Collocation-specialised dictionaries and language corpora can be used effectively to assure the idiomaticity and writing style of the translation and avoid any indication of language weaknesses. The treatment of neologisms and the need for consistency when coining new terms in translation also reveal the importance of specialised databases for terminology in Arabic. Such dictionaries should be regularly updated and access should be provided to all translators, proofreaders and editors within Kalima. This would ensure quality through providing guidance on the most precise, consistent and logical use of terminology, as well as saving time through transferring knowledge between translators rather than repeatedly and individually attempting to find appropriate terms for unfamiliar concepts.

Proofreaders may help identify the training needs of particular translators if feedback can be provided in the spirit of TQM, for example to ensure that the translator of ST1 is conscious of differences between MSA and the Levantine dialect. More consistency could be achieved with databases for terminology and more comprehensive and better enforced guidance in Kalima's protocols for proofreaders. Editors can only catch issues flagged by a proofreader, so many issues with translations can be missed if a proofreader is not careful and also willing to spend time communicating uncertainty about whether a translation is faithful to the ST. Sometimes strategies need to be adapted to the text, particularly regarding style; but with lexical, layout and orthographical issues, Kalima may need to give clearer guidance to both translators and proofreaders.

Kalima should consider offering tailored courses based on issues and problems encountered in its previous projects. In an outsourcing context, this would be a win-win strategy if it were applied as a part of the appraisal and reward system.

Errors annotation and continuous development

Unlike how errors and corrections were annotated in hardcopies in the proofreading process, revision corrections and changes were applied directly in softcopies and are sent straightaway to editors for approval. However these changes were not tracked or

annotated, revealing a sense of the dominance of the reviser's work over the translator's. This approach neglects the translator's right to accept the reviser's changes, which are mostly justified in the analysis for subjective preference. Moreover, an annotated revised version that was sent back to a translator would endorse a sense of cognitive feedback, termed as "didactic revision" in Brunette's typology (Brunette, 2000, p. 173), where translators benefit from the revision process. Annotating changes by the reviser would also force revisers to be more convincing about their changes. This would result in reducing subjective and unnecessary changes while appreciating the efforts and choices of translators. Kalima should also value the revision process in a holistic context as an informative tool which sustains continuous development at the organisational level. This can be achieved by providing their translators with annotated versions of errors, corrections and changes based on clear criteria of a common error typology and fair assessment. The same applies to proofreading and editing.

5. **Transparency**

Due to the nature of outsourcing, the workflow in Kalima lacks immediate interaction between those involved in producing translation (translators, revisers and proofreaders). This resulted in blurry decision-making and a lack of accountability, as discussed below:

Blurry decision-making

The proofreading analysis shows that the boundaries of responsibilities may be blurred in making lexical choices. Stylistic lexical choices may reflect the creativity of a translator, but be interpreted as a mistake by the proofreader. On the other hand, translators may maintain inappropriate language in order to ensure faithfulness to the ST rather than as their own preferred rendering, but this may be regarded as a stylistic choice by a proofreader and left uncontested. The proofreader may have to second-guess what was in the ST to catch a mistranslation, to decide whether to omit or substitute for a particular word, to ensure that captions to photographs are appropriate to the audience. Ease of informal communication may be one way to deal with such issues; however, this may be challenging with freelancers being in different locations.

Yet Kalima should facilitate communication channels across team members (translator, reviser and proofreader). This could be achieved, for instance, by emails and video call conferences (e.g. Skype) to discuss any ambiguity or issue raised at any stage.

Accountability

Kalima may want the proofreader to flag issues more often. On the one hand, this may be taken to show lack of confidence and increase their communicative workload, while on the other hand it gives the editor much better data for quality management and perhaps therefore should be encouraged, given that the editor has access to the ST, unlike the proofreader. The proofreading analysis reveals that the repetition of words in several examples and a large number of mistakes found in the use of prepositions, punctuation and spellings seem to have occurred due to the lack of revision by the translators themselves. Guidance, time and training to ‘review’ their own translations may be a possible solution if the problem appears excessive.

Although all professional players who participate in producing the final product (translated text) should work integrally in TQM terms, each should be clear about his/her tasks through a documented job description. It would be difficult to restrain a language expert, such as revisers, from correcting a spelling mistake but it would be easier to hire a competent translator who does the job right the first time. Project managers should make sure the ST is reviewed and of good quality before passing it to translators. Translators in turn should ‘review’ their translation and make sure it has no errors before handing it in for revision. The same applies to revisers and proofreaders. This would save a lot of time and minimise overlapping of tasks. The errors discussed in the revision process of TT4, for instance, are not major issues and mostly can be realised if the translator ‘reviews’ it (in ISO 17100:2015 terms) and maintains his/her level of focus consistently throughout the text. This would save the time of the revisers and proofreaders, who are only 12, and minimise stress and workload towards achieving the annual target of translating 100 books annually, while not compromising the quality of the translation.

The presence of inaccuracies encountered in the analysed revisers' drafts shows that revision alone cannot assure good translated content. Rather, this emphasises the fact that quality of the final product in translation, as a collective work in a corporate context, is a result of practices where quality is sustained from the early stages; starting from the text selection to assigning well-trained and experienced translators in the subject-matter, who meet certain qualifications and competences, then to competent revisers and proofreaders up to the last stage of delivery. Adopting 'preventive measures' or what is known as the 'simple objective' of TQM: "Do the right things, right the first time, every time" (Mohanty, 2008, p. 252) is very important as TSPs should consider very seriously, especially in extensive texts such as Kalima's books for which consistent stamina is crucial.

6. Innovation

An Online Platform

The revision analysis revealed that some of the corrections were made based on previous evaluation of them as mistakes, yet they were later approved by the Academy of the Arabic Language in Cairo (for instance, replacing the word (فشل / fashal) with (إخفاق / ikhfāq) to refer to 'failure' in example TT4.3.1a). It is important, therefore, for all professional players involved in translation to follow-up such updates. There are many web-based project management solutions that can be used such as Projetex (AIT, 2012) and XTRFTM (XTRF, 2012). Kalima, as one of the leading translation projects in the Arab world, holds an annual conference on translation with free workshops for translators, and should consider extending its value by investing in an online platform for its outsourced professionals exclusively. This should allow access to all the required technical systems, CAT tools, managing and tracking its projects at all stages and updated relevant information. Such an investment would effectively regulate the process of quality data and reporting. It will promote discussion, feedback, communication, and teamwork, especially given that most of the outsourced translators or revisers hired by Kalima work from different countries outside the UAE. This helps

in promoting training and continuous improvement, proliferating strategies to encounter issues tailored for Kalima's requirements and readership. It can be argued that such an investment is a waste considering the outsourcing aspect. Yet it would be reflected in the quality of Kalima's service eventually. Kalima would be able to develop a huge base of competent translators and proofreaders on a large scale geographically which will add credit to its societal value and establish its reputation and portfolio as a publisher and TSP in the longer term.

8.3 Conclusion:

The proposed framework aims at bridging the gap between the current managerial and quality practices in TSPs in the UAE and TQM implementation. Since TQM is a holistic approach to management, the proposed framework attempts to comprehend all the organisational aspects; managerial, structural and procedural from translation project perspectives. The framework emphasises the importance of connecting missing links between top-level management, middle and low levels of management. The findings of the research suggest the importance of introducing a portfolio manager, who could arguably constitute an additional level of complexity. However, this level would benefit TSPs by helping them to develop their performance and achieve their goals consistently over time. Outsourcing, as the style most adopted in TSPs in the UAE, is one of the main drivers behind developing this framework. Profit and non-profit TSPs should engage their freelance linguists to bring more momentum and conformity to the organisation's objectives. This framework emphasises that non-profitability of TSPs does not belittle the significance of customer focus for TQM implementation. Rather, customers remain one of the significant critical factors for an organisation's success since their engagement helps TSPs to pursue their societal and cognitive values. Finally, it is worth noting that any proposed framework for TQM implementation will be possible and feasible only after an in-depth assessment for an accurate benchmarking. Therefore the proposed framework can be illustrated in the Figure 25 below:

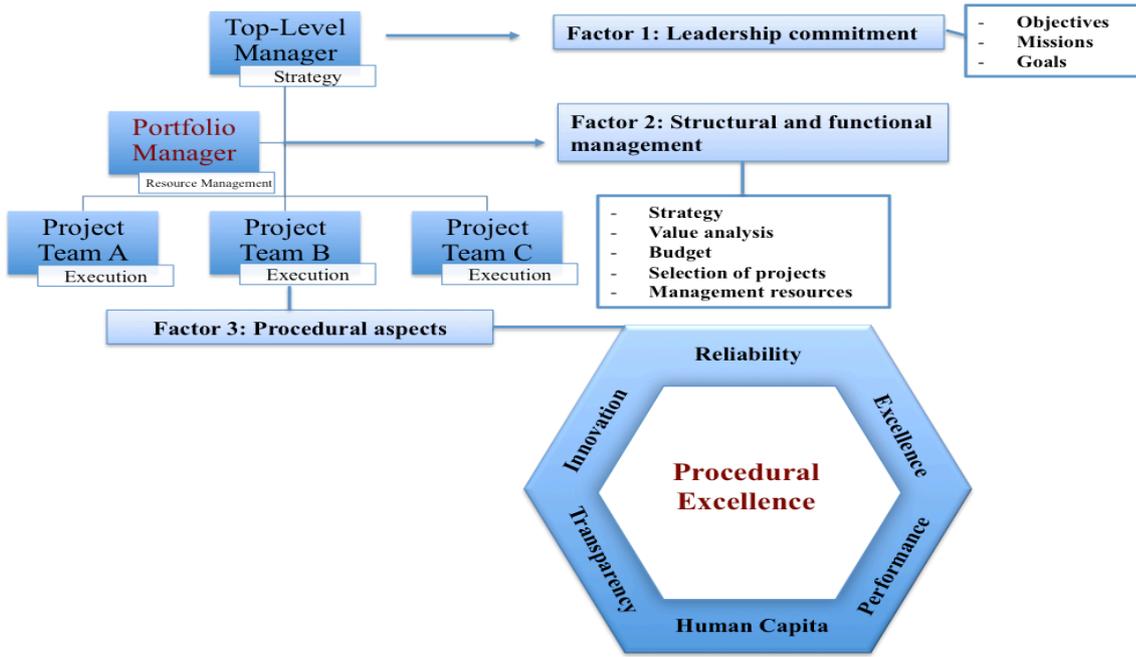


Figure 25: The proposed framework of CSFs in implementing TQM in non-profit TSPs in the UAE

9. Chapter Nine: Conclusion and recommendations

Total Quality Management (TQM) is a holistic management philosophy that deals with the resources and structure of an organisation in line with its objectives. And the user-based approach to quality is that of a customer-oriented perspective as customers' satisfaction comes on top of all considerations (Garvin, 1984, pp.25-26); although this approach is criticised over its obvious subjectivity towards customer preferences and satisfaction, it seems that it is widely adapted by managements of profit-oriented organisations. But for the purpose of this research, focusing on non-profit translation service providers, the value-based quality approach seems the most adequate, as it combines both internal and external views and expectations of how quality is perceived (Garvin, 1984, p.26; Stracke, 2006, p.80). However, the value is not limited to translation only, but rather in management and procedures as well. This is aligned with the concepts of Mossop, who points out that present-day translation companies and the organisations representing them have “advanced a procedural concept of quality that is focused not on the relationship between the source text and the translation, or on the quality of writing in the translation, but on the process used to prepare the translation” (Mossop, 2014, p.24).

This follows on from Mossop's own views on the meaning of 'quality' perceived strictly from the linguistic quality point of view, and in regard to the translation processes, as previously mentioned. These aspects were key for the development of this research, and in this matter three prominent TSPs in the United Arab Emirates were addressed, of which it is the Kalima translation project that has been investigated as a primary case study. From the analysis of surveys, interviews and text-analysis, it is apparent that these organisations aim to provide a high-quality product in order to contribute to the societal values and knowledge as per the mission of the organisations. However, quality-related issues were strongly present due to various limitations at the managerial, structural, and procedural levels. Two profound main reasons were found in the analysis: the ambiguous distribution of authority and tasks; and the absence of quality measures in place in various aspects of the organisation.

Thus, based on the primary research of the current study, the focus was aligned to answer the research questions of the thesis regarding improving the TQM practices in the translation service providers in the UAE. The primary data, as discussed in detail in Chapter Five, identifies various critical success factors which demonstrate exceptionally high value to managerial as well as procedural prospects of the organisations. Thus, in order to answer the research questions and achieve the objectives of the study, a TQM framework is proposed, specifically for the TSPs in the UAE and depending on the current situation and future growth of the organisation. The proposed TQM framework is important in the sense that it entails elements for different levels of education right from the top-level managers to the technical staff in a manner that the objectives and scope of the organisation become well integrated. On the basis of this framework, the research questions are addressed as follows:

9.1 How important could TQM be to translation service providers (TSPs)?

Translation service providers (TSPs) are similar to other service sector providers for which the philosophy of TQM, notwithstanding its manufacturing origins, has been proved to be effective in promoting organisational success and harnessing resources.

The TSPs of various sizes and resources that have been studied in the UAE reveal different scopes. However, they are run under specific objectives and follow different workflows that are arguably set to maintain the organisational conception of translation quality (see 5.4). In some cases, this is extended to establish organisational structures and procedures where producing translated content becomes a corporate activity.

This research shows that the TSPs studied in the UAE face some challenges. For instance, meeting the objectives of TSPs is associated with workload pressure, limited resources, sedentary and monotonous tasks that result in losing focus and stamina, which thus affects negatively the quality of translation. There seems to be a need for balancing the resources with the objectives by means of management strategies which reflect on how best to adopt effective procedures to manage translation and its quality as well as overcoming the challenges related to the very nature of practising translation in a corporate context.

The research reflects symptoms of near-absent management realization of organisational objectives such as establishing a clear understanding of translation quality that conforms to the organisational objectives. Furthermore, there seem to be a gap between management and practical considerations related to translation such as

capacity of resources, employment of technology, and unclear formalization to meet the objectives. Moreover, the research indicates that some TSPs could possibly have functioned more effectively if they had considered employing some of the established international standards and requirements relevant to TSPs such as ISO 17100: 2015.

This research shows that TQM, as a holistic management approach, could be employed to address translation issues raised in a corporate context given its profound consideration for organisational objectives, employees, customers and the entire organisation.

The extent to which TSPs might benefit from this philosophy could, nevertheless, be limited by the size and commitment of the TSPs. For the case studies presented in this research suggest that the implementation of TQM could be more feasible in Kalima and the National Archive more than in Tabah, which deals with a limited number of translators (see 5.4). It is also worth noting that the question of implementing TQM in TSPs may be associated with costs, time and additional resources. Therefore, the success of such implementation is determined by the commitment and willingness of organisations to invest in embracing this philosophy. The outsourcing context of TSPs such as Kalima could question the significance of adopting TQM practices such as investing in training and technology. However, this should be considered in balance with long-term benefits such as saving costs and time related to reworking and QC-specific procedures.

The competitive context, the excellence initiatives and awards in the UAE and also the presence of quality management tools that are bespoke to TSPs (e.g. ISO 17100) would together facilitate the implementation of TQM in the UAE (see 1.1.3).

9.2 What are the processes, standards, and practices which can be noticed currently in the work of TSPs in the UAE?

As per the analysis of the TSPs in the UAE, the organisational practices were clear in many ways; but most of them were not objective-oriented nor aligned with the organisation's objectives (see 5.4.3.4). The analysis also reflected the presence of a bureaucratic culture in TSPs in which decision-making is ruled by the top-level managers, affecting quality issues that arose at the functional and procedural levels. The findings (see 5.3.1.1) detail that most of the TSPs have a vertical structure of reporting; yet this gets them stuck many times at the higher level due to centralized

decision-making. Further, although some members of the management indicate their adoption of an “open door policy”, such hierarchy results in creating barriers to communication. Some of them did, however, show positive examples of delegation (see 5.4.3.2); however, they seemed to be struggling with a heavy workload and short deadlines. This problem apparently resulted from the failure of the higher management to communicate effectively with those actually doing the work, and thereby to manage limited resources more efficiently.

Moreover, there is an apparent failure to plan resources efficiently as regards employing technology and providing productive training. Findings show that employees of TSPs are not well aware of the training plan (see 5.3.1.2.5, 5.4.1.5 and 5.4.3.7). Although training and development plans are offered in some of the TSPs, they are not very relevant to the practice of translation. Innovation related to employing new technology and improving processes is very limited. Translators rely on online resources and dictionaries. There is no indication of CAT tools or translation memories actually being used. Yet the majority of participants revealed that they were motivated to use such technologies and were aware of their effectiveness for translation projects.

Outsourcing professional linguists for translation projects is common in TSPs in the UAE, including the non-profit and government-funded entities. This process, however is not run by a project manager with a translation background, and this results in tense relationships between commissioners and freelancers because of an insufficient evaluation of STs, as well as of proper rates and realistic deadlines.

Translation projects are carried out in different workflows. Translation projects appear to be completed either individually, i.e. with one person being expected to deliver the final version TT (translating, revision, and proofreading), or otherwise in cross-functional teams. Yet some steps of production such as revision are skipped in some TSPs. The limitation of revision, if it applies, is also not regulated. Criteria on what dictates that a text should be revised fully, partially, bilingually, or unilingually are not clear. Guidelines related to translation are developed in some of the TSPs under study only in job descriptions. In short, there is a lack of direction or of any roadmap to unidentified objectives and goals to be achieved in the government-funded TSPs.

9.3 What are the managerial technologies and practices that are adopted in the UAE TSPs to ensure translation quality?

The current research shows that the TSPs studied in the UAE are highly concerned with the notion of quality of the translation; yet what makes a good translation is not defined or stated clearly in any documentation. Briefs, TTs' specifications, glossaries and terminology databases are almost absent. The quality yardstick of translation in the studied UAE TSPs is subjectively perceived, depending on personal preferences and linguistic taste.

The study conducted for this research shows that there are limited indicators of work quality management (see 5.3.1.2). Time management is one of the indicators which most managers regard as a quality check for assessing a project's success and quality (see 5.3.1.2.1). Yet, the researcher was unable to identify any documented proof of meeting deadlines from any of the TSPs apart from Kalima, which statistically was proved to have accomplished its deadline target. However, Kalima's priority of reaching its annual target, in the presence of ineffective management of resources, resulted in compromising the quality of its translations (see 6.4 and 0).

Some TSPs in the UAE adopt procedural measures to assure quality of translation, starting with editing the ST, then translating, revising, proofreading and editing the TT. However, such procedures appear to be the exception rather than the rule.

The study shows that the majority of the surveyed TSPs' employees in the UAE are familiar with TQM. Yet its application seems to be limited in these UAE TSPs. There are some strategies adopted that may be said to fall under the implementation of TQM. Some TSPs show excellent progress as being distinguished with high management systems certifications such as ISO 9001:2008; ISO 9004:2009; EFQM excellence model; ISO 31000:2009; and ISO 9004:2009. On the other hand, a very limited number of study participants state that their TSPs adopt localisation-specific standards or certifications. Neglecting established tools such as localisation standards like ISO 17100: 2015 and ISO 11669: 2012 resulted in certain managerial procedural pitfalls, an example being confusion over translation terms like revising, editing and proofreading. This also resulted in an unregulated style of error reporting and productive integrated

feedback. TQM implementation, however, does not require these certifications. Rather, it demonstrates that the organisation is working towards excellence.

The study shows the need to draw attention to the importance of developing documents, guidelines, parameters, and translation briefs internally. These in turn should be provided to all linguists and other participants in a translation project. Such documents identify the organisation's missions, scope and objectives through which an excellent translation can be completed.

Creating a participative and teamwork-based culture is one of the important drivers to TQM. The study shows that TSPs lack this kind of culture. Besides the hierarchy barriers, this could possibly be due to workload and tight deadlines that pressure individual linguists to deal solely with problematic translation issues. A consultative work atmosphere does not only benefit the quality of translation, but also creates a productive and motivational ambience for sedentary jobs like translating. However, creating such environment in TSPs that function in outsourcing contexts would be challenging if appropriate technologies are not employed for this purpose.

A TSP should not exclude freelancers from its core values as they play a vital role in the organisation's success. Their contribution should be emphasised by identifying the organisation's objectives, scope, and standards. The study shows that TSPs tend to opt for assigning freelancers, who might be living in other countries. This resulted in having a limited interaction, although most of the translation projects are achieved cross-functionally. However, freelancing today should not hinder productive and motivational communication with the strong presence of technology and cloud-based translation management systems

The absence of profitability in the non-profit TSPs under study in the UAE does not belittle the role of the customer in the whole process. Although the objectives of the studied TSPs are set in advance and cannot be tailored to the needs of customers, TSPs should achieve their societal and cognitive value by approaching their targeted readership for valuable feedback. A systematic integration of such feedback into the organisation's strategy and procedures would help TSPs to improve continuously.

9.4 How is it possible to bridge the gap between the current practices and TQM?

It is difficult to bring a drastic change into any organisation suddenly that could be difficult for people to adapt to, and at the same time tough for the organisation to implement. Thus, the proposed framework recommends clearly identifying the objectives of the organisation with a specified budget allocated annually for the organisation. Next, it becomes a necessity in some TSPs to appoint a portfolio manager, whose main duty is to design strategy for the organisational practices in order to achieve the defined objectives (Giammarresi, 2011, p.22). Appointment of such a top-level manager will reduce the time delays of decision making, while financial planning will be appropriate, keeping in view the objectives of the organisation, and the quality of the work will be improved, based on the improvement of the critical success factors (see 5.3.1.1 and 5.5). This will build people's capacity for owning the project and being fully involved in translation projects' processes on the basis of clear responsibilities and accountability.

It should be made clear that the suggested framework is an effort to improve the quality practices in the TSPs in the UAE, with the structural and functional changes yet to be tested through an evidence-based programme. However, the critical success factors are derived from TQM practices although effective implementation of the project to improve these factors is still a challenge and needs tremendous efforts and resources. Thus, a clear plan that will further be elaborated in bridging the gaps between current practices and TQM, based on the current framework, is recommended below.

9.5 Recommendation for further research or implementation

In order to bridge the distance between the current practices and TQM, the essential part is the accountability and successful check marks or targets to be achieved. The current framework elaborates clearly the responsibilities and accountabilities of people within the organisation. In order to have it implemented, it is recommended to have an evidence-based programme in the organisation with clear objectives and resources in a part of the organisation as an evidence-based implementation plan. In this regards, the PDCA cycle of implementation is recommended (see 3.1.2.1 and 3.1.8.3). PDCA (**plan–do–check–act**) is an interactive four-step management method used in business

for the control and continual improvement of processes and products (Evans and Lindsay, 2016, p. 657; Koehler and Pankowski, 1996, p.21) (see Figure 26 below).

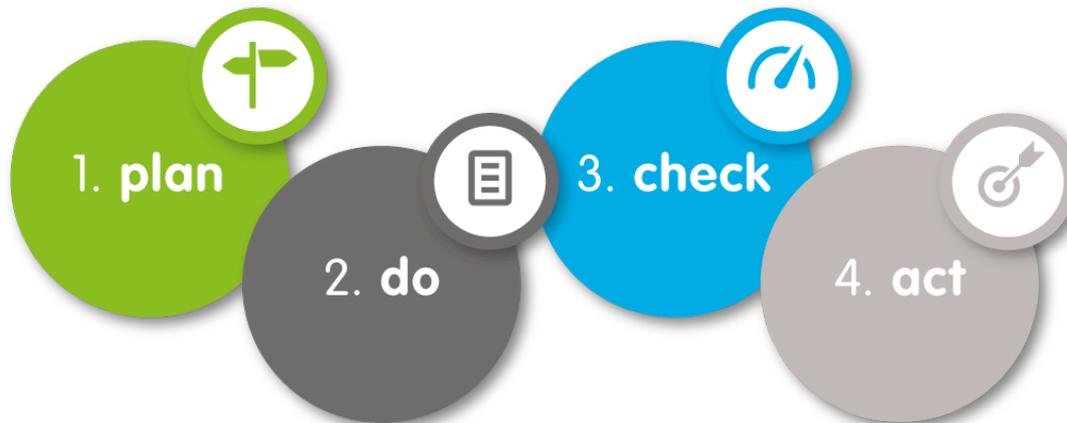


Figure 26: PDCA steps

In view of continuing the research so far undertaken, the researcher envisages working together with the non-profit translation service providers that have been studied in the UAE to implement the framework and monitor progress towards the achievement of best practice and full total quality management processes and procedures. Whilst doing so, it is expected that further details and ideas will emerge, that will allow to further development and consolidation of the proposed framework. Indeed, some specific issues regarding the complexity of the English-to-Arabic translation might reflect the need for much more case-specific standards and processes. Then, other languages may also be included, which might also determine specific approaches. However, it is expected that the framework and its future developments will facilitate the process of embedding a total quality management mindset across the organisations and therefore ease the processes whilst achieving better and more efficient results, and contributing to betterment of the societal value of such translation projects.

In conclusion, therefore, the findings from this research, which studied English>Arabic translation in particular, have identified quality key parameters that should be considered in translation projects with other language combinations, and provided the basis for enhancing the efficiency and quality of English>Arabic translations in TSPs. This research is of added value to the global context, due to the growing number of

Arabic-speakers in the world and the value of the language in today's global business scenario. The framework developed in this research prepares the ground for TSPs in the UAE to participate in the excellence race programs such as SKEA (see 1.1.3).

As stated earlier, it is expected that much may be learned from this study, particularly in view of further understanding the process of translation from the organisational point of view, whilst also ensuring the best translation standard to meet with expectations from the end-users.

9.6 Limitations

It is important to acknowledge certain limitations to the methodology and findings. The general survey (GS) was circulated to reach all employees working in translation-related firms of different sizes and scope. So it is not possible to generalise its findings regarding non-profit TSPs in the UAE. Rather, it aimed at studying the general managerial and structural norms with reference to TQM culture.

Furthermore, the three TSPs, namely NA, Tabah, and Kalima did not agree to disclose further required information and documents related to formalisation. This limited the scope for surveying issues related to critical success factors other than those raised in the specified survey and interviews.

Although Kalima was cooperative in attempting to approach its outsourced freelancers several times to complete the specified survey, the number of responses remained very limited compared to the targeted percentage of representative participation. This in turn limited generalisability. However, opting for a thorough text analysis of Kalima's revision, proofreading, and editing attempted to address the missing links. On the other hand, conclusions derived from analysing Kalima's interviews, the specified survey and processes of revision, proofreading and editing can apply only to those TSPs with a similar environment and set of practices.

9.7 Novel aspects and contributions of the research to the field

This study develops further the specific field of quality in translation projects, particularly in regard to embedding TQM tools to enhance the efficiency and quality of English-to-Arabic translations in translation service providers. The value of this research is particularly sustained by the need to respond to the increasing interest in

having an extensive array of publications (covering most areas of knowledge as well as disseminating educational texts) translated from English to Arabic. Moreover, this research is of added value to the global context, owing to the growing demand for translations in the world and the value of the language in today's global business scenario.

Much may be learned from this study, particularly as regards further understanding the process of translation from the organisational point of view, whilst ensuring the best translation practices to meet with the cultural and historical expectations from the end-users.

The findings from this study draw attention to the key parameters, the criteria and guidelines, and the error typologies that have to be of use for managing the quality of translation projects in the UAE, GCC, Arab countries and in other regions where English-Arabic translation is most applied; and they provide the basis for a useful contextualised framework, as depicted in Chapters Six, Seven and Eight. This novel framework for implementing TQM will also reflect the concerns of TSPs in this same context. The results from this study can also help us understand the process of TQM when applied to translation projects. This research can be further developed in other studies within the same context and on translation to Arabic from languages other than English.

Appendices

Appendix A: General Survey (GS)

Total Quality Management (TQM) in Translation Project Organizations

Thank you for accepting to reply to this Questionnaire.

It comprises 20 (twenty) questions, but will take less than TEN (10) minutes to fill in.

It will be of great value to the ongoing research and might in the near future be of considerable use to your organization.

All data is anonymous and will be treated confidentially. The end use is strictly limited to the development of a PhD thesis and any academic publications or conference presentations which might be connected to that thesis.

By completing the following questionnaire you are giving your consent for the information that you have supplied to be used for this study.

1. What is your work situation in regards to translation projects? (please select one)

- Staff member of a multinational translation and publishing company
- Staff member of a national translation and publishing organization
- Staff member of a local private translation project organization
- Staff member of a local non-profit translation project organization
- Staff member of a translation team in a governmental entity
- Individual freelance translator
- Other (please specify)

2. How would you describe the organizational structure of the organization(s) you work for? (please select one)

- 'Vertical': top-down' managerial style which is usually perceived as the conventional hierarchical structure of a business.
- 'Horizontal': structure with minimal layers of management, with cross functional teams and encouraging employees to think innovatively and contribute to the organizational progress.

3. Which of the two options better describes the style of decision-making process in the translation organization your work for? (please select one)

- 'Centralized': authority and decision making power lies with the top management or a selected set of individuals
- 'Decentralized': the decision making power lies with the lower levels of management, which allows a participative and interactive workflow

4. What is the main type of translation you mostly contribute to? (please select one)

- English to Arabic
- French to Arabic
- Spanish to Arabic

Other language(s) to Arabic (please specify)

5. Do you also contribute to translation projects from Arabic to other languages? If applicable, please specify:

6. Is Arabic your main language? (please select one)

- Yes
- No, but I am fluent in Arabic

If you replied no, please specify which is your native language

7. As a professional translator, how much do you feel you actively contribute to the overall translation project processes?

- Totally: the final product fully reflects my own work
- Quite a lot: the final product after reviews still reflects most of what was my own work
- Partially: the final product is the outcome of my work alongside many other translators and reviewers and therefore my own contribution gets diluted
- Barely: the final product has barely any similarity to what was my own contribution
- Not at all: the final product relies mainly on machine translation (MT) and computer-assisted translation (CAT)

8. Do you know what TQM stands for? Please specify:

9. What are the most important aspects a translation project organization should invest on? (please rank in order of importance, 1 being the most important and 5 the least important)

<input type="text"/>	Innovation
<input type="text"/>	Effectiveness
<input type="text"/>	Efficiency
<input type="text"/>	Reliability
<input type="text"/>	Customer-focus

10. As a translator, which do you favour? (please select one):

- Source language
- Target language
- Both (please specify why)

11. In general terms, how would you rank the focus of your work when translating texts from different cultural contexts? (please rank using 1 as the most important aspect and 5 as the least important aspect)

<input type="text"/>	Cultural equivalent: replacing a cultural word in the source language with a target language one, even if not fully accurate but compliant with target culture
<input type="text"/>	Functional equivalent: the use of a culture-neutral word or phrase to mean what is stated in the original source
<input type="text"/>	Descriptive equivalent: explain in several word the meaning of the source culture-bound term
<input type="text"/>	Faithful translation: attempt to produce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the target language grammatical structures
<input type="text"/>	Word-for-word or literal translation: the word order from the source language is preserved and the words are translated singly by their most common meanings, or the grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest target language equivalents

12. How would you define a 'good' translation? Please specify in the box below:

13. Does your definition of 'good' translation match what the organization you work for considers as a 'good' translation? Please specify in the box below:

14. How would you rank the procedural strategy of the translation organization you know better? (use 1 as most relevant and 5 the least relevant):

<input type="text"/>	Standardized best practices
<input type="text"/>	Repetitive and non-engaging work (i.e. workforce doing routine work at their specific level, with no interaction)
<input type="text"/>	Quantitatively focused management practices (i.e. the most work done as possible in a given time frame)
<input type="text"/>	Continuously improving practices, giving each staff member the opportunity to grow and contribute further to the projects

15. From your experience, what are the two main drivers of translation organizations? (please select two)

- Results
- Profit
- Quality
- Quantity
- Customer satisfaction
- Speed in delivery
- Other (please specify)

16. What is the most important contribution a translation organization brings to society? Please rank in order of importance (1 being the most important and 8 the least important):

<input type="text"/>	Growth and expansion of the sector
<input type="text"/>	Work opportunities for specialized workforce
<input type="text"/>	Providing a reliable form of knowledge dissemination
<input type="text"/>	Contribution to the economic growth of the country
<input type="text"/>	Agile response to market demands
<input type="text"/>	Set an example of transparency and accountability
<input type="text"/>	Create an inspiring and motivational place to work for
<input type="text"/>	Innovate and provide the best outcomes, emanating from a carefully managed human and technological approach to translation

17. Which of the quality aspects in a translation project organization stated below is the most important? Please rank (from 1 as the most important to 7 as least important):

<input type="text"/>	level of expertise of human resources
<input type="text"/>	linguistic diversity among translators
<input type="text"/>	work allocation
<input type="text"/>	risk assessment and control
<input type="text"/>	communication channels
<input type="text"/>	specialism
<input type="text"/>	standards

18. Which of the following contributes the most to negative results to a translation project? (Please rank from 1 being the one that contributes most negatively up to 5 being the less serious in terms of negative impact)

<input type="text"/>	Lack of learning and development opportunities for enabling human capital
<input type="text"/>	Lack of information exchange across levels
<input type="text"/>	Translators lacking the opportunity to be accountable for the quality of their own delivery
<input type="text"/>	Lack of incentives to staff
<input type="text"/>	Dependency on freelance translators

19. Which of these standards are in place at the translation organization(s) you know best? (Please select all that apply)

- ISO 9001:2008
- ISO 11669:2012
- ISO 17100:2015
- ISO 9004:2009
- EN 15038:2006
- ISO 13485:2012
- Other (please specify)

20. Please provide any additional comments you consider would be useful in regards to ways of implementing and assessing quality management in translation organizations.

Appendix B: Specified Survey

Total Quality Management in Translation Organisations

Page 1: Total Quality Management in Translation Organisations

Total quality management (TQM) covers the entire organisation, all human and material resources which include professionals, employees, workflow, processes and functions. TQM philosophy motivates leadership to equip the resources of organisations with quality to achieve its objectives.

This questionnaire has been devised to know the scope, possibility, aspects and values of Total Quality Management in translation project organisations in the UAE.

By completing the following online survey you are giving your consent for the information that you have supplied to be used for this study.

All data collected in this survey will be held anonymously and securely. No personal data is asked for or retained. Cookies, personal data stored by your Web browser, are not used in this survey.

General information

1. Gender

2. Age

3. Academic qualification

3.a. If you selected Other, please specify:

4. Academic discipline/ major

4.a. If you selected Other, please specify:

5. What is your employment status in your organisation?

5.a. [missing question text]

6. Your occupation

6.a. If you selected Other, please specify:

7. What are your main tasks?

- Managing translation projects
- Selecting texts
- Translating texts

- Revising translations
- Editing texts
- Other

7.a. If you selected Other, please specify:

8. How long have you been working in the field of translation?

9. Are you a translator?

- Yes
- No

9.a. If yes, are you a certified/ accredited translator?

- Yes
- No

9.b. If yes, what is your certifications/ accreditations?

- The UAE Ministry of Justice Certification for Translators
- Institute of Translation and Interpreting Certification (ITI)
- American Translators Association Certification (ATA)
- Chartered Institute of Linguistics (Certifications)
- The United Nations certification for translators
- Not certified nor accredited
- Other

9.b.i. If you selected Other, please specify:

10. What is the major business of your organisation?

11. What are the activities/ services provided by your organisation?

- Publication
- Translation
- Editing
- Training
- Other

11.a. If you selected Other, please specify:

12. What is your department?

13. Are you aware of the objectives of your organisation?

- Yes
- No

14. What is the size of your organisation? (number of employees)

Total Quality Management (TQM)

15. Are you aware of the importance of Total Quality Management (TQM), which has an important role in the success of any organisation?

- Yes
- No
- Can't say

16. Has your company obtained ISO certification?

- Yes
- No
- Can't say

16.a.i. If you selected Other, please specify:

16.a.ii. Please specify the year of certification

17. Will obtaining this certification add to the positioning and reputation of the organisation?

- Yes
- No
- Can't say

18. Does this certification help to improve the performance of the employees?

- Yes
- No
- Can't say

19. Does your organisation implement Total Quality Management? or any integrated quality management system?

- Yes
- No

I don't know

19.a. If yes, what is the model of implementation?

- ISO 9004: 2009
- Xerox model
- UMIST
- EFQM model
- Not specified model
- Other

19.a.i. If you selected Other, please specify:

20. Does your organisation provide translators/editors/revisers/proof-readers with specific guidelines for translation, revision or evaluation?

- Yes
- No
- I don't know

20.a. If yes, what is this document?

- ATA framework
- LISA QA model
- A document that is developed locally by the organization
- Other

20.a.i. If you selected Other, please specify:

21. Does your organisation provide specific terminology databases?

- Yes
- No
- I don't know

22. Does your organisation develop their own terminology database?

- Yes
- No
- I don't know

23. Does your organisation provide you training?

- Yes
- No

23.a. If yes, is it related to the skills and knowledge you need to fulfil the requirements of your job?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes

24. Do you think your organisation is quality conscious towards employees?

- Yes
- No

25. Translation process goes through quality assessment procedures conducted mainly by professional (revisers, proof-reader, editors, terminologists, etc). How do you feel about the revision and quality assurance of the translated work in organisation?

- Excellent
- Good
- Average
- Poor

26. Do you work on translation projects in teams/ groups?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes

27. Do you meet with your colleagues to discuss a shared project that you work on?

- Yes
- No

28. Should your organization eliminate barriers between departments to improve communication and teamwork?

- Yes
- No
- I don't know

29. Do you get feedback on the translation?

- Yes
- No

29.a. If yes, where do you get the feedback from?

- Colleague
- Linguist expert
- Customer feedback
- Reviser/ Editor
- Other

29.a.i. If you selected Other, please specify:

30. Does your organisation provide a good environment to apply the best of your knowledge?

- Very much
- Some what little
- Not at all

31. Do you think your organisation is a good place to work on?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes

32. Are you comfortable with the rules and policies of the organisation?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes

33. Describe your relations with your supervisor, peers, and subordinate:

- Good
- Average
- Poor

33.a. If you are not happy about it, why?

- They are not cooperating
- There is no proper communication
- They do not provide me with the resources I need
- Other

33.a.i. If you selected Other, please specify:

34. Do you think your job makes the best use of your abilities, skills, knowledge and experience?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes

35. Generally, how do you describe the texts you are assigned to process?

- Easy
- Average
- Hard

35.a. If you are not happy with the type of texts, have you considered sharing this issue with your supervisor?

- Yes
- No

36. Do you find your performance is measured properly?

- Yes
- No

37. Do you get any reward on your good performance?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes

38. How do you feel about the following in your organisation?

	Highly satisfied	Satisfied	Neutral	Dissatisfied	Highly dissatisfied
Your involvement in activities, training and decision-making	<input type="radio"/>				
Work environment	<input type="radio"/>				

Appreciation and reward	<input type="radio"/>				
Clarity of technical guidelines (translation, revision, proof-reading, editing, terminology)	<input type="radio"/>				
Salary offered	<input type="radio"/>				

39. How do you think you can make a contribution to this organisation?

40. Suggestions and comments

Thank you for completing the survey!

Key for selection options

1 - Gender

Male
Female

2 - Age

20-30
31-40
41-50
51-60
60+

3 - Academic qualification

Diploma
Bachelor
Master's
Phd
Other

4 - Academic discipline/ major

Management
Translation
Language
Other

5 - What is your employment status in your organisation?

Full-time

Part-time

6 - Your occupation

Project Manager
Administrator
Translator
Reviser
Proof-reader
Editor
Other

8 - How long have you been working in the field of translation?

1 year
2 years
3 years
4 years
5 years
6 years
7-10 years
11-15 years
15+ years

14 - What is the size of your organisation? (number of employees)

0-50
51-100
101-500
501-1000

Appendix C: Interview questions

IP1. Interview questions to the project manager at the National Archive

- Q1. How do you select texts?
- Q2. What are the steps in a typical translation project?
- Q3. What problems do you come across in this process?
- Q4. Does your organisation provide translators, editors, revisers or proofreaders with specific guidelines for translation, revision or evaluation?
- Q5. Does your organisation provide translators, editors, revisers and proofreaders with specific terminology databases?
- Q6. What are your criteria for hiring translators?
- Q7. Do you require your translators to be accredited and certified?
- Q8. How do you ensure the quality of translations?
- Q9. What kind of readers do you target?
- Q10. How do you get feedback from readers?

IP2. Interview questions with a translation project manager at the Taba Foundation

Organisation's description and situation

- Q1. What are the main products/services your organisation offers? What is the relative importance of each to your organisation's success?
- Q2. What are your key societal responsibilities?
- Q3. What are the strategic challenges you face concerning human resources?
- Q4. What are the key elements that engage your employees to achieve your mission and vision?
- Q4. What are the applicable occupational health and safety regulations; accreditation, certification, or registration requirements; translation industry-related standards; environmental financial, and service/product (translation) regulations?
- Q6. How would you describe your organisational structure and governance system? What are the reporting relationships between your board, senior leaders and parent organisation?
- Q7. What are your key market segments, and who are your key customers and readers? What are their key requirements and expectations for your products/services, customer support services and operations?
- Q8. Who are your key suppliers, partners, and collaborators? What role do these suppliers, partners and collaborators play in the production and delivery of your key products and customer support services?
- Q9. What are your key mechanisms for communicating with suppliers, partners, and collaborators?
- Q10. What role, if any, do these organisations play in implementing innovations in your organisation?

Q11. What is your competitive position? What is your size and growth relative to the wider industry? How would you characterise the numbers and types of organisations that are your competitors?

Q12. What are the key changes taking place affecting your competitive situation, including opportunities for innovation and collaboration?

Q13. How do you measure the growth and success of your projects against the performance of competitors? (For example, employee numbers, sales, branches, publications, or partnership agreements.)

Q14. What are your key sources of comparative and competitive data available within your industry? What are your key sources of comparative data available from outside your industry? What limitations, if any, affect your ability to obtain data from these sources?

Q15. What are your major facilities, technologies and equipment?

Q16. What are the key elements of your performance improvement system (your evaluation, organisational learning, training, and innovation processes)?

Q17. What tools do you use to meet your goals in the production process (ISO standards 9000, Six Sigma methodology, etc)?

Leadership

Q18. How does the organisation communicate and implement its vision and values with its employees and its customers?

Q19. How do you promote an organisational environment that meets the objectives of your organisation?

Q20. How do you engage your customers to improve the organisation's performance?

Q21. What training plans are there for your employees?

Q22. How do you develop and enhance leadership skills?

Q23. What are your channels for communication with your employees?

Q24. How do you encourage communication through your organisation?

Q25. What is the process of communication for making key decisions?

Q26. Do you have an established plan for reward and recognition? If yes, what are your criteria? How do you use it to reinforce high performance?

Strategic planning/processes

Q27. How do you evaluate the efficiency of your processes? Have you used any external consultants for this purpose?

Q28. What changes have you made since the last evaluation was carried out?

Q29. What are the procedures for revising your organisational plans?

Q30. How important are quality indices, customer feedback and continuous improvement to measure your organisational performance?

Customer focus

Q31. What methods do you use to communicate with your customers? How do you use these methods to identify customers' demands? How is customers' feedback used to improve your organisation's performance?

Q32. How do you use social media and web-based technologies to get feedback from customers?

Q33. How do you respond to customers' feedback/complaints?

Q34. How do you follow up with customers on the quality of products/services you provide?

Q35. How do you determine customer satisfaction and engagement? (For example, whether customers recommend you to others, increase in social media followers, higher sales, etc.)

Q36. How do you design your organisational processes to meet your customers' demands and needs?

Measurement, standards and processes

Q37. Do you provide your employees with guidelines and standards that define the quality expected of your product/service (i.e. translations)? If yes, which employees are they available to? How do you guarantee that employees refer to them when working?

Q38. Have you developed local translation and evaluation standards? How did you derive these standards? (For example, experience, lingual experts, feedback for previous work, etc.)

Q39. Is your organisation certified by ISO? If not, are you planning to obtain any kind of quality certification or accreditation?

Q40. Do you think such certification would improve the reputation or competitive position of your organisation?

Q41. What are your procedures for managing the quality of your processes?

Q42. What are your procedures for regulating the quality of your product or service?

Q43. How do you define translation quality?

Q44. What quality assessment procedures do you follow? How do you use your definition of a good quality translation to assess the quality of your product/service?

Q45. Are you aware of TQM (total quality management) philosophy and its significance for improving organisational performance?

Q46. What are your procedures for ensuring accuracy and preventing errors during the process of translation (rather than detecting them afterwards)?

Q47. Have you established documented error categories for translation, revision and editing (in any established document)?

Q48. What do you think of the LISA QA model?

Q49. How do you ensure terminology is consistent throughout your translations?

Q50. What are your revision and quality assurance procedures?

Q51. How do you ensure you meet timelines? How do you deal with conflicting deadlines?

Q52. Where does your organisation stand internationally, among certified and accredited translation organisations?

Q53. How do you evaluate your performance? How do you use organisational performance reviews to identify priorities for continuous improvement and opportunities for innovation?

Employees' focus

Q54. How do you assess your employees' needs, including skills, competencies, and staffing levels?

Q55. How do you determine the key elements that affect employees' engagement?

Q56. How do you determine the key elements that affect employees' satisfaction and how are these elements determined for different employees groups and segments (management, technical staff, translators, revisers, proofreaders, editors)?

Q57. How does your employee performance management system ensure high standards of work, support employees' engagement and relate to employee compensation, reward, recognition, and incentive practices?

Q58. Are there any other formal or informal assessment methods used to determine employee engagement and satisfaction? Do these methods and measures differ between employee groups and segments?

Q59. How does your learning and development system address the following factors?

Q59a. Improving organisational performance and innovation.

Q59b. Customer focus

Q59c. Learning and development needs, including both needs that are self-identified and those identified by supervisors, managers, linguistic and translation experts, 3rd party assessors, etc.

Q60. How do you evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency of your learning and development system?

IP3 and IP5. Interview questions with a freelance translator at the Taba Foundation and Kalima

Q1. How do you define a good translation?

Q2. Do you use any software, machine translation or any tool to assist with translating?

Q3. How important are such (software) tools in your opinion?

Q4. What are the problems and challenges you face at the Taba foundation?

Q5. What challenges do you face when translating texts?

Q6. Do you communicate with the translation project manager at Taba?

Q7. How satisfied are you with your communication with the translation project manager to solve translation related issues?

Q8. Does the project manager provide guidelines and standards for translating, editing or revising texts?

Q9. Are there any specific guidelines or standards you abide by when completing translation projects?

Q10. Do you face any problems when accessing translation tools (dictionaries, terminologies database, software, etc)?

Q11. Does the project manager ask you to refer to specific terminology databases for terminological consistency?

Q12. Have you ever worked with other translators on the same projects?

Q13. What problems or challenges come with the outsourcing of translators?

Q14. What strategies are followed for revising translated texts?

- Q15. Are there any specific standards you comply with for revision at the levels of the word, sentence and text? Do you revise your own translation or do you pass it to another translator or reviser? What are the disadvantages of self-revision?
- Q16. How do you assure the quality of the translation?
- Q17. In your opinion, how important is it for translators to be accredited or certified in translation?
- Q18. Do you think these certificates or accreditations are good indicators or provide assurance for translation quality?
- Q19. How important is it for your translation projects department to acquire translation certifications and quality certificates (such as ISO)?
- Q20. Do you know if Taba translation projects are working on attaining certifications?
- Q21. How satisfied are you with the texts selected by Taba to be translated?
- Q22. How do you evaluate your experience with the Taba Foundation?
- Q23. Are you satisfied with your level of empowerment in translation projects with Taba?
- Q24. Do you receive any incentives from the Taba Foundation? (Rewards, recognition, etc.)
- Q25. Do you think Taba properly appreciates your long work experience and efforts?
- Q26. How do you evaluate Taba's performance over the last few years in achieving its goals and objectives?
- Q27. What are the indicators of success for translation projects at the Taba foundation (in your opinion)?
- Q28. Do you participate in the selection of texts for translation?
- Q29. Have you ever rejected the translation of a text that you did not like?

IP4. Senior editor with occasional Project Management duties.

- Q1. How are books and texts to be translated selected?
- Q2. How do you assure the quality of translation?
- Q3. Do you use any software for the quality of translation?
- Q4. What are the challenges you face in managing translation projects?
- Q5. What are the qualification and experience you require for your translators?
- Q6. How do you select your reviser?
- Q7. Who are your target readers?
- Q8. How do you select your proofreaders?

IP6. Interview with translation reviser and editor at Kalima (responses translated from Arabic)

- Q1. What do you do for Kalima? What does your task involve?
- Q2. How do you define a ‘good translation’?
- Q3. Do you use any software (e.g. CAT tools) as a tool to assist in translation, revision, editing, or proofreading? (if yes, can you please mention the name of it?)
- Q4: In your opinion, what do you think about these tools? Are they important to the process of translation?
- Q5: What are the problems and challenges you usually face with Kalima?
- Q6. What are the challenges and problems you face when working on translation projects in general and on Kalima’s texts in particular?
- Q7. Do you contact the project manager of Kalima when you come across these problems?
- Q8. How do you evaluate the level of communication within Kalima?
- Q9. Does Kalima provide you with general guidelines that are related to translation, editing, revising, or proofreading? Or any document that presents its rules and regulations, codes of ethics, standards of translation, etc?
- Q10. In your opinion, what is the significance of these documents and guidelines to the translator, reviser, proofreader, or editor, etc? Is it important to have them prior to commencing an assignment?
- Q11: Is there any list of standards with which you comply to complete translation projects (including revision, editing and proofreading)?
- Q12. Do you have any problems or difficulties when accessing specific sources or dictionaries during translation or revision? If yes, what kind of problems?
- Q13. Does Kalima recommend referring to a specific database or specific resources (for terminology consistency)?
- Q14. Have you worked collaboratively with other translators, on the same translation project?

Q15. Kalima relies heavily on outsourcing human resources to complete its translation projects.

- a. What are the pros and cons of outsourcing for translations?
- b. In the case of Kalima, how important is outsourcing for meeting its organisational goals?
- c. In the case of Kalima, how can the drawbacks and problems of outsourcing be tackled?
- d. What are the challenges you face at Kalima due to outsourcing?

Q16. What are the strategies you adopt for revision? What are the main aspects that you focus on when revising a translated text? (please explain in detail if possible).

Q17. Do you revise line by line?

Q18. Do you revise your own translations or do you send it to another reviser?

Q19. In your opinion, what are the advantages and disadvantages of self-revision?

Q20. How do you assure translation quality?

Q21. What do you think about acquiring accreditations and certificates in translation? How important are these to translators? Do they assure or indicate the level/quality of translation?

Q22. In your opinion, how important is it for Kalima to achieve quality certification? (e.g. ISO 9001:2008).

Q23. Do you know if Kalima is working towards any of these awards or certifications?

Q24. How satisfied are you with Kalima's selection of translators?

Q25. Kalima is one of the best and most influential translation projects in the region, if not the best. How do you evaluate your work experience with them?

Q26. How do you evaluate Kalima's empowerment and involvement of staff from your experience working in its projects?

Q27. How do you evaluate Kalima's performance in the last few years when it comes to meeting its goals and visions?

Q28. What do you think are the key success indicators for Kalima?

- Q29. How do you evaluate Kalima's selection of books?
- Q30. Do you select their books?
- Q31. Have you ever refused to work on texts for any reason?
- Q32. Kalima holds an annual conference on translation. Can you please describe your participation in this conference? Are you satisfied with your participation?
- Q33. Have you participated in any training plan for Kalima's employees?
- Q34. In your opinion, is it important for Kalima to establish a training plan for those who work on its projects?
- Q35: Kalima has an active presence in social media such as Twitter. Do you think it's important to get feedback from Kalima's target readers?
- Q36. How can such feedback affect the quality of Kalima's work?

**IP7. Interview with an in-house proofreader at Kalima
(responses translated from Arabic).**

- Q1. What is your role in the organisation?
- Q2. What is the proofreading process at Kalima?
- Q3. What challenges do you face?
- Q4. Do you have training plans for proofreaders?
- Q5. Is there any specific database to which Kalima advises you to refer while proofreading?
- Q6. How do evaluate your experience with Kalima?
- Q7. What are your incentives?
- Q8. How do you measure the success of Kalima's performance?
- Q9. Are you satisfied with Kalima's choice of its translators and staff?
- Q10. Are you satisfied about the selection of books?
- Q11. Does Kalima have a periodic plan for training?

Appendix D: General Guidelines for proofreading at Kalima (translated from Arabic)

Important Information

Dear colleagues,

It is strictly requested from you to abide by the following guidelines as you proofread books published by Kalima:

- To ensure that the book overall is to comply with the Emirati, the Arabic and the Islamic cultures, and in the event whereby the contents do not comply with the above, please highlight by referring to the page numbers and this include texts, illustrations and maps
- To Review the Tables of Contents ensuring the page numbers and headings in the book is exactly as stated in the contents, without a single word difference
- To divide the lengthy paragraphs
- To specify the position of the ambiguous texts in the book that require further clarification
- To make sure the English sentences are written on one single line
- To add the nunation marks to words inflicting with accusative case
- In the case of children books, diacritics should be inserted to the words
- To ensure that all punctuation marks are used correctly
- To use the red pen only when proofreading
- After receiving the changes made from the first review, a second review is required and only pages that were not corrected the first time should be removed and sent to the typist
- To provide your personal opinion on the book (when required) with full honesty which includes feedback regarding the language used in the book, the style of writing, weakness points, whether it achieves its goal or not, and finally, whether the book was interesting or not
- To ensure that the book Overview at the back of the book is describing the contents of the book efficiently

To avoid redundant repetition occurring within the same paragraph or within the same page by either omitting or replace them with alternative words and/ or sentences that are adequate to the context

Appendix E: Proofreader and editor notes

شذرة الحياة

(Kerry Packer)، وهو ملياردير مشهور بشخصيته الحادة والمثيرة للخلاف، يتوقّف القلب في أثناء لعب البولو. وتشاء المصادفة أن يكون في سيارة الإسعاف التي حضرت إلى المكان مزيل محمول للرجفان. ومع أن باكر توفي سريراً لعدة دقائق، فإنه نجا وبقي على قيد الحياة. ويزعم أنه قال عن تجربته على شفا الموت، «الخبر الجيد أنه لا يوجد شيطان. والخبر السيئ أنه لا توجد جنة». وفي أعقاب تعافيه، تبرّع بمبلغ كبير (2.5 مليون دولار أسترالي) لتجهيز نصف سيارات الإسعاف في ولاية نيو ساوث ويلز بمزيلات همولة للرجفان، شرط أن تدفع الحكومة النصف الآخر. ونتيجة لذلك أصبحت هذه الآلات تعرف بالعامية باسم «باكر واكرز» (Packer whackers). ويدين العديد من الأستراليين بحياتهم لإحسانه.

في السنوات الأخيرة، انتشرت مزيلات الرجفان، وتتوافر أنواع جديدة منها يمكن أن يستخدمها مشغّلون غير طبيين. وفي المملكة المتحدة، توجد في محطات القطارات، وعلى متن الطائرات، وفي الأماكن العامة الأخرى. وعلى الرغم من أن أشهر مزيلات الرجفان أجهزة خارجية توضع على الصدر، فإنه تتوافر أيضاً أجهزة صغيرة جداً قابلة للغرس للأشخاص الذين يتعرّضون لمخاطر الرجفان. تراقب هذه الأجهزة نظم القلب باستمرار، وتصدر عند الضرورة صدمة كهربائية لإعادته إلى حالته السوية. ويستطيع الأشخاص الذين لديهم مزيلات رجفان مغروسة العيش حياة سوية مؤمنة بمعرفتهم أن لديهم «منقذ حياة» مبيّناً في أجسادهم. وتصدر هذه في الظاهر صدمة قوية يقال إن الشعور بها شبيه بالضرب بالإبهام على الصدر.

أرجو النظر
والإجازة
أو عدمها

Appendix F: Proofreader and editor notes

شرارة الحياة

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ناموس:
 (د) نسخة عن الكتاب
 (ع) نسخة عن المؤلف

Appendix H.1: Proofreader corrections

المحتويات

19..... مقدمة المحرر

21..... مقدمة المترجمة

25..... الفصل الأول

مقدمة- سلسلة النسب- عائلة نورثوب- الميلاد والأبوة-
 ميتاس نورثوب- الزواج من آن هامبتون- قرارات جيدة-
 قناة شامبلين- الأطواف - الرحلة إلى كندا - الزراعة-
 الكيان- الطهي- الانتقال إلى ساراتوغا- باركر وبيري- العيد
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35..... الفصل الثاني

الغريبان- شركة السيرك- مغادرة ساراتوغا- الحيلة والحداد-
 الرحلة إلى نيويورك- أوراق الحرية- براون وهاملتون-
 الإسراع للوصول إلى السيرك- الوصول إلى واشنطن- جنازة
 هاريسون- المرض المفاجئ- عذاب العطش- خضوت الضوء-
 فقدان الشعور- السلام والظلام

47..... الفصل الثالث

أنكار مؤلمة- جيمس إنش بيرتش- حفلة العيد الخاصة
 بوليام في واشنطن- راد بيرن الخادم- تأكيد حريتي- الغضب

Appendix H.2: Proofreader corrections

<p>العبيد- النيل المجوز من نيو أورليانز- بيع فيفيد وكارولين وليشي- الاقتراف عن راندال وايزا- الجديري- المشتفي- الشفاء والعودة إلى حظيرة العبيد الخاصة بقرمان- مشتري ايزا وهاري وبلات- حزن ايزا لفراق ليجلي الصغيرة</p> <p>95 الفصل التاسع</p> <p>الباخرة وودلف- الرجل عن نيو أورليانز- وايم فورد- الوصول إلى الإسكندرية على رد ريفر- القوارب- جريت باين ووذر- الماشية اليربة- مسكن مارتن الصغي- طريق تكساس- الوصول إلى منزل السيد فورد- روز- السيدة فورد- سالي وايتاها- جون الطامي- والتر رسام وأنتوني- الطواحين على إثنين كريك- أيام البيت- تحزل سام- جزاء المعروف- صنع الأطواف- آدم تايدم/ الرجل الأبيض الصغير- كاسكالا وقيلاته- الحفل الهندي- جون م. تيبينس- اقتراب العاصفة</p> <p>109 الفصل التاسع</p> <p>اضطراب أحوال فورد- البيع لتيبينس- وهن العبد- مزرعة السيدة فورد على بايو بوف- وصف الأخيرة- صهر فورد بيتر تاتز- لقاء ايزا- لا تزال حزينة على مطلقها- شايين، المشرف لدى فورد- إسماع تيبينس- برميل المسامر- العراك الأول مع تيبينس- الحرف والغاب- محاولة شقي- تدخل شايين والحرف- أفكار سعيدة- الرجل المقاضي- تيبينس وكوك وزامزي- لاسون والبلع البني- رسالة إلى باين ووذر</p> <p>11</p>	<p>من التاجر- السوط والغاب- الملك- معارف جدد- راي وويليام ورائدال- وصول ليجلي الصغيرة وأنها إلى الحظيرة- أحران أم- نصة ايزا</p> <p>99 الفصل الرابع</p> <p>أحران ايزا- الاستعداد للركوب- القيادة عبر شوارع واشتلن- مرسيا كولويسيا- قبر واشتلن- كليم واي- الإنظار على متن القارب- الطيور السعيدة- أكوبا كريك- فريدوكسيغ- الوصول إلى ريتشموند- طوفين وحظيرة العبد الخاصة به- روبرت من سينتالي- فيفيد وزوجته- ماري وليشي- عودة كليم- قراره إلى كندا- سفينة أورليانز- جيمس بيرتش</p> <p>69 الفصل الخامس</p> <p>الوصول إلى نورفولك- فريدوك وماريا- آرثر الرجل الحر- التعيين في وظيفة خادم- جيم وكوق وجيني- المعاصنة- ضفاف الياهاما- المدوة- الزايرة- القارب الطويل- الجديري- وفاة روبرت- مانتخ البخار- اللقاء في فورتكاسل- الخطاب- الوصول إلى نيو أورليانز- إنقاذ آرثر- ثيوفيلرس فرمان، المرسل إليه- بلات- الليلة الأولى في حظيرة العبيد في نيو أورليانز</p> <p>81 الفصل السادس</p> <p>منايرة فريمان- النظافة والملابس- التدريب في غرفة العرض- الرقص- بوب عازف الكيان- وصول الزبائن- فحص</p> <p>10</p>
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Appendix H.3: Proofreader corrections

<p>مزرعة إلدزت- رحلة إلى بيع كين بريك- تقليد حفل ساتون- أشجار الغابة- الجوض والناموس- وصول النساء السود إلى بيع كين- نساء قطع الأشجار- الظهور الفاجع لتيبينس- معاملته المستنزفة- زيارة بايو بوف- تصريح العبد- الكرم الجنوبي- قصة ايزا تصل إلى جانيها- البيع إلى اثنين لبس</p> <p>163 الفصل الثاني عشر</p> <p>الظهور الشخصي ل- إيس- إيس محموداً وشعلاً- لحظة عن تاريخه- نمو القطن- حرق وإعداد الأرض- عن الزراعة وعزق الأرض، والحصاد، والتعامل مع الأيدي العاملة الجديدة- الاختلافات بين جامعي القطن- باتشي وقنزها عن الآخرين- تحديد المهمة وفق القدرة- جمال حفل القطن- عائلة العبيد- الحرف من الاقتراب من مجاج القطن- الوزن- الجلود- حياة الكوخ- طاحونة الدرة- استخدام البقطن- الحرف من الإطراف في الترم- الحرف المستمر- طريقة زراعة الدرة- البطاطا الحلوة- تسميد التربة- تسمين الخنازير- حفظ لحم الخنزير- تربية الماشية- مباريات الصيد- منتجات الحديدية- الأهرام والحضرة</p> <p>177 الفصل الثالث عشر</p> <p>مقبض التماس الغريب- أعراض الإصابة بالمرض- الاستمرار في التراجع- الجلد غير الفعال- البقاء في الكوخ- زيارة الطبيب وايزا- المشاء الجزئي- الإحراق في جمع القطن- ما يمكن ساعه عن مزرعة إيس- زيادة الجلدات- إيس في مزاج الجلد- إيس في مزاج الرقص- وصف الرقص- الحاجة إلى الراحة</p> <p>18</p>	<p>121 الفصل التاسع</p> <p>الشمس الحارقة- استمرار القيد- الأحيال تفرص في لحمي- عدم ارتياح شايين- التأمل- راشيل وقذح الماء- زيادة العناية- السعادة في المبردية- وصول فورد- قطع الحبال التي تقيدن رازاتها عن عمي- بوس- اجتماع العبيد في كوخ ايزا- العطف من جانبهم- راشيل تسرد أحداث اليوم- لاسون يسلي رفاقه بقصة فراره- فهم شايين لتيبينس- التأجير لبيتر تاتز- بيتر يشرح للكتاب المقدس- وصف أداة التعذيب الحكيمة</p> <p>133 الفصل العاشر</p> <p>العودة إلى تيبينس- استحالة إرضائه- هجومه على بناس صغيرة- النزاع على التماس- الميل إلى قتله- القرار عبر المزرعة- الرقبة من السور- اقتراب تيبينس بتبعه الكلاب- تعقب أترى- نباحها العالي- كادت تمسك بي- وصولي إلى الماء- ارتباك الكلاب- الأمامي ذات الجرس- التماسيح- النيل في منتقع جريت باكرودي سواب- أصوات الحياة- الطريق الشائلي الغربي- الظهور في باين ووذر- العبد وسيد الصغير- الوصول إلى مزرعة فورد- الطعام والراحة</p> <p>147 الفصل الحادي عشر</p> <p>حديقة السيدة- الثمرة القرمزية والذهبية- أشجار البرتقال والرمان- العودة إلى بايو بوف- ملاحظات السيد فورد لتأنيده الطريق- لقاء تيبينس- روايته عن المطاردة- فورد يلوم عليه مخلصه- الوصول إلى المزرعة- دمتة العبيد عند رؤيته- الجلد المتوقع- كنتاكي جون- السيد إلدزت، مزاج- سام لدى</p> <p>12</p>
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Appendix H.4: Proofreader corrections

<p>ومناقشوه- آقاني العبيد- الحياة الجنوبية كما هي- ثلاثة أيام في العام- نظام الزواج- العم أبرام- ازدره الزواج</p> <p>221 الفصل السادس عشر</p> <p>الشرقون- أسلحتهم وصحتهم- القتال- اعتقاله في ماركسفل- مشرفو العبيد- التعيين مشرفاً عند الانتقال إلى بايو يوف- التدريب فيجد جيداً- محاولة إيس قطع عنق بيلات- المرار منه- الحيازة من قبل السيدة- حظر الكتابة والقرأة- الحصول على ورقة بيضاء بعد محاولات تسع سنوات- الخطاب- أرزماي، الرجل الأبيض- الإفصاح جزئياً له- حياته- أرتياب إيس- كيف هذا الأمر- حرف الخطاب- رحيل أرزماي عن بايو- إحياء وبأس</p> <p>233 الفصل السابع عشر</p> <p>ويلى يتعامل نصائح العمه فيبي والعم أبرام، والحراس يتكلمون به- تنظيم ومهام الحراس- فرار ويلى- التكهات بشأنه- عودته المفاجئة- اعتقاله في رديتر وحسنه في سجن الإسكندرية- العثور عليه من قبل جوزيف بي ووبرتس- إضغاع الكلاب توقفاً للهرب- اللاجئون في جرت باين وودز- الاعتقال من قبل آدم تايم وهنود- الكلاب تقتل أوجستس- نيل، أمة إلدردت- قصة سيلستي- الانتقال التفتق عليه- ليونثيني المخادع- فكرة العصيان المسلح</p> <p>247 الفصل الثامن عشر</p> <p>أوتيل تاتر- سماع الحديث مع العمه فيبي- إيس في أعمال</p> <p>13</p>	<p>ليست عذراً- سات إيس- جيم بيرنز- الانتقال من هاف باور إلى بايو يوف- وصف العم أبرام، وويل، والعمه فيبي، وبيوب، وهنري، وادوارد ويانسي، مع ذكر أنساب كل منهم- نبذة عن تاريخهم وسياهم الخاصة- الغيرة والشهوة- باتسي الضحية</p> <p>191 الفصل الرابع عشر</p> <p>وصف محصول القطن في عام 1843- الطلب على عمال في أريشبة سانت ماري- الإرسال إلى هناك في عربة- الأمر بالسير- البيت الكبير- التأجير للقاضي تيزنو في بايو سال- التعيين كمشرف في مصنع السكر الخاص به- خدمات يوم الأحد- أثار العبيد وكيف يتم الحصول عليه- حفل باين في سنترفل- حظ سعيد- قبطان الباهرة- رفض إسماعلي- العودة إلى بايو يوف- مشاهدة تينس- أحزان باتسي- اضطراب وجدال- مظاهرة الراكون والأبوسوم- تحب الأبوسوم- الحالة المزمنة للعبيد- وصف فتح الأسماك- مقتل الرجل من ناتشر- مارشال يتعدى إيس- تأثير العبودية- حب الحرية</p> <p>207 الفصل الخامس عشر</p> <p>العمل في مزارع السكر- طريقة زراعة القصب- حصاد القصب- أكرام القصب- قطع القصب- وصف سكنين القصب- وضعه في كومات- الأعداد للمحصول التالي- وصف مصنع هوكنز للسكر في بايو يوف- عطلات عيد الميلاد- موسم الكرنفالات للعبيد الصغار- عشاء عيد الميلاد- الأحمر هو اللون المفضل- الكيان والسلوى التي يقدمها- رقصة عيد الميلاد- المرأة المدللة النابضة بالحياة- سام روبرتس</p> <p>14</p>
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Appendix H.5: Proofreader corrections

<p>بارد- تهديدات إيس- العربة المأزجة- أغراب يقتربون من حفل القطن- الساعة الأخيرة في بايو يوف</p> <p>285 الفصل الحادي والعشرون</p> <p>الخطاب يصل إلى سارترغا- الخطاب يصل إلى آن- يوضع أمام هنري بي نورثوب- قانون 14 مايو 1840- أحكامه- مذكرة آن إلى الحاكم- الإفادات المرفقة بها- خطاب سيناتور سولي- مغادرة الوكيل الذي عينه الحاكم- الوصول إلى ماركسفل- المؤرخ جون بي وأديل- حوار سياسيات نيويورك- اقتراح فكرة جيدة- اللقاء مع باس- اكتشاف السر- الإجراءات القانونية المحددة- مغادرة نورثوب والشريف من ماركسفل إلى بايو يوف- الترتيبات أثناء الطريق- الوصول إلى مزرعة إيس- اكتشاف العبيد في حفل القطن- اللقاء- الوداع</p> <p>307 الفصل الثاني والعشرون</p> <p>الوصول إلى نيو أورليانز- ملاحم رجل حر- جنوا، فلم التسجيل- وصفه لسولون- الوصول إلى شارلستون بقطعه المسؤولون في مصلحة الجمارك- المرور عبر ريتشموند- الوصول إلى واشنطن- اعتقال بيرتش- شيكلز وتون- إقاديها- إيراة ذمة بيرتش- اعتقال سولون- سحب بيرتش للمشكوى- المحكمة العليا- الرحيل من واشنطن- الوصول إلى ساندي هل- الأصدقاء القدامى والمشاهد المألوفة- المضي إلى غليتز فولز- لقاء آن، ومارغريت، ولليزابيث- موقف سولون نورثوب- أحداث- الخاتمة</p> <p>17</p>	<p>الديباقة- طعن العم أبرام- الجرح البغيض- إيس غيوراً- باتسي مفقودة- عودتها من مزرعة شو- هاريت، زوجة شو السوداء- غضب إيس- باتسي تكرر اتهامات- قيدها عارية في أربعة أرباع- الجلد غير الأدمي- باتسي تفقد الوعي- جمال اليوم- دلو الماء الملح- الثوب المغطى بالدماء- حزن باتسي- أفكارها عن الرب والحلود- عن الجنة والحرية- تأثير جلد العبيد- ابن إيس الأكبر- "الولد سز آبيه"</p> <p>239 الفصل التاسع عشر</p> <p>أقرب، في بايو روج- غرابة المسكن- إيس يبنى منزلاً جديداً- باس النجار- سياته النبيلة- ظهوره الشخصي وتصرفاته الغريبة- باس وإيس يناقشان مسألة العبودية- رأي إيس في باس- تعريفه بنفسه- حديثنا- اتدعاه- لقاء منتصف الليل على شفة النهر- تأكيدات باس- إعلان الحرب على العبودية- لماذا لم أقصع عن تاريخي- باس يكتب الخطابات- نسخة من خطابة إلى السادة باركر وبيري- تحن الشكل- الإحباطات- باس يسعى إلى الترويح عن- إيمان وثقتي به</p> <p>275 الفصل العشرون</p> <p>باس ياتزم بوعده- وصوله في عشية عيد الميلاد- صعوبة لقائه- اللقاء في الكوخ- الخطاب لم يصل- باس يعلن اعترافه المضي إلى الشمال- أعياد الميلاد- الحوار بين إيس وباس- السيدة ماكوي الصغيرة، جميلة بايو يوف- العشاء المثالي- الميسقي والرخص- وجود السيدة- جاما الفائق- قصة العبيد الأخيرة- وليام بيرس- إفراطي في النوم- المجلد الأخير- الاكتاب- صباح</p> <p>16</p>
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Appendix I: Space at the top of the introduction page of TT4a

المقدمة

في الثاني من تشرين الأول من عام 2001، تولت شارلوت بيرز (Charlotte Beers)، المديرة للتقنية في مجال الإعلام سابقاً، قيادة جهود وزارة الخارجية الأمريكية لتحسين التواصل مع العالم العربي، وذلك بعد مرور أقل من شهر على وقوع أسوأ هجوم إرهابي في تاريخ الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية. بدأت بيرز حياتها المهنية كمديرة لقسم الإنتاج في شركة أريز لعم بينز (Uncle Ben's Rice) وكانت تلك بداية متواضعة لشخصية مثيرة للإعجاب مثل شارلوت بيرز. تفاعلت بيرز في عام 1997 وكانت حينها تكتل منصب نائب رئيس قسم التسويق في شركة أوغلي وماتير (Ogilvy and Mather)*. وفي العام ذاته ظهرت بيرز على غلاف مجلة فورشن (Fortune) في عددها الذي خصص للحديث عن أقوى النساء في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية. وعندما تولت منصب وكيل وزارة الخارجية حيث كانت مسؤولة عن إدارة الدبلوماسية الخارجية والعلاقات الدولية، رهن البيت الأبيض على فترة بيرز - التي تمتعت بخبرة طويلة في قيادة حملات للترويج لشابو هيد أند شولدرز (Head and Shoulders) وبطاقات أميركان إكسپرس الائتمانية- على خلق صورة جديدة للولايات المتحدة الأمريكية في ذلك الجزء من العالم، حيث كنا بحاجة ماسة إلى إثبات حسن النية ودفع دول هذا الإقليم على التعاون معنا.

لقد عولت كثيراً على فترة بيرز على الرغم من أن العديد من زملائي ممن اقتصوا في شؤون الشرق الأوسط كانوا متشككين للغاية بالنسبة لهذا الأمر. لم تعمل بيرز في واشنطن من قبل وكانت خبرتها في شؤون الشرق الأوسط هزيلة، ولكنني أركبت أيضاً أنها إذا التزمت بقواعد عالمها

* شركة أوغلي وماتير، وكالة عالمية تفتتح بالإعلانات والتسويق والعلقات العامة. يقع في واشنطن وتحتلها معرفة و با ب (WPP Group) (المتجمع).

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