



universität
wien

MASTERARBEIT / MASTER'S THESIS

Titel der Masterarbeit / Title of the Master's Thesis

“Outsourcing and the Rise of the Translation Agency”

A study of the impacts of globalised networking on translation management

verfasst von / submitted by

Susana Vega

angestrebter akademischer Grad / in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts (MA)

Wien, im August 2017 / Vienna, August 2017

Studienkennzahl lt. Studienblatt /
degree programme code as it appears on
the student record sheet:

A 060 331 345

Studienrichtung lt. Studienblatt /
degree programme as it appears on
the student record sheet:

Masterstudium Übersetzen Deutsch Französisch

Betreut von / Supervisor:

Univ. –Prof. Michèle Cooke

Mitbetreut von / Co-Supervisor:

Content

0. Introduction	1
1. Definitions: Translators vs. Translation Agencies.....	3
1.1. Translators	3
1.1.1. Translation Agencies.....	4
2. The Advent of the Internet and its Effects on Translation Services	6
2.1. Teleworking	7
2.1.1. Pre-processing, Storage and Transmission.....	8
2.2. Communication Undergoes Transformation.....	10
2.2.1. Computer-mediated and Translation-mediated Communication	11
2.3. The Changing Face of the Translator's Job Profile.....	13
2.3.1. Who is Involved: a Functionalist Viewpoint.....	14
2.4. The Translation Agency in the Technological Era.....	17
2.4.1. Computer Supported Cooperative Work and the Translation Agency of Today	18
2.4.2. Translation Agencies and Varying Degrees of Online Presence	21
2.4.3. A Case Study of Networks, Hierarchies and Project Management in a Translation Agency	23
2.4.3.1. Cooperative Partners and the Importance of Electronic Communication Tools.....	26
2.4.3.2. Project Management Software.....	28
2.5. Chapter Conclusion	32
3. The Market Economy, Virtual Translation Networks and their Effects on Coordinating Collaboration within the Translation Industry.....	34
3.1. Competition Goes Global.....	35
3.1.1. MOC and Crowdsourcing	37
3.2. Market Demands and the Rise of Localisation	40
3.2.1. Localisation and Project Management Requirements	43

3.2.2. Project Scope and Cooperative Partners in Communication Networks	45
3.3. Getting ahead and Bourdieu's Theory of Capital.....	48
3.3.1. ProZ vs Translation Agencies	53
3.4. Tighter Controls for Translation Management.....	57
3.4.1. Quality Management Norms	58
3.4.2. Norms for Technical Resources and Project Management	61
3.4.3. Norms, Translational Action and Who is Officially Involved	63
3.5. Chapter Conclusion	66
4. Globalisation, the Increasing Need for Translation and the Advent of Internet-based Outsourcing	68
4.1. Globalisation, Politically-driven Multilingualism and the Greater Need for Translation	69
4.2. Coordinating Outsourcing and Time-to-Market Demands	72
4.2.1. Content Management Systems, Time-to-Market and Related Management Requirements.....	75
4.3. The Virtual Office, Outsourcing and the Use and Coordination of Machine Translation	80
4.3.2. The Need for Human Involvement in Machine Translation	83
4.3.2.1. CAT Tools and the Translation Agency.....	83
4.3.2.2. Google Translate, the Purposes of Machine Translation and Post-Editing.....	87
4.4. The Translation Agency in a World of Disintermediation and English as a “Lingua Franca”	90
4.5. Chapter Conclusion.....	95
5. Conclusion	97
Bibliography.....	101
Index.....	112
Tables.....	112
Figures.....	112
Abstract.....	114

0. Introduction

This work aims to explore the increasing role of translation agencies in the globalised, IT-driven translation industry of today and tomorrow. It aims to highlight the facility with which communication takes place and the greater management and coordination necessary in a globalised, increasingly outsourced profession. Arguably, translation agencies will be in the best position possible to dedicate the resources necessary to manage and compete on an ever-changing and widely accessible market.

Information technology and its subsequent facilitation of outsourcing will be further explored in this work. IT provides more and more people today with the opportunity to establish a type of micro-enterprise, even if it is mostly located online. As translators seek to emancipate themselves and proffer their services on online platforms, well-established hierarchies and structures within the profession seem to be undergoing modification. This work explores the shifting face of these hierarchies and structures, from the classic relationship between customers, translation agencies and translators, to a modern-day one involving global connections, networks and partnerships. An expanding online market, which allows access to translation service providers all over the world can seem like a boon, but, as this work will explore, can swiftly turn into a myriad of confusion for all those involved, particularly the end customer. This work argues that having a translation agency take the helm of supplying and being responsible for translation services is the outcome which the current global and technological climate is heading towards.

This work will look at the different demands placed on translation itself and how they have changed with the advent of the Internet. It will look at how technology and software have evolved over time and how those in the translation industry have had to adapt in order to firstly be able to use it and then to be able to invest capital in it, as demands grow to acquire and possess the latest software. It will argue that translation agencies are becoming increasingly primed to invest in and manage emerging technology and software necessary for the modern-day processing of translations.

This work looks at the shift towards computer-mediated communication and computer-supported cooperative work, as explored by Ashworth and O'Hagan. From the humble email and how it revolutionised communication, permitting the instant exchange of information and documents across the globe, to real-time translation of online documents and websites that can be accessed instantly by multiple parties, such as on content management systems; this work will explore how this has enabled and even promoted the global outsourcing model in the translation industry. Using Risku's case study of a small-sized translation agency located in Vienna, this work will also build on the assumption and copious evidence showing that the nature of translation today is increasingly global, technologised, its

business model tending more towards outsourcing. It will be argued that translation agencies will be able to best manage the increasingly complex workflow, with the growing number of international players involved in it.

The value of reliability and quality guarantee will also be explored in this work. Taking Hofstede's criteria of cultural workflow differences into consideration, this work aims to highlight the different levels of comprehension necessary and, ultimately, concessions that have to be made when working with increasingly multi-cultural partners. This work will look at how the global nature of translation is engendering larger project scopes, more experts and interdisciplinary fields that need to be addressed and catered for in the translation industry. Models of cooperation will be further explored as well as global competition on online platforms and networks, MOC and crowdsourcing, to name but a few. It will be argued thus that the need is rising for a managing body, such as a translation agency, that can invest the resources, the cultural and financial capital necessary to manage such large project scopes, to liaise and coordinate experts from different fields and cultures, and furthermore provide quality assurance.

This necessity for more quality assurance has engendered quality management norms and standards, such as the ISO norms for translation service providers and project management. This work will look at what they entail and will argue that translation agencies are best qualified to provide quality guarantees to customers, who may be increasingly concerned and confused about who they are employing for their translation requirements.

Finally, this work will briefly look at whether there will be a need for translation at all in future. It will be argued that the trend towards English as a lingua franca or bilingualism will not diminish the need for translation services. It will be posited that in fact more translation services will be required as instant access to texts becomes more available to people across the world, who are writing in their own languages and want translations of shared information on the Internet. The increasing use of online translation tools, such as Google Translate will be looked at as well as the phenomenon of machine-assisted translation and how much human involvement is necessary, if at all. It will be argued that there is a general trend towards what is termed human-aided machine translation, whereby proofreading, amendments and quality control of partly machine translated texts will become prevalent. The tendency towards the outsourcing model will entail outsourcing of this human-led proof-reading work in future, which thanks to greater management resources can best be carried out by a translation agency.

The need to meet the demands of shifting communication structures and hierarchies within the translation industry as well as the prevalence of outsourcing engendered by the advent of the Internet, are arguably best being manipulated by translation agencies right now and this tendency will probably increase in future.

1. Definitions: Translators vs. Translation Agencies

Before embarking on this work it is necessary to set out and clearly define the terms of the role of the translator and that of the translation agency, as the way these two interact will be constantly scrutinized within the body of this work.

1.1. Translators

The intention in this section is to clearly delineate the concept of the translator's function at its most basic level and not to enter into detail regarding the increased and evolving demands placed on translators. The following definition is that of how the translator has been viewed in the past; this work aims to highlight how multi-faceted the roles of translators and translation agencies have become and how they are constantly expanding and developing to reflect the progressive needs of the modern communication climate. The modern translator is indeed pulling away from the traditional views many have held of them in the past decades.

Samuelsson-Brown describes the role of the translator as follows:

“Not only does the translator need to have the command of at least one source language and a target language plus a subject knowledge in these languages, he needs the skills to use the I.T. tools that are indispensable for the element of the work to be done” (2006:1).

Today this could be seen as the skeleton of what a translator does. Samuelsson-Brown sees the translator as the linguistic and cultural broker who, furthermore, needs to possess a knowledge of the latest I.T. communication tools. Holz-Mänttari (1984) in her theory of “translational action” describes the translator as facilitating the process of intercultural communication in order to bring about functional, cooperative interaction, producing an end text capable of functioning appropriately in specific contexts (http://fse.tibiscus.ro/anale/Lucrari2013/Lucrari_vol_XIX_2013_093.pdf). This work will be borrowing these two concepts of the role of the translator and will further combine them with the practical description as given by Risku (2009). Risku's job description for the “*Einzelübersetzer*”, i.e. the individual or freelance translator, is one of being first and foremost occupied with text production and proof-reading duties “*Sie sind...mit der Zieltextgestaltung beschäftigt, arbeiten aber auch als Lektoren und lesen nicht nur die eigenen, sondern vor allem auch die Texte anderer Übersetzer korrektur*” (2009:179).

The “translator” as referred to in this work, will be either working as a freelance translator, which means interacting with one or more customers or translation agencies. Or they will be an in-house translator, working in an office with other colleagues within the

same company, to produce translation products. These two are the types of translator being observed in this work as they are both dependent on technology and global networks in order to carry out their work.

Suffice it to say, there are many different types of translators, working in many different milieus and in various fields of expertise. The types of translator most salient to this work, however, will be the freelance translator and the in-house translator, regardless of what field of expertise they cover. There is, of course, a plethora of other functions translators are expected to fulfil these days, and the changing face of these expectations will be addressed further on.

1.1.1. Translation Agencies

In “Managing Translation Services” (2006), author Samuelsson-Brown decided to simplify the definition of a translation service provider to that of “translation agency”. He uses this term to encompass a hybrid of services provided by a “translation agency” and a “translation company”, and the same will be applied for the purposes of this work. Both terms, however, require further clarification:

...a translation agency acts as a broker by passing translation assignments to suitable freelancers and charging the customer for providing a brokerage service. The agency may not have the skills or capacity to perform any translation quality control and is totally reliant on the integrity and skills of the translator (2006:36).

The “translation company” on the other hand

“...will have in-house translators and checkers for a specific range of languages, but, in all probability, will also act as a broker of translation services that are not covered by in-house resources” (2006:36).

To summarise, a translation agency acts purely as a broker of services whereas a translation company has its own in-house production resources. Samuelsson-Brown emphasises, however, that in practice, most translation service providers fall in between the two definitions and will have to broker resources in order to provide added value through project management, document engineering and additional quality control, for example (2006:38). The added value services, as we shall see, are becoming an indispensable component in providing translation services these days and translation agencies have adapted to fulfil growing pressures and requirements placed on the translation industry. Cronin sees the role of the translation agency to be that of intermediary, working as *“lubricants of exchange, mediating in some sense between people, knowledge, money”* (2003:47). The reason for

keeping to one specific term, i.e. that of “translation agency” in this work, is to differentiate translation service providers from the individuals carrying out the linguistic translations or those providing individual translation services.

In the following sections, the individual functions and types of translation agencies will be analysed and explained in more detail, as will the ever-evolving method of communication between translators, translation agencies and customers due to the advent of the Internet.

2. The Advent of the Internet and its Effects on Translation Services

The advent of the Internet and the more recent penetration of mobile networks are now something most translators take for granted. (O'Hagan 2006: 1).

The Internet is a phenomenon which hardly needs any introduction or explanation in these modern times. It has indeed become a tool which a lot of us have learnt to take for granted and which permeates our society, constantly finding new functions and modes of employment in our everyday lives. With the technological revolution of the late 1970s, the Internet grew out of the emergence of PC software to form a vital tool for the burgeoning new informational economy (Cronin 2003:11). This informational economy works concomitantly with the market economy, which is global in its nature, founded on a vast network of worldwide exchanges of information and goods (Cronin 2003:11). The Internet is a multimedia hypertext system, which comprises a set of protocols that allow multimedia documents to be created and accessed from any connected device in the world. It “*supports hypertext, graphics, sound and movies and uses a language called HTML to structure and describe information*” (Abowd et al. 1998:596). The worldwide web today, in 2017, is indeed available on a number of devices, the “information superhighway” can be accessed on a PC or from one’s own pocket on a mobile device, at home, or on the road. It is little wonder then, that the Internet as a global form of communication and disseminator of information has had a profound impact on many forms of communication.

This chapter will look primarily at the impacts of the Internet on the translation industry within the framework of communication, teleworking and the daily processing of translations. It will explore the emergence of software and ICT for communicative purposes and how these have permeated the industry, generated new roles for translators and seen the creation and prominence of the modern-day translation agency. It will discuss the new roles created by the advent of the Internet in terms of Holz-Mänttari’s theory of functionalism and how the translation agency has adapted itself to and is becoming best suited to exploiting the benefits in communication afforded by the technological era. The types of translation services and the varying degrees of agencies’ online presence will be looked at as well as the expanding network of cooperating partners involved in the translation process nowadays. What niche is the translation agency occupying in today’s globalised high-tech society? How is it being aided by ICT and how is it best suited to making use of it in regards to its relationship with customers and freelancers? This chapter will argue that the rise of the Internet and technology for communication has entailed a greater need for management thereof, which a translation agency can best carry out.

2.1. Teleworking

The Internet has arguably replaced the pen and paper as a form of disseminating information for translators. Knowledge of information technology has become an indispensable part of a translator's toolbox, along with the ability to utilise and manage all the opportunities and constantly changing technological and media landscapes available on the worldwide web *"the translation industry itself has become a global operation that champions the telework mode"* (O'Hagan and Ashworth 2002). The term *"teleworking"* coined by O'Hagan and Ashworth describes a mode in which translators work, brought about by the advent of new technologies and the creation of electronic networks. These electronic networks reached a *"planetary scale"* (Cronin 2003:17) with the emergence and establishment of the Internet, thus making the Internet almost impossible to consider outside the context of globalisation. The translation industry, which is heavily reliant on the Internet, as ascertained above, has therefore also been catapulted onto the global stage and operates on a global scale. Indeed it has been described by O'Hagan as a *"global network linking text and translators, as well as translation tools, on the one hand, and the service to the customer on the other"* (2006).

"Teletranslation" is the product of this global network, generating interaction and creating a co-existence of technology and service, which translators and translation agencies have to learn to manage simultaneously and all within a global network (O'Hagan 2006:2). Teletranslation evolved together with the rise of the Internet, which has created the foundations for e-commerce, localisation and a *"significant cyberspace presence"* leading to a world of *"clicks and mortar"*, as translation agencies increasingly establish themselves on the virtual marketplace (O'Hagan and Ashworth 2002:81). Translation agencies themselves act as e-commerce companies these days and it seems they are investing ever more heavily in technological innovation to establish an online presence as a direct response to the new demands generated by the advent of new globalised technology (O'Hagan and Ashworth 2002:81).

The information technology revolution required new tools for the new economy it was generating and these days these new tools comprise different forms of information technology (Cronin 2003:11). Modifications and updates in software and globalised technologies are in constant flux, indeed the field of translation finds itself moving into what O'Hagan and Ashworth describe as a digital environment *"consisting of process, storage and transmission functions"*, linked with the new demands placed on translators which involve more *"pre-processing issues"* (2002:33). The following section will look closely at what these pre-processing issues entail and how they are linked to the *"teleworking"* era and the relationship between translators, translation agencies and tools.

2.1.1. Pre-processing, Storage and Transmission

Das Ziel der Tool-Entwicklung sind die Schaffung von Hilfsmittel für kooperatives Handeln, die Vereinfachung von Arbeitsprozessen und Informationsflüssen, die Unterstützung der Verfügbarkeit adäquater Informationen und die Schaffung von genug Raum für flexible Lösungen. (Risku 2009:21).

As previously discussed, within the lifecycle of a document undergoing translation, IT tools and globalised communication networks have become an indispensable part of the process. Indeed, as Risku points out above, the development of new tools should be to aid and support the cooperative and communicative function comprised in the act of translation. IT tools can indeed provide that support, yet translators must firstly possess them and learn to use them effectively. Translators today require what O'Hagan and Ashworth term "*digital literacy*" (2002: 20) which means they are required to possess an understanding of digital media as well as IT tools. Digital media in this context refers to the forms of communication and transmission of information taking place online and in virtual reality, such as e-mailing and the use of communications media such as skype, which enables video and voice messaging. This gives rise to "*digital communication*" (O'Hagan and Ashworth 2002:24), which requires digital devices in order to take place, such as computers, smart phones and tablets. The Internet then disseminates the information across the world, from device to device, reproducing the documents, which can then be printed out in "*atomic form*" (i.e. paper) or kept in digital form (i.e. web sites) (2002:24). These two forms of documents are what the translators of today have to work with and indeed the modern-day translator is caught between these two forms "*in a transitional phase sitting somewhere between the worlds of analog/atomic and digital/virtual*" (2002:25). O'Hagan and Ashworth's vision of the future back in 2002 was that "*Advancements of communication technologies will mean increased interactions via the digital/virtual world, but this will never eliminate analog/atomic communications*" (2002:25). Thirteen years later, this certainly seems to be the case within the translation industry, mixing the need for a more conventional form of translation i.e. that of paper print-outs and tangible documents with an increasing amount of infiltration by the digital world, with web localisation being a prime example.

Nevertheless, whether the intention of the document is to be used in atomic or digital form, a shift has taken place in how the documents are sent by the customer and received and processed by the translator or translation agency. The latter two will receive most documents via email, thus the software and IT tools required to access and process these documents need to already be available to use. This falls under the category of what Samuelsson-Brown terms "*IT resources management*" and he goes onto say "*It is virtually impossible to run a business without a computer and email resources even at a very simple level*" (2006:13). The

appropriate software needed is constantly being updated, so that whatever is listed here merely reflects a contemporary example of available software and may indeed become obsolete or be upgraded and modified in the very near future. Yet for the purposes of providing current examples of software needed for the “*pre-processing issues*” as described by O’Hagan and Ashworth (2002) the following formats must be known to the translator, who must possess the appropriate software: HTML, RTF, PDF, JPEG, XML, SGML, JavaScript as well as very basic word processing and desktop publishing packages (DTP) such as Microsoft Publisher.

Documents sent in the aforementioned formats can then be stored, this involves them either being saved onto the hard-drive of the computer device or they can be stored on a form of translation memory (TM) which will generate, for example, glossaries. TM will be addressed in more detail in further chapters, specifically in the context of CAT (computer-aided translation) tools but for the purposes of this section it is important to consider TM as a storage function, the software for which needs to be purchased, installed and mastered. This constitutes an investment of time, money and knowledge on the part of the translator and translation agency. Indeed, as previously mentioned, the investment is an ongoing one, as Cronin notes “*In a survey of the professional members of the Irish Translators’ Association it was found that, on average, almost all of the members replaces their PCs, fax machines, modems, printers and software every three years*” (2003: 107). Thus, one could argue that in order to stay abreast of new requirements and changes happening in the world of IT tools in the field of translation, translators and translation agencies need to possess the financial means to be continuously investing in new technology.

The final point in this section revolves around the transmission of documents between customers, translators and translation agencies. These days, transmission takes place in the form of communication technology, which means documents are transmitted in the aforementioned formats to and fro between all those involved in the text production process. Extraction tools are usually available on the server of the computer to which a document is sent and permits the translator or translation agency to access the document in whichever format it happens to be sent. This may sound obvious, but it is important that all those involved in the translation process, from translator to agency to the customer, have the same ease of accessing texts in order to, for example, maintain levels of efficiency.

Technological demands are therefore placed on all those involved in the text production and management process, the way documents are sent and processed has shifted to incorporate forms of information technology at almost every single stage of a document’s lifecycle. Samuelsson-Brown describes his own personal progression into today’s teletranslation era: “*I have gone from writing my translations out by hand which were then copy-typed by a proficient copy-typist...to working directly on a word processor and then progressing to today’s technological wizardry*” (2006:xiii). Evidently, forms of

communication have undergone a transformation process thanks to the advent of new communication technology and the Internet. The following section will address the changes undergone by forms of communication within the translation industry; this is particularly salient to understanding how these are subject to new methods of management. The increased pressure for efficient management of communication has after all been pivotal in raising the position of the translation agency within the industry.

2.2. Communication Undergoes Transformation

Sandrini describes how it has become necessary to incorporate the use of IT tools into an education syllabus for translators undergoing academic training (2004:173). He not only names education in information technology as a necessity for formal training of translators, but also in what he calls the “*WWW*” i.e. the Internet. A reason for this is the high level of penetration of the Internet and communication technology into the field of translation.

Newmark notes:

...since globalisation's instrument is the promotion of increasingly rapid and never flagging technological change, the modes and channels of translation do thereby multiply, change and indeed sometimes disappear (<https://zif.spz.tu-darmstadt.de/jg-08-2-3/beitrag/Newmark1.htm>).

Not only have the modes and channels of translation undergone a transformation thanks to the advent of the Internet, but it would seem that the “*nature of the message itself*” (O'Hagan and Ashworth 2002:51) has been changing too. The previous section dealt largely with the changing forms of transmission, storage and processing of documents, yet forms of communication, i.e. the modes and channels, are also evolving. It is not only important to keep up with these constant changes and adapt to them, but also effectively manage them. The next section argues that the transformation of communication methods has engendered new roles, created to fit in with a new networking climate and that this has seen a shift towards increased manipulation of this climate by translation agencies. The role of the translation agency as well as the freelance translator will be looked at in more detail amid the backdrop of the changing face of communication and the message being communicated nowadays.

2.2.1. Computer-mediated and Translation-mediated Communication

Abbreviated to CMC, computer-mediated communication is the term used for human forms of communication taking place over electronic devices, some examples of which have already been discussed in this work. On one hand, the “modes and channels” of communication have shifted to involve computers and IT tools and on the other, CMC also now represents the way in which information is disseminated and displayed, i.e. in virtual form on the Internet. All at once, paper and letters are replaced by emails and individualised digital forms of communication and texts and images are also available to be accessed online, in real-time, as web documents. Modes and channels of CMC may indeed be multiplying, changing and disappearing in some cases, however, the advent of information technology and the Internet have set a trend in motion, which has not been halted but instead snowballed over the past two decades.

CMC has thus not only revolutionised the way in which translators communicate, but has also created new types of texts to be translated. O’Hagan and Ashworth (2002:51) describe three different types of online texts which can be generalised as “reference texts”, “communicative texts” and “interactive texts” and go on to list examples of these three as being respectively:

- uni-directional communication, i.e. web documents used for reference, information dissemination and gathering.
- E-mail messages sent to individuals or groups in order to attain a response.
- Chat texts, involving two or more individuals in real-time.

These three online text types differentiate themselves in temporal terms as denoting interaction and thus being synchronous, such as chat texts, or they are asynchronous. Asynchronous CMC modes such as websites and emails may or may not elicit responses, (thus some form of interaction), may not always be carried out in real time and suggest a time-lag between responses from the individual recipients of information disseminated in this way. It is important to consider the different text types originating from the Web and whether they are synchronous or asynchronous, as this has spawned a new method of disseminating messages and, as mentioned before, changed the nature of the message itself.

Translators not only have to keep up with the changing technology, message, form of dissemination, but also adapt to new time-pressures brought about by these synchronous and asynchronous forms of communication. New time-pressures brought about by the advent of the Internet will be discussed in a later chapter, however, for the purposes of this section, it is important to bear it in mind regarding how it may impact on the changing message. For

example, web localisation, content management systems (CMS) which allow the translation and updating of websites in real-time, and online text databases, are all new modes and channels of communication impacting translation. The message, originating from the entire new culture which has sprung up around CMC and the globalised digital network is constantly undergoing transformation and is incomparable to what it was in a mainly analog-dominated world forty years ago. These are the results of CMC and the international accessibility of the Internet, and every modern-day translator must adapt and evolve with it in order to keep pace with the competition.

It follows, that the online text types emerging due to CMC also require translation, especially seeing as this communication takes place across the globe. This therefore gives rise to the need for translation-mediated communication (TMC) which provides *“multilingual support for CMC...The Message subject to TMC now includes multimedia, Web sites or text chat”* (O’Hagan and Ashworth 2002:90). Figure 1 depicts this move into the era of teletranslation as one facilitated by and, evidently, requiring TMC.

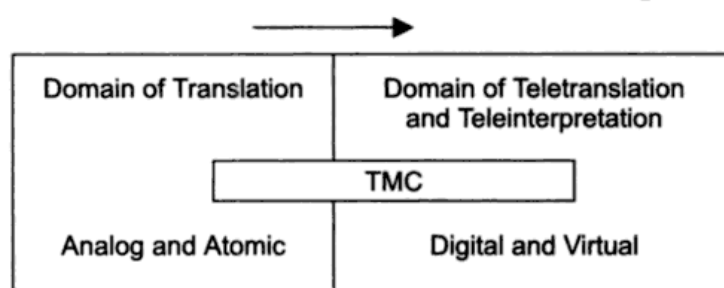


Figure 1 Progression towards teletranslation (O’Hagan and Ashworth 2002:24)

Like CMC, TMC also involves the use of IT tools, more specifically the use of types of software, which have been created as a response to translation needs within the growing modes of CMC. It also stands to reason that TMC will increasingly require digital literacy, especially on behalf of the translator. O’Hagan says that *“the real distinction between TMC in the analog world and that in the digital and virtual world will be made when multimodal communication at a distance becomes the norm where people interact in tele-presence...in a virtual communication space”* (O’Hagan and Ashworth 2002:25). This certainly seems to be the case today; as previously mentioned, the virtual world is increasingly penetrating all facets of communication in the translation industry and is indeed following the trajectory as described by O’Hagan and Ashworth towards the increasing need for TMC. Demands placed on translators are changing thanks to this shift towards CMC and the necessity for translation

to support this globalised form of CMC is thus growing along with it.

There are also indications that this development towards TMC is being taken seriously by companies. As these companies see themselves continuously more exposed to an international market via the greater possibilities and accessibility afforded them by the Internet, in many cases, TMC is being integrated higher up in the chain of communication production. Supported by Joscelyne's concept of foundational multilinguality i.e. companies integrating language management and internationalisation into their organisational communication practice, O'Hagan (2002: 91) points out that translation is increasingly being considered as contributing to knowledge production. Thus, companies are collaborating with translators and translation agencies for language support at the text-authoring stage of their organisational communication. The communication is therefore created with the recipient's perspective in mind, meaning *"From the provider's side, teletranslation will increasingly be required to cater to knowledge creation by way of internationalization according to the organization's language management...This in turn will impact on the translation communication system to incorporate collaborative authoring with the Sender"* (O'Hagan and Ashworth 2002: 92).

In any case, as Cronin points out, the Internet may be very good at transmitting information, but this does not mean it can bring together goods, services and people (2003:51). Indeed, translators and translation agencies often fulfil this role and bring together these three aspects via the medium of the Internet and increased forms of CMC. I have addressed some forms in which translators and translation agencies have had to adapt to the increasing shift towards a globalised world with higher CMC and TMC requirements from a technological standpoint. However, how do they actually function and what role do they play within this increasingly virtual world?

2.3. The Changing Face of the Translator's Job Profile

During the CILS seminar held at Aston University (1999) Snell-Hornby described the changing face of the modern-day translator's job profile in terms of having to be an *"expert for intercultural communication in an internationalised world: which is characterised by an abundance of individual cultural communities"*. Her comments are incremented by Schäffner, who also sees the role of translators and translation agencies as having to evolve and adapt to include the following in their skillset:

- Text production (frequently multimedia) for a clearly defined user and purpose
- The ability to master new technologies

(1999, CILS seminar at Aston University)

Both Snell-Hornby and Schäffner make use of the common metaphor of the ‘global village’ and increased internationalisation as a backdrop against which to explain the ever-adapting, pragmatic role that translation is playing in modern society. Yet what of the actual people involved in the translation process chain? This section will look at how this chain of people has evolved and changed to include or exclude certain services and agents over the course of the last thirty years. In many cases, these changes have been a direct result of the prominence and increased ground gained by the accessibility and development of the Internet and globalised activity. This section aims to show the increased multi-layered nature of the types of translation-related services required nowadays, which along with increased globalisation and international outsourcing of services, has engendered a new necessity for project management and coordination of communication. Translation agencies are finding a constantly expanding niche to fill, how they do so will be explained in further sections.

2.3.1. Who is Involved: a Functionalist Viewpoint

There have been many attempts at explaining and (re)defining the act of translation. Reiß and Vermeer, for example, developed the skopos theory; a functionalist theory which sees translation as a form of text production, created by a translator in order to fulfil the function required by a target text recipient or audience. The functionalist theory is salient to this work particularly due to the prominence of the concept of cooperation and what was termed as “translational action”: the English translation of the German notion of “*translatorisches Handeln*” as coined by Holz-Mänttari, and which will be explained in more detail further on.

In their functionalist theory, Reiß and Vermeer refer to source texts and target texts and emphasise the need to consider the role of the translator as being not to merely execute linguistic transfer but also cultural transfer: “*Damit soll von vornherein betont werden, daß Translation nicht nur rein sprachlicher, sondern immer auch ein kultureller Transfer ist*”(1991: 4). They go on to say that translation is the result of a series of processes “*Ein Translat ist das Ergebnis eines Prozesses*” (1991: 11) and set out terminology to define the core agents involved in the translation process. The main agents involved in the process chain are defined and named thus:

- Text producer (also “sender”)
- Translation agent (usually the client/commissioner- mediating between text producer and translator)
- Translator (agent of cultural transfer and also a text producer)
- Recipient (the target audience)

Nord defines the “sender” and “recipient” as belonging to two different linguistic and cultural groups in need of a third party to effect a linguistic and cultural transfer i.e. the translator, who acts as the intermediary (2014: 2). Holz-Mänttari described the recipient as actively engaging in an act of reception *“und das Rezipiente wird gefärbt durch das Sein und Wissen des Rezipierenden”* (1986: 355). The sociocultural factors pertaining to the recipient are therefore pivotal in influencing how a text is interpreted and perceived. Furthermore, Reiß and Vermeer see the text producer (“sender”) and recipient of a text as communicative partners in a given situation: *“Die ‘Situation’ besteht aus kulturellen Vorgegebenheiten, aktuellen äußeren Gegebenheiten und inneren und sozialen Bedingungen der Kommunikationspartner und ihres Verhältnisses zueinander...Zur Kultur gehört auch die Sprache”* (Reiß and Vermeer 1984: 18). As we have previously noted, this “situation” is a constantly changing factor, as are social conditions. These are constantly undergoing alteration as the modes and channels of communication change to include greater amounts of ever-evolving computer software and digital text types. Nowadays this must be contemplated at the given moment a translation is required, in order to fulfil its skopos.

Holz-Mänttari further expands upon the functionalist skopos theory by developing the notion of translational action. Indeed, the concept of translational action as a certain behaviour of all those involved in the process chain in order to fulfil a defined communicative purpose is a widely accepted one among many translation scholars. Holz-Mänttari developed and explained practicable models of cooperative work in the field of translation using a functionalist framework. She draws upon notions of divisions of labour in society to define roles and functions fulfilled by those involved in the translation process based on services needed by a *“Bedarfsträger”* (in this case the person in need of a translation) (Risku 2009: 40). The concept of translational action emphasises the importance of relationships and cooperative communication between translators and the commissioners of their work, as Freihoff notes; *“The translator is an architect who is told to create a building within a framework fixed in cooperation with a client”* (Nord 2014:16).

In the *Handbook of Translation Studies* (2010) Schäffner assesses Holz-Mänttari’s definition of translational action as being conceived as a whole network of actions performed by agents who are experts in their own fields and roles. She draws on Holz-Mänttari’s theory of translational action as stipulating that: *“the need for translation arises whenever for the purposes of cooperation language and cultural barriers have to be overcome...The primary purpose of translational action is thus to enable functionally adequate communication to take place across cultural barriers”* (2010:158). Whereas Reiß and Vermeer consider the functions of translation and emphasise the translator as a cultural broker and text producer, Holz-Mänttari goes further in contemplating the sociocultural context and the professional interaction between the translator/translation agency and the initiator of the translation, which have to be considered in order to *“enable functionally adequate communication”*. Thus, the

sociocultural context of the recipient of a “*translatum*” determines the function of a translation, which is not necessarily the same as that of the source text (Munday 2001: 79). Like Reiß and Vermeer, Holz-Mänttari sets out a list of core “agents” which may cooperate with each other in the translation process and ascribes them different roles. The original German terms have been kept and clarified in English alongside them:

Bedarfsträger (initiator, also the person requiring the translation)	the person in need of a text
der Ausgangstext-Texter	produces a text with which the translator works
der Besteller (the one who commissions a text)	commissions a text
der Translator	produces a target text
der (Ziel)Text-Applikator	works with the (target) text
der (Ziel)Text-Rezipient	recipient of the (target) text

Table 1 Functionalism: those involved (as cited in Prunč 2007: 161)

It is important to bear in mind that this core list was not intended to be a definitive, non-adjustable one, it was compiled in 1984 and is indeed subject to modification. Some of the roles can comprise one or more of the above-mentioned agent’s functions and some roles can be done away with altogether in any given situation (Prunč 2007: 161). Indeed, what is more likely to occur in modern-day translation (ca. 2017) thanks to increased use of computer software, CMC (as previously addressed) and globalised communication via the Internet, is that more roles may have to be inserted, integrated and some adapted or modified to fit with the changing functions or skopos of today.

Evidently, Reiß and Vermeer’s basic list was expanded upon by Holz-Mänttari to include “Ausgangstext-Texter”, who works on the source text and a “(Ziel)Text-Applikator” who produces the target text. These two may or may not fulfil separate functions to Reiß and Vermeer’s “sender”, who produces the text to be straightaway worked on by the translator before being passed onto the recipient. Prunč describes these roles as being occupied by experts such as “*Juristen, Terminologen, Werbefachleuten, Fotodesigner, Komponisten und dgl.*” (2007: 162) who work closely with translators, therefore rendering the act of translation

cooperative and interdisciplinary. These two extra roles may also be interpreted as taking into account what Nord acknowledges as the greater need for a focus on the “*relationship between typography, layout and text*”, which she goes on to attribute to “*the rise of desktop publishing and other electronic means of text configuration*” (2014: 24). These may be the people or groups of people who are responsible for text design and formatting, which are heavily influenced by modern technology and the Internet. This is also the case regarding what the *Bedarfsträger* and the recipient of the text require, which will equally be subject to change to (mostly) reflect modern-day needs.

In both lists, however, the role of the person or institute commissioning a text, or more precisely engaging the services of the translator, is also taken into consideration. This is not necessarily the sender, it can also be a translation agency, as Nord says “*in professional settings, translators don’t normally act on their own account; they are asked to intervene by either the sender or receiver, or perhaps by a third person*” (Nord 2014: 1). In her original laying out of the concept of cooperation models of professional actions necessary for a translation to take place within the industry, Holz-Mänttari defined translators as experts in the production of transcultural transfer, who are employed by the initiators of a translation to fulfil a required communicative purpose (1986: 354). Yet, she goes on to say that “*der Translator (wird) nicht als Mittler im Verlauf eines (zwei- oder mehrstufigen) Kommunikationsprozesses gesehen, sondern als eigenständig und eigenverantwortlich handelnder Experte in einem Gefüge über-, neben- und untergeordneter Handlungen*” (1986:354). The negotiations and actions which take place within the translation process are therefore not always effectuated directly between the initiator/recipient and the translator, this is where a translation agency may begin to play a prominent role in the transactions. In fact, given the evolving text types, CMC and the increasingly interdisciplinary nature of online texts (for example websites with their myriad links to different sites), can a single translator be a “jack of all trades” and meet these increasing demands alone? What does a translation agency have to offer? The next section will address these questions drawing on Risku’s profiling of a Viennese translation agency from 2009.

2.4. The Translation Agency in the Technological Era

Sandrini (2004: 174) summarises the changes brought about by the era of globalisation in the following manner:

Industriegesellschaft	– Informationsgesellschaft
Nationalökonomien	– Globalökonomien
Zentralisierung	– Dezentralisierung
Hierarchien	– Netzwerke

Society is not only shifting towards an increasingly informational, globalised, decentralised state, but also towards one comprised of networks. This tendency has also impacted the translation process to the extent that cooperation within the translation industry is indeed made up of a web of networking agents, working together on a scale as yet unseen before. The decentralisation of the economy is also reflected in the decentralisation and diversity of channels of communication and how information is disseminated. We live in an exciting and formidable era where “*coordination of activities across different countries and time zones...is made possible through the use of IT systems*” (Cronin 2003: 43). The translation industry is experiencing an era of cooperation and exchange in every possible direction in every single field and industry, which is leading to a more interdisciplinary outlook, as previously mentioned. As Sandrini puts it, “*Das professionelle Übersetzen rückt weit weg vom tradierten Bild des Einzelkämpfers hin zum weltweit vernetzten und technisch hochgerüsteten kooperativen Fachübersetzer*” (2004: 174). If this is the case, then it would seem the days of the freelance translator working alone are numbered and that it may be increasingly impossible to not partake in Internet-based coordination and cooperation with other translators and experts. A translation agency, for example, can nowadays fully manipulate the networking possibilities afforded by the Web and at the same time pool and bring together many experts in necessary fields to carry out and deliver (complex) translation services. The next section will focus on how increased Internet-led networking and high technological competence is brought under the umbrella of the modern-day translation agency.

2.4.1. Computer Supported Cooperative Work and the Translation Agency of Today

In her 2009 profiling of a translation agency in Vienna, Risku explored and applied the term *computer supported cooperative work* (henceforth CSCW) to the daily running of a translation agency. It was first coined in 1984 by Greif and Cashman in order to consider how computers might be used to improve efficiency and provide more support for people in the workplace (Mills 2003: 666).

At the time, CSCW was purported to not only multiply productivity but also improve the quality of products. Greif and Cashman’s theory was that CSCW would increase productivity by more than the square of the number of users (Mills 2003: 666). This implies that computer-support from software and the Web could increase efficiency in an exponential way. Nowadays the term can barely be spoken of without linking it directly to online networking and it seems it is precisely this extended global web, inextricably linked to CSCW, which is responsible for maximising productivity. Greif and Cashman could perhaps

not have foreseen to what extent the Internet would expand, however, 12 years later Mahling acknowledged the significance of this concept for contemporary society and the economy in 1996. What he says can equally be applied to 2017, which is that “*Increasing complexity and the need for coordination in our society leads to increased complexity and cooperation features in the artefacts demanded, while the use of tools that enable cooperation shapes the structure of group work*” (1996: 102).

He further expanded upon this theory of the hybridisation of people and computer systems to bring about cooperation and efficiency by describing a new era of a *human computer cooperation system* (henceforth HCCS). HCCS, according to Mahling, unites people for a common goal regardless of geographical or temporal factors (1996: 103). The three different types of online texts (see section 1.3.1.): reference, communicative and interactive texts, are forms of synchronous or asynchronous communication brought about by the Internet, which, with the relevant software, can also be applied to the workplace to facilitate the running of daily tasks. Mahling noted that it was necessary to “*regard machines and software programs as not only facilitators of communication among people but also as active participants in project management, problem solving and task execution*” (1996: 103). This can be applied to the translation industry today, especially given the increasing amount of communication interfaces taking place each day.

Risku considered four key aspects when performing the analysis of her empirical research of a translation agency in Vienna and these were: *Areas of cooperation*, such as coordinating activities, problem solving and strategy evaluation concerning internal and external intelligence. *Cooperative partners*, such as customers, local authorities, proof-readers and experts in related fields involving design. When considering cooperative partners she considers who needs to communicate with whom and how they do it. The third aspect are *forms and channels of communication*, whether they are spoken or written, direct or indirect, personal or virtual. What is utmost here is in what situations these forms are chosen to be applied and why. The fourth and final aspect she considers is that of the *employment of electronic communication tools*, i.e. when does communication take place in analog form and when is it in digital form and why (Risku 2009: 20)? She states that CSCW plays an indispensable role when evaluating all four aspects.

Indeed, Samuelsson-Brown also details the indispensability of computer support in cooperation when discussing what is involved in managing translation services. He identifies the principle skills required as:

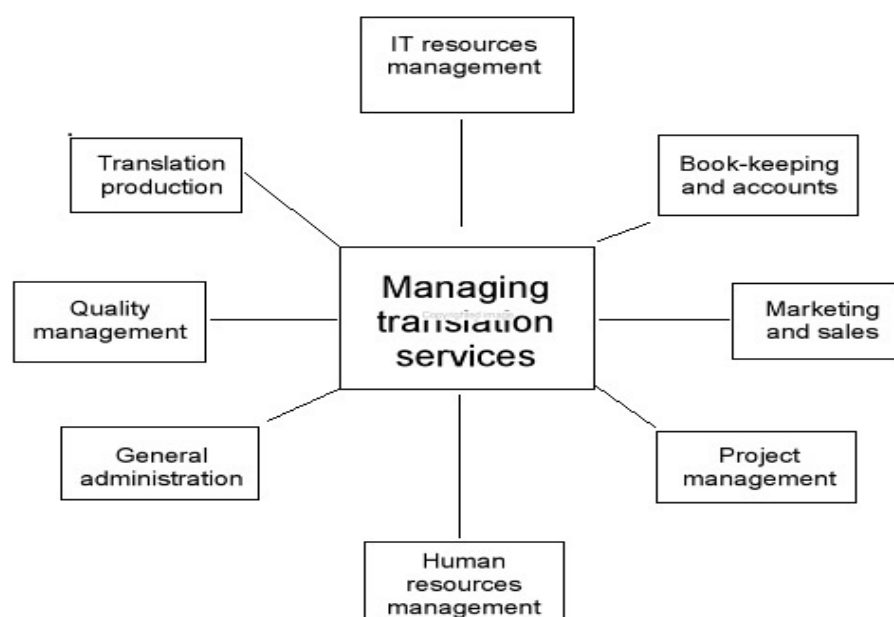


Figure 2: Principle skills required for managing translation services (Samuelsson-Brown 2006: xii)

He goes on to describe how every one of these aspects has been revolutionised by the development of (ever-changing) software and the Web. He also, however, describes a trend which he sees as inevitable towards translation becoming increasingly Internet-based. This situation is a double-edged sword, on the one hand creating a host of opportunities for those who are willing to adapt and on the other hand eliminating those who refuse to comply and modify to fit the new order. Not only does he acknowledge that the modern translator requires knowledge of relevant IT tools in order to survive in the industry, he goes further and foresees the future of the freelance translator who wishes to progress as having to either *“work for direct customers or develop a translation company that depends on the use of freelance translators to provide the range of languages and subjects that are demanded by potential customers”* (2006: 2).

As mentioned in section 1.4.1., the idea of *“direct customers”* can involve the sender, the recipient or indeed a “third person” (Nord 2014: 1) which may well be a well-connected, multi-tasking, (global) translation agency. The following section will look at the types of translation agencies in existence. This will be followed by a focus on how and when CSCW, i.e. IT tools, software and the Web are used by an existing translation agency, who it communicates with and how this influences the way it communicates.

2.4.2. Translation Agencies and Varying Degrees of Online Presence

The following sections take a closer look at a modern-day translation agency, with an office and headquarters in Vienna, as opposed to a virtual translation agency. The latter may differentiate itself from the former by not having official headquarters or a fixed geographical location from which it operates or where customers can come for face-to-face contact. Both types of agencies currently exist, indeed choosing the type has become but a personal preference for most customers, and the choice is dictated by financial advantages, greater practicality and flexibility for those running the translation agency itself. Virtual communities and the virtual office will be explored in more detail in a later chapter. Yet it is important to emphasise the fact that the schools of thought on the advantages and disadvantages differ wildly, Samuelsson-Brown for example maintains that there is a need for a balance “*to harmonise business efficiency with the appropriate level of personal contact*” (2006: xv).

O’Hagan and Ashworth identified three main types of translation service providers, which combine both freelance translators and translation agencies. Significantly, all types use or in some cases entirely depend on interactions taking place on the Web and all have had to establish some degree of presence on the Internet. O’Hagan and Ashworth developed these groups within the framework of their theory of teletranslation, which has been addressed in section 1.2.1. The groups they name highlight how this field is “*beginning to evolve as the traditional translation industry re-shapes itself into the Internet age*” (Ashworth and O’Hagan 2002: 82). The three types follow a hierarchical reversed pyramid structure with the widest base at the top to reflect the growing added value as the types of translation service providers gain increasing access to the globalised market via online networking and more sophisticated software and IT tools:

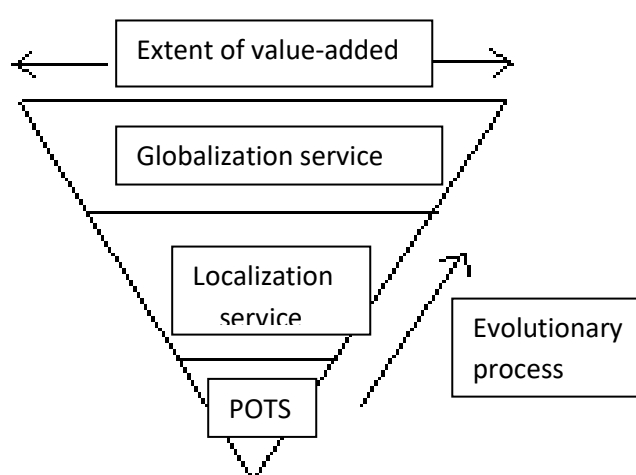


Figure 3: Emergence of the teletranslation industry (O’Hagan and Ashworth 2002: 83)

POTS is an acronym for “Plain Old Translation Service” which finds itself at the bottom of the teletranslation-based pyramid (O’Hagan and Ashworth 2002: 82). This is a group which may have established some Internet presence via a website as a means for marketing its services, yet does not do most of its billing or text-delivery via its website and is not truly global in its scope. It usually offers a more limited selection of languages (2002: 82). *Localization service* providers may have offices and headquarters, are “*more sophisticated in the use of IT in all facets of its production of translation, and tends to cater to a large number of language combinations using its strength with global staff and contractors*” (2002: 82). They may also have a core of in-house translators and a wider pool of freelance translators to draw from. This is also the type of translation agency which an e-commerce company may employ when requiring localization services. There is also a third group, comprised of individual translators, or freelance translators. They are described as being smaller in scale, operating their business via the Internet, frequently using tools such as Translation Memory and also being able to access documents in their varying formats. These freelance translators are often registered “*with a number of larger companies as well as translation job portals...such as ProZ*” (2002: 83). They are also likely to visit virtual communities for translators and interact online with other translators not only to complete a job, but to find out about the latest industry-related IT tool updates and trends in technology. It is worth emphasising that these freelance translators often make use of the Internet to gain access to other translators and services related to the increased needs arising from developments in CMC and the expansion of the Internet (2002: 83). A large number of them are thus continuously part of a greater network and base of translators and experts. The ultimate goal of all three groups, as shown by the pyramid, is to expand and evolve to provide services on a more international scale, to infiltrate global companies, providing them access to culturalization services (2002: 83).

Each one of these groups appears to make use of the Internet and some form of online networking in order to be able to work or carry out daily tasks. One could even go further and say all three groups nowadays inherently rely and are dependent on online networking in order to ensure their survival, as Cronin notes: “*translators who have no access to computers, modems, properly functioning informatics and telecommunications networks and reliable electricity supplies find themselves at an infinite distance from the virtual networks of translation exchange*” (2003: 46). Regardless of the type of group agencies or translators may belong to, whether it be a purely virtual presence or one involving a balance between the virtual and the physical, they all cannot help but be moving towards a more globalised platform on which to offer their services. This higher value-added is what most professionals in the field will strive for in order to ensure survival and success. Thus it indeed seems increasingly difficult for any translator to work entirely alone if they want to compete in this flourishing globalised networking environment. A firm Internet presence is indispensable

within the field. The translation agency analysed by Risku in 2009 is modest in size, yet nevertheless has to establish its presence on the Internet and make use of global networks. The following section will evaluate the impact that increasingly “going global” has on the hierarchy and daily running of the translation agency.

2.4.3. A Case Study of Networks, Hierarchies and Project Management in a Translation Agency

When Risku undertook her research into a translation agency in Vienna in 2009 she had already been following the rise of technology and its effects on the translation industry for many number of years. She became particularly interested in how technology was applied on a daily basis and how it affected the structure, cooperation and communication within a translation agency (as previously mentioned in regards to cooperation in section 3.4.1.).

The translation agency in question is made up of a Managing Director and four members of staff. There is a flat organisational structure to this small-sized company, which already means that paths of communication are short, allowing the company to be more responsive to change. There is thus also a wider span of control so that tasks have to be delegated and cannot all be overseen by one manager at all times (<http://www.bbc.co.uk/schools/gcsebitesize/business/people/ictrev3.shtml>). Risku notes that this is the case, as the hierarchy is indeed conducive to a personal, communicative working environment, where the staff work closely together (2009: 141). The communication taking place, however, is not for the purposes of carrying out a translation together. Remarkably, although all four members of staff are noted as having an academic background in Translation and having worked for many years as trained translators in specialised fields, their job requirement at the translation agency is not to solely carry out translations. In fact translating makes up a negligible part of their workday and in some cases they have long laid their active translating abilities to rest in order to concern themselves primarily with project management.

I personally worked as an in-house translator for a year and a half in Vienna at a translation agency of a similar size and structure to the one Risku analyses in her book. My colleagues, however, had a more limited background in translation compared to the staff at the translation agency looked at by Risku, yet this did not impede them from executing project management tasks and each colleague was responsible for projects in a group of languages or for certain regions. This is also the case for the agency in Risku’s book, where one member of staff will be in charge of completely processing a translation job from start to finish, which is to promote greater efficiency, reducing “middle men” or factors which may cause misunderstandings or missing links in the chain of communication. The staff do this, all

the while documenting the various stages of the process in a set of protocols which are stored on the office's main, shared server. All colleagues may access this server via their own computers. This is another practical measure made possible by the use of IT tools in the work place. Should a colleague be absent or for some reason unable to perform her duties, another colleague may easily access her data and pick up where she left off. This minimises loss in the time it takes for processing translation jobs, as well as financial loss should an unexpected emergency occur to the person originally in charge of project managing the job. The completion of each task is no longer dependent on the member of staff processing it, as may have been the case when data was stored in mostly analog form.

What is implied by "start to finish", when referring to the processing of a job? It is relevant here to take Risku's four key aspects into consideration once more (see section 3.4.1.) with the first one being *areas of communication*. As previously mentioned, this takes into account the coordination of activities and problem solving strategies. It is evident that this aspect is increasingly and inextricably linked to Risku's fourth key aspect which is the *employment of electronic communication tools*. Each colleague or "project manager" has at her disposal items which belong to the analog world:

- printed documentation
- official letters with notary stamps
- post-its
- note blocks
- papers they use to send faxes (this is increasingly becoming rare)
- check lists
- dictionaries in paper form
- files comprising printed out copies of email communication with clients and translators
- original texts and translations (occasionally, but this is often kept in electronic form)
- invoices in paper form

It may indeed only be a matter of time before companies fully shift into a completely virtual world in which to store and access all data, eliminating the need or desire to store any data in analog form, much as O'Hagan and Ashworth suggest. As it is however, this case study reflects the current situation which sees most translation agencies ambivalently caught between the analog and the virtual. Electronic devices and software used for communication and data storage are thus heavily relied upon and forms of this in use at the translation agency are:

- email
- address books
- the Internet

- data bases
 - storage media
 - the job list
 - software programmes to process texts in different formats
 - spreadsheets for calculations
 - Translation Memory systems
 - terminology management systems
 - project management systems and software
- (Risku 2009: 148).

As we can see in this case study, much data which had previously been stored or processed in analog form has received an electronic equivalent, such as address books and job lists. How does this further aid communication within the company? As previously mentioned, this allows information to be available in a centralised way, thus mutually accessible to everyone in the company. Yet it also provides a single platform on which to store, process, send and receive information between colleagues as well as between initiators, translators and recipients. The efficiency in those areas render the tendency towards CMC a practical move for those executing project management tasks. “Start to finish” can thus mean: A project manager receives an email requesting a cost estimate, uses a spreadsheet function to carry it out, accesses a database of available translators on her computer, contacts the relevant translator and sends the cost estimate to the customer via email. She may also decide to print out the email communication and file it. Upon receiving a job confirmation from the customer (again via email), the project manager may send the source text in a number of formats such as pdf, jpeg or word file to the translator and receive the translated text via email, then send the text to be proofread or the layout to be manipulated by text designers. In fact Risku highlights just how connected project managers have to be with other experts in order to successfully carry out a translation project, which she highlights in regards to the increasingly necessary translation of technical information:

Technische Dokumentationen beinhalten nicht nur sprachliche, sondern auch nichtsprachliche Elemente (Illustrationen, Icons, Grafiken). Zu ihrer Erstellung ist die Kooperation mit Experten aus anderen Fachbereichen mit ihrer jeweiligen Kenntnis von speziellen Arbeitsschritten, Medien und Werkzeugen unerlässlich (Risku 2009: 49).

CSCW is particularly important therefore in the processing of tasks and jobs and in daily communication at the translation agency. It is also put to good use in Risku’s other key aspect involving *cooperative partners*. This involves not only internal communication but external communication with all people involved in the translation process chain as well as initiators and recipients of translations.

This growing need for external communication with experts, along with the increase in channels of online communication, has potentially created a greater necessity for coordination and management of cooperative partners and translation processes. A more centralised approach and specialisation in project management tasks is indeed what a translation agency (as seen in a previous section) embodies and seems to be what is increasingly required in the industry. The following section will focus on the multiplication of potential cooperative partners engendered by the burgeoning demands placed on the translation industry thanks to the wide use of the Internet and digitalisation of information. Translation agencies are increasingly best suited and have adapted to manage cooperation and efficient communication between all partners.

2.4.3.1. Cooperative Partners and the Importance of Electronic Communication Tools

Emailing is very important when it comes to daily communication within the translation agency. Risku goes further and describes it as indispensable, *“Das Berufsbild als solches wäre ohne E-Mail kaum denkbar”* (2009: 150). Although the telephone is still used to further interpersonal (customer) relationships, emails are frequently used as a way to record communication and commands. They are also used as a way to attach and send files across the world and to store said files and communication as well as contacts’ addresses. This obviously represents an advantage over the telephone, which provides no physically reproducible data (Risku 2009: 149). Emailing is able to bridge not only geographical distances but also those in time. They are accessible at all times to the sender and recipient and with an almost immediate response possible, it means that they can often come very close to being a synchronous form of communication, without actually being so.

At the translation agency Risku looks at, every single colleague has her own email account and emails are flagged up as soon as they arrive. Emailing allows the recipient to prioritise the urgency of the emails and take the time they need to reply, as opposed to spending hours on the phone with a customer or translator and neglecting other correspondence or customers. Of course some emails may be more urgent than others and get overlooked in the frenzy of emailing. This represents a disadvantage, seeing as a mere telephone call may have been more persuasive and efficient in the immediate sense. Evidently, currently both forms of communication are being employed at the translation agency with a view to bringing about maximum efficiency.

Emailing also facilitates the transfer of documents and data to cooperative partners. In a translation agency these are made up of initiators and recipients on the one hand and freelance and in-house translators as well as all those experts contributing to the creation and execution of the translation service on the other. Possible cooperative partners range from

private customers, e-commerce companies wanting localisation services, legal authorities, but also translators, experts in design, layout, graphics and so on. The translation agency in Risku's book is described itself as an "*Auftraggeber*" thus a commissioner of services from translators and other experts in its own right. It is in fact responsible primarily for coordinating translations, it not only works with freelance translators but also with other translation agencies, which may be located abroad: "*Es ist...Auftraggeber, und zwar für die Übersetzerinnen und Übersetzer. Es erteilt Aufträge an Übersetzungsbüros und Einzelübersetzer im Land der jeweiligen Zielsprache*" (Risku 2009: 179). The implications of outsourcing translations will be addressed further on, however, it is clear that there is a high level of necessity for efficient coordination and communication, even on a global level. Schöffner points out further tasks needing experts in various fields on a daily basis. These tasks may go beyond the traditional remit of the translator and coordinating them will require cooperation:

Prä- und Posteditierung von Texten, Revision, Korrekturlesen, „abstracting“, Desktop Publishing, „technical writing“...gehören dazu (zum Berufsalltag), ebenso wie Mitarbeit an der Erstellung von Terminologien und „in-house style guides“ sowie Beratungs- und Gutachtertätigkeit. (2004: 29).

A very effective way of achieving this coordinated networking, as discussed, is through electronic means of communication and CSCW. Other forms of electronic communication such as the fax machine are also mentioned by Risku as well as the “good old fashioned” postal service, which is arguably still in use due to personal preferences and authorities not having yet devised an inexpensive electronic method of verifying documents sent virtually.

Nevertheless, it is not only the Internet which has proven to be a champion in aiding networking, but also the myriad, ever-evolving efficiency-increasing translation and project management software available. Harkening back to the section on pre-processing, storage and transmission (section 2.1.1.), the advancement in software programmes has been seen to infiltrate every one of those three aspects. Translation software will be addressed in more detail in a further chapter, however, this section will provide a brief overview on the project management software available and in use. Project management software is particularly salient, as it is a tool manipulated by translation agencies, who are able to dedicate more resources to project management and optimally make use of project management tools, often allowing freelance translators to concentrate primarily on translation tasks.

2.4.3.2. Project Management Software

During the observation period at the translation agency, Risku witnesses projects executed in no less than twelve different languages. These languages range from Western to Eastern European languages through to Turkish, Hebrew and Chinese. A globalised economy and the Internet have led to the possibility of operating a small-sized translation agency on a global scale. Although the agency only employs four members of staff it can still offer a minimum of twelve languages. As previously mentioned, this can be achieved by employing the services of freelance translators and translation agencies online, who may be located abroad, in order to fulfil their customers' requirements. They have tapped into the high value-added global platform to try and have a slice of the top of the teletranslation pyramid (see Figure 3).

Within the translation industry the Internet can be viewed as an ever-expanding, commercial publishing platform, where global networks have become a standardised practice (Dunne and Dunne 2011: 3). Dunne and Dunne (2011: 3) observe that the Web has *“increased the complexity of large-scale commercial translation projects to the point that most freelance translators cannot manage such projects on their own”*. They go on to explain what in their opinion is driving the need for project management within the translation agency as being *“the geographic distribution of outsourced translation teams and...the increasing complexity of the technologies and processes of translation projects”* (2011: 3). In order to efficiently meet growing project management requirements, agencies are turning to project management software and there are a host of them claiming to be tailored to the translation industry in particular. What do these project management packages offer to meet the needs?

At the time of writing, performing a search of “translation project management software” on a search engine such as google will bring up over nine million results. This is evidently an area with quite a bit of attention being paid to it. It would be impossible to document and explore every single software package for translation project management out there, which is why only a selection will be looked at here. It became clear that most of the software packages looked at shared common objectives. To provide examples, three from the top ranking results on the search engine were explored in more detail. This section aims to provide but an overview of them and the services they offer as this will hopefully mirror the services which are required by those managing translation projects. The three in question are Projetex, QuaHill and Vitroff.

Projetex claims: *“It tremendously simplifies task (sic.) of corporate and freelance workflow management, data and files sharing within company and provides multiple benefits for each team member”*. It was established in 1992 and identifies system administrators, general management, sales representatives, project managers, human resources managers,

corporate experts and accountants as cooperative partners within and outside the agency, who require coordination in the following task areas:



Figure 4: Different roles addressed by the Projetex project management system (<http://www.projetex.com/>)

Its website can also be adapted for smaller-sized agencies, where one person may carry out more than one of the roles and tasks seen in Figure 4 (<http://www.projetex.com/>).

QuaHill also offers a main platform on which all those involved in processing a translation can upload, share and manage their files. Vitroff, is targeted primarily at agencies based in Russia, yet makes a point of claiming it is also international in its scope and that its software can be adapted to fit any translation project management requirement. It claims to be a cloud-based system, which like QuaHill has a web portal and can be accessed anywhere in the world as long as there is an Internet connection. This instant global accessibility of all data via the Internet, or via a cloud platform, is a key component to all three of the systems. These systems are adapted to a variety of software in order to increase compatibility and thus accessibility for their customers. Risku agrees with the necessity of these technological functions being accessible to all cooperative partners, *“Die Austauschbarkeit terminologischer Daten...die Konvertierbarkeit verschiedener Dateiformate (DOC, RTF, PDF, XML...und viele mehr) sowie die Kompatibilität oder zumindest Interoperativität verschiedener Teilwerkzeuge sind...die technologische Basis”* (2009: 63).

Having access to the following software is thus necessary in order to make efficient use of the Vitroff system, for example:

System requirements:

- PHP4
- MySQL4

Browser requirements (for those using the software package):

- Safari4
- Google Chrome 9
- Internet Explorer 8
- Opera 9
- Firefox 2

(<http://vitroff.com/about.html>)

It is also important to keep in mind the evolving nature of the systems and browsers, for example, the PHP system is now in its seventh version and currently at the time of writing, the fourth version is being phased out (<http://php.net/manual/php4.php>). Nevertheless these are easily downloadable or purchasable systems and thus easily accessible to translation agencies wanting to make use of project management software.

Indeed these systems all claim to offer solutions to problems, or “constraints”, as the Project Management Institute (henceforth PMI) calls it. According to PMI, the constraints of any project management undertaking come in the form of: scope, quality, schedule, budget, resources and risk (PMI 2008: 42). This has evidently been taken into account by project management software creators. A lot of emphasis is placed on greater efficiency as a means to less expenditure, thus creating a competitive edge. As with Projetex (see Figure 4), the main areas addressed by both QuaHill and Vitroff are:

QuaHill	Vitroff
client management	orders
quotes	clients
invoices	translators
vendor management	languages
business activities	email templates
job schedule	price lists

statistics	statistics
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Table 2 Quahill and Vitroff main services (<http://www.quahill.com/en/index.html> and <http://vitroff.com/screens.html>)

Although the terminology may differ in some cases, both software packages offer almost parallel services for the same problem areas. “Vendors” in the QuaHill list refers mostly to translators, yet can also refer to all those providing services needed in order to complete the project. The terminology used to denote translators here is particularly salient, as QuaHill acknowledge most agencies as purchasing services themselves, thus as being a middleman in a business sense.

The components on these lists can all be related to optimising scope, quality, time (in relation to schedule), resources (in relation to budget) and in so doing, minimising the risks an agency takes. Efficiency is maximised in these key areas by allowing “vendors” or “translators” access to the platform to post their price list, for example. Authorised personnel will be able to search and update quotes, clients on the centralised database and the list of translators. QuaHill provides a series of criteria with which to efficiently search for the most suitable translator available for certain language pairs, providing a quality rating (it is unclear who assesses this and how) and pricing (<http://www.quahill.com/en/vendor-management.html>). Optimising time is also taken into consideration with the “job schedule” with QuaHill and in the “orders” and “email templates” with Vitroff. These are made up of calendars and overviews of job deadlines. The email templates supposedly save time, along with templates for invoices and quotes, which are stored and can be easily recalled in relation to certain customers and translators.

If a translation agency aspires to grow and increase profit margins as a business, it is self-evident that it must adapt itself to new challenges brought about by this expansion. The challenges come from providing services to a broader customer base and addressing their requirements and expectations (Dunne and Dunne 2011: 53). *“Over time, treating project management with benign neglect can impede growth and lead to shrinking profit margins”* (Dunne and Dunne 2011: 52), with this in mind and given the fact translation agencies and freelance translators are in a symbiotic relationship of mutual exchange of services, it stands to reason that efficient and optimised project management be of utmost importance in the translation industry.

What is evident from the components of project management software, is that they maximise and increase the efficiency of communication of information. As Risku points out, *“Projektmanagement ist Krisenmanagement....Und Kommunikation ist Konfliktmanagement”* (2009: 63-64). Bearing in mind the constraints faced when managing a project, it would appear those carrying out translation services highly regard this maxim and

employ project management software in order to achieve crisis management and communication most successfully. It does of course present the disadvantage of needing to train personnel and all the agents involved in the translation process in how to use the system and the software. Arguably, this could incur loss of time and money when employing new staff. However, as society shifts ever more into the globalised technological era, this CSCW approach to communication is becoming more standardised: *“Projektspezifische Teams, globale Zusammenarbeit und Telearbeit, im Sinne der gesellschaftlichen Trends...sind translatorischer Alltag geworden”* (Risku 2009: 64).

As the need has arisen for project management software and, as noted by Dunne and Dunne, complex projects mean most freelancers cannot manage them on their own (2011: 3), what is the nature of the relationship between freelance translators and translation agencies? How do they function together and can a freelance translator really manage on her own, given the increased teamwork required, as discussed in this chapter? The following chapter will look at the nature of this relationship, bearing in mind globalisation, localisation and the development of quality control factors to keep increased project management activities in check.

2.5. Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has looked at how the advent of the Internet has created a dependence on information technology and led to increased computer-mediated communication (CMC) due to the growth of globalised networks. Globalised networking has altered the classic structures of cooperation and catapulted the translation industry into a multi-media, virtually-dominated world, where increasingly interdisciplinary teamwork is necessary to fulfil customer demands. This chapter has also addressed how communication and cooperation has not only evolved to require more computer support (CSCW) but become more complex in its make-up, spawning the need for greater and well-coordinated project management. This project management is being increasingly handled by translation agencies.

The following chapter will further address the greater need for coordination of cooperative partners by exploring the impact of globalisation, the market economy and virtual networks on collaboration and competition in the translation industry. It will argue that increased forms of online mass collaboration are engendering greater levels of competition and raising the question of tighter quality controls as a result. It will also look at the translation industry and motivational factors underlying collaboration within the framework of Bourdieu's theory of capital. The next chapter aims to demonstrate how increased online competition and the global way capital is accumulated via the Internet requires greater coordination by third parties, i.e. a translation agency. It aims to demonstrate

that in order to improve the perceptions of high standards within the industry, norms and standards have been developed and translation agencies are best suited to adhere to them. Moreover, the following chapter further solidifies the symbiotic and co-dependent relationship which is blooming between agencies and freelancers due to this increased need for coordination, project management and adherence to standards.

3. The Market Economy, Virtual Translation Networks and their Effects on Coordinating Collaboration within the Translation Industry

“The major change that has taken place in the translation industry has resulted from the emerging types of communication engendered by the Internet” (O’Hagan and Ashworth 2002: 128).

The previous chapter addressed the effects that shifting and “*emerging types of communication*” brought about by the advent of the Internet have had on the translation industry. It is clear that IT and globalised networking via the Internet have had a profound and irreversible effect on the way translations are processed, stored and even on the agents involved in the process and the way they communicate with each other. Yet what of the other contemporary imperatives driving the translation industry, what of the effects of the globalised market economy?

Not only is there an increased need for project management as translation jobs become more complicated, but translators and translation agencies are having to compete and jostle for a space on an increasingly crowded, open Internet platform. As Castells notes, “*networks are where relationships of power are created...all modes of communication are shaped by their necessity to respond to a basic objective, which is to gain an audience, this is for economic reasons and to gain publicity as well as to increase their sphere of influence*” (2012: 44). The previous chapter acknowledged a symbiotic relationship between translators and translation agencies inasmuch as translation agencies are reliant on a pool of translators, which they find, access and communicate with via the worldwide web. The dependence of translators on agencies, however, will be further explored in this chapter. The power of networking, as described by Castells, can be seen in the emergence of virtual communities and online translation platforms such as SDL and ProZ. These will be looked at in order to ascertain the degree to which translators have to engage in networking and teamwork in order to survive in the contemporary translation industry.

The virtual translation agency will also be explored in more depth, within the scope of its definition as given in section 2.1.1. This referred to its function and capacity as a broker of services and a lubricant of exchange. What position does such a broker occupy in the translation industry today and are its services indispensable? How have globalisation and online networking affected the way translators compete? As competition arises, those competing must develop new forms of standing out, new standards for quality control. This chapter will take a look at standards for project management such as the ISO 9001 series, the new ISO 17100 and EN 15038 norms and the relevance of these for the translation industry of today. Are such norms becoming a requisite and if so, how likely is it that a freelance translator can operate on her own given this increased pressure? This chapter will also look at

how networking is manipulated by all those involved in the translation process within the framework of Bourdieu's theory of capital.

3.1. Competition Goes Global

In his book *Global Paradox* (1994), Naisbitt notes the emergence of smaller-sized companies working in networks, in *"linked but autonomous units"* (1994: 4). He draws attention to these companies having to enter into strategic alliances with suitable partners in order to succeed, and predicts that in future, *"a country could be formed of people who have no other association with other people except they belong to the Internet"* (Naisbitt 1994: 4). Fast forward to 2017 and this could not only be applied to countries, but to entire industries and how they operate. The translation industry is a case in point, and the Internet is indeed allowing individuals to connect to a vast network on the worldwide web without having any physical, geographical or temporal proximity.

Naisbitt sees the Internet as bringing advantages to smaller-sized companies or individuals in business, encouraging them to expand and further integrate into the global economy. To a certain extent this could be said of the freelance translator, able to operate from home on a personal computer as long as she has the requisite IT, software and Internet connection to carry out the job. This could equally be applied to translation agencies, which have been able to catapult their services onto the global stage thanks to the worldwide web. Yet, as has been noted in the previous chapter, the "autonomy" of the freelance translator or translation agency is called into question when the worldwide network encourages and even requires more collaboration. Translators and agencies are increasingly subject to external controls and influences. This dichotomy between allowing the individual a chance to emerge competitively in the global economy, and the increase of external influences limiting their control indeed constitutes this "global paradox". The rise of the freelancer or small translation agency is not unlimited and is decreasingly autonomous. Telecommunications and the Internet act as external influential factors. They can catapult a business and help it succeed yet also check the autonomy of arguably any sized company these days, not just small-sized ones or freelancers.

With increased networking on a global scale comes competition on a global scale. In 1996, an issue of the Localisation Industry Standards Association (LISA) translator's newsletter already called attention to the adverse financial impacts that global competition via the worldwide web would have on translators. The article, penned by Bonthron, predicted an increased *"convergence in working practices and terms and conditions"* (1996: 4) thanks to the globalisation of language services. The rules of the free market economy dictate there be unrestricted competition between private businesses

(<http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/free-market>). This means a translation job is most likely to “*go to the supplier able to offer the...most attractive payment terms*” (Bonthrone 1996: 4). Competition on an economically unequal global stage will also mean that “*on the whole, the future will very likely see service providers in more “wealthy” economies having to work longer hours for tighter cash flows*” (Bonthrone 1996: 4). How can this seemingly inevitable tendency be counteracted? According to Bonthrone the solution is for “wealthier” economies to invest more in automated solutions, like software, Internet-based communication, things which will enhance and maintain productivity (1996: 4). A further way to combat this trend could also be to build up tighter-knit connections.

It is therefore increasingly important to enter into the aforementioned “strategic alliances with suitable partners”, as Naisbitt mentions. Yet matters are further complicated when alliances and partners come in the form of disembodied people living anywhere in the world, who one can access on a global platform open to everyone. Cronin notes the creation and subsequent rise of micro-networks and their “*incorporation into larger, macro-networks of global recognition*” (2003: 51). Within the translation industry these micro and macro-networks are represented online in the form of, among other things, virtual communities. In 2009, Risku and Dickinson noted some of the most common as “*ProZ, TranslatorsCafe, LANTRA, GlossPost and Aquarius*” (2009: 50). There are of course many more virtual translation communities than those mentioned here. Risku and Dickinson describe the notion of community as being “*composed of people who interact on a regular basis around a common set of issues, interests or needs*” (2009: 50). Translators and translation agencies are often members of such virtual communities like ProZ, where they not only look for jobs or translators respectively, but also share and exchange knowledge reflecting their interests and needs. Translators and translation agencies thus use and exploit these existing networks, contributing to their very existence and expansion as not just a way to keep up with competition but in many cases to collaborate with their competition.

These platforms which have been created to enable the exchange of information and knowledge reflect “*the global demand for knowledge dissemination (and)...have largely contributed to shape translators’ role as information users, processors and producers*” (Raido 2014: 1). Translators and translation agencies are having to engage in what Cronin calls global information management (henceforth GIM) (2013: 91). If the translation industry hopes to succeed in a world where companies are becoming increasingly deconstructed into the smaller, autonomous units, linked together by networks (as Naisbitt notes), then translators and translation agencies have to be present in virtual communities. After all, virtual communities are where the needed (global) information is at.

Cronin notes that at the end of the previous century 90% of the world’s population was part of a market system, which led to a change in the weighting and distribution of roles in society (2003: 47). He also noted that “*Interaction with people (‘networking’) and with the*

external environment generally is a crucial element in the new dispensation” of these roles (2003: 47). These roles are continuously shifting thanks to the advent of the Internet and the global market economy. Translators and translation agencies are all too aware of this and are constantly having to adapt, maintain and manage their place in a society where their roles are increasingly dependent on interaction and networking. A salient example of emerging competition brought about by the advent of global online networks are the platforms encouraging the phenomenon known as “massive online collaboration” (henceforth MOC) and “crowdsourcing”.

3.1.1. MOC and Crowdsourcing

MOC “...is an umbrella term referring to the joint implementation of tasks by a large crowd connected via social networking technologies” (Austermühl 2011: 15).

MOC represents a current technological phenomenon which has only been made possible thanks to the advent of the Internet and social networking sites. Within the translation industry it sees texts being placed online to be translated en masse by faceless (and mostly nameless) individuals located anywhere in the world. Translation tasks are broken down and carried out in piecemeal by amateur and non-professional translators. MOC has engendered other online collaborative forms of translation such as *crowdsourcing* and has contributed towards the creation of online translation resources (Austermühl 2011: 15).

Crowdsourcing “generally refers to the translation of user-and-community generated content or...translation of, for, and by the people” (Austermühl 2011: 15). User-and-community generated content can be anything from webpages to online blogs and wikis needing translation and localisation. This is an emerging trend where Internet pages are translated by their users. A famous recent (and somewhat controversial) example is the Duolingo language learning website, where learners of a new language are encouraged to undertake translations of Internet sites (Kelly 2013). In 2013, this crowdsourcing of translations had a market worth of 33 billion dollars (<http://www.commonseadvisory.com/Default.aspx?Contenttype=ArticleDetAD&tabID=63&Aid=3023&moduleId=390>) and received investment from companies in many regions of the world. There are evidently many people willing to invest in this form of translation and it is a form entirely generated and reliant upon virtual communities and online networking platforms.

Crowdsourcing doesn’t always have to occur due to commercial reasons however, it can also fulfil social, not-for-profit purposes (O’Brien 2011: 18). An example of this are the translations carried out online during the aftermath of the Haiti and Japanese earthquakes. In 2010 this saw relief agencies in Haiti setting up an SMS service where messages in Kréyol

could be instantly translated using a crowdsourcing system called CrowdFlower (O'Brien 2011: 18). Understandably, crowdsourcing translations in such a case, due in large part to its humanitarian nature and necessity at the time, are met with low controversy within the translation industry. This cannot be said of social networking site Facebook however, which did cause controversy within the translation industry when it decided to have its interfaces translated and localised using crowdsourcing. It has depended on its users to translate its site into 75 different languages, which was and is undertaken in large part by an army of unpaid volunteers based internationally (Schonfeld 2009). In fact *"by 2010, more than half of all Facebook users were non-English speakers and 400,000 volunteer translators had contributed to its localization"* (Drugan 2013: 174). It has even taken to patenting its crowdsourced translation function, which it has also developed into an app (Schonfeld 2009). This demonstrates the highly technologized realm of translation networks, as well as the new generation of amateur translators and translation activities they are spawning.

The reasons for seeking translations from nameless users online? This comes down to the usual financial considerations caused by increased competition on the online and e-commerce markets. Crowdsourcing translations are cost-effective and as the texts are instantly accessible to the users, can be translated as and when they appear, thus also being time-effective. In many cases, the translations are carried out by volunteers who do not receive any pay. However, as in the case of Facebook, most companies are not yet so bold as to rely entirely on crowdsourcing. Facebook itself uses a combination of volunteer and paid translators and non-professionals and professionals to localise their interfaces. Interestingly, they decided to call in professionals to carry out the management of all the translation and localisation tasks. Facebook had its sites translated *"using a combination of crowdsourcing, paid professional translators, tools developed in-house and top-down design and management of processes"* (Drugan 2013: 174). As discussed in the previous chapter, although translations may be distributed and delegated to translators, or in this case to lay-people online, professionalism of translation project management remains pivotal. At the moment, new tools like open source *collaborative translation platforms* are being developed to facilitate MOC. These online platforms bring together terminology management, translation memories, and workflow and project management (O'Brien 2011: 19). Once more, project management is a key component.

Furthermore, many companies claiming to translate material using crowdsourcing are often not being entirely truthful. As Kelly points out, *"The majority simply offer a network of freelancers and a quick way to access them."* (<http://www.common senseadvisory.com/Default.aspx?Contenttype=ArticleDetAD&tabID=63&Aid=3023&moduleId=390>). This means, that many are actually constructing a community of (freelance) translators, with faces and names. Thus engaging in a form of MOC but with controls exercised over those collaborating (i.e. providing names, photos,

academic qualifications). Lionbridge language service providers, for example, claims to be able to combine its “*localization expertise with...unique ability to harness the power of the global crowd*” (<http://www.lionbridge.com/solutions/crowdsourced-translation/>). It represents a pragmatic solution to balancing cost-effective translation with a degree of professionalism and management techniques.

Mega-scale translation service providers such as SDL offer a mix of human translation and machine translation, while at the same time acknowledging the need for effective management of the two. Machine translation will be looked at in more detail further on, but for the purposes of this section, it can be seen as a further component which can work in conjunction with MOC and crowdsourcing. *SDL Language Cloud* claims to not only employ translators in many fields of expertise, but also utilizes management software allowing control over a hybrid of machine and human translation via a “cloud” (<http://www.sdl.com/languagecloud/>). This cloud can be logged onto online anywhere in the world and offers access to:

- Conventional translation: SDL's global network of over 1000 specialist in-house translators providing high-quality, ISO-certified translations (ISO 9001, EN 15038, ISO 13485)
- A combination of human and machine translation options and benefits from machine translations corrected by professional translators
- Cost-effective machine translation using sector and company-specific translation engines (<http://www.sdl.com/languagecloud/>).

It also offers a point of contact for translation project management needs should it be required. SDL began developing translation memory technology in the mid-90s, translation project management software in the early 2000s and due to the greater penetration of the Internet, created its cloud-based system in 2014 (<http://www.sdl.com/about/sdl/history/>). Although SDL claims its translators are “in-house” and have been submitted to some form of quality assessment, they still work on a global scale and are dependent on the Internet, IT and CSCW to carry out communication, cooperation and their work. SDL is an example of how the Internet has caused translation agencies to become themselves a form of virtual platform and network of cooperation. It functions as a platform while at the same time exercising a degree of control and management of who enters its pool of translators (certified, quality assessed) and who has access to this pool (paying customers).

The virtual translation communities, platforms and networks have created a robust environment of competing agents located all over the world, working at competitive prices (and in some cases even for free). Those looking for translation services may therefore be overwhelmed by the choice of freelance translators and services online. With such global

competition and resulting increased project management demands, freelance translators may also feel overwhelmed. In the potential confusion of choice, many turn to translation agencies and virtual communities. As this section has demonstrated, many freelance translators work under the umbrella of a virtual platform. Translation agencies themselves look to virtual translation communities to source the freelance translators and service providers they wish to work with. *SDL Language Cloud* is an example of how translation service providers are profiting from this development, conducting operations as a translation agency/virtual community hybrid.

This pragmatic or opportunistic approach highlights the recognition of the importance of online networking within the translation industry. However, as demonstrated in the example of Facebook and Risku's 2009 case study, the growing amount of networking is increasing the number of communicative partners. This in turn is increasing the complexity and need for coordination of translation activities between partners. As previously mentioned, companies like Facebook, which may choose to crowdsource their translations, are not wholly reliant on crowdsourcing or unpaid, uncontrolled forms of MOC, especially when it comes to project management. Austermühl says that this type of collaborative business model *"seems to suggest that while the need for individual, paid translators is reduced, the demand for qualified translation consultants and project coordinators has increased alongside the need to build an adequate technological infrastructure"* (2011: 17). E-commerce companies are expressing *"an urgent demand for accurate, appropriate, timely, high-volume translation to localize their web sites in multiple languages"* (O'Hagan and Ashworth 2002: x). It is therefore likely that there will be a need to link the increasing "autonomous units" involved in the translation process via some form of management and quality control.

The following sections will look at market demands and localization as well as at some virtual communities in more detail within the framework of Bourdieu's theory of capital. It will also look at how translators are *"prompted to develop a kind of managerial cognition that enables them to target clients, strategic groups and companies worldwide"* (Mihalache 2008: 56).

3.2. Market Demands and the Rise of Localisation

"Localization is driven by market forces, by capabilities afforded by IT, and by the clients who dictate what they want from language support providers" (O'Hagan and Ashworth 2002: 130).

It is important to consider the role that localisation plays in the translation industry when discussing market demands placed on translators nowadays. According to Cronin, localisation involves *"taking a product that has already been designed and tailoring it to meet the needs of a specific market"* (2003:13). As businesses and companies go global, they

have access to people all over the world and thus also different target markets and demographics responding to different cultural stimuli. Software development and the increase in Internet websites and interfaces have spawned a new e-commerce market with new translation requirements. The new clients require language support to target users of their software and websites and in many cases the users themselves have triggered a desire for translation of the software and websites they are using. The localisation market arose from the increase in information and communications technology (ICT) and accessibility to the Internet around the world.

The chart below displays the distribution of worldwide Internet users in 2014 and highlights the growth in Internet use outside those continents where primarily English-speaking countries are located. Evidently, the dissemination of knowledge around the world has never been so easy and access to it as widespread as it is thanks to the Internet today. Cronin cited findings from the Altar II project from IDC which predicted that “by 2003, 50% of web users in Europe, 75% in Latin America and 80% in Japan would show a distinct preference for native language sites” (2003:14). This would suggest not only a high need for translation into their own languages in these regions, but also for localisation, or “elocalisation”, as Cronin defines it (2003:14). *Figure 5* shows that in November 2014 Internet users in the Asia Pacific region were almost double those in Europe and highlights potential emerging forces on the e-commerce (and elocalisation) market from the Latin American, Middle Eastern and African regions.

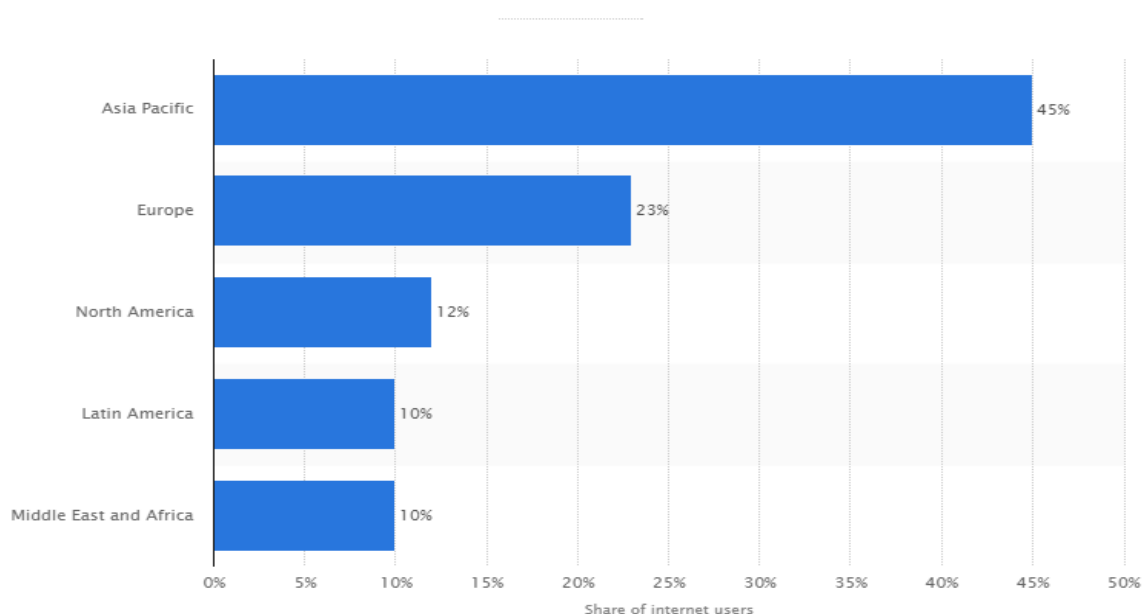


Figure 5: Chart illustrating the distribution of worldwide Internet users as of November 2014, by region. (<http://www.statista.com/statistics/271401/regional-distribution-of-internet-users-worldwide/>)

Snell-Hornby sets out her theory of how globalisation is engendering a “*McWorld*” tied together by technology, ecology, communication and commerce (Schäffner 2000: 64). She goes as far as to name the Internet a “*virtual seventh continent*” accessible to those with the relevant ICT. Yet she also draws attention to an opposing current gaining prominence off the back of globalisation which she terms “*tribalism*” (Schäffner 2000: 64). This is the emergence of national and cultural identity and pride which has seen the need for a more tailored, less standardised form of cultural transfer. As inhabitants of this seventh continent, the growing number of Internet users across the world are not meekly accepting a homogenous variant of the Web, but moulding it to fit their cultural needs. And this is what localisation is all about.

Localisation can more specifically be defined as “*the process of adapting a product or service to a particular language, culture, and desired local ‘look-and-feel’*” (O’Hagan and Ashworth 2002: xix). This requires not only linguistic and cultural transfer of words but in many cases of symbols, layout, design, music and graphics, and thus an increased technological awareness on the part of the translator. Localisation can be required in order to adapt a website, wiki or even video game. In terms of considering the skopos of a translation, localisation has placed new parameters and pressures on translation. The impact of these new pressures means localisation itself is increasingly being considered a separate discipline by translation scholars. For example, Bernal-Merino acknowledges that although the separate skills necessary for localisation are not new to specialised translators “*their convergence is unusual and it deserves to be studied separately and on its own merits*” (2015: 2). Understanding the skopos of a localisation project requires translators to “*identify project objectives and determine project scope*” (Dunne 2011: 7) which, as mentioned, requires increasing knowledge of ICT. Dollerup goes further in suggesting that knowledge of ICT and access to the Internet alone, may not always provide adequate means for carrying out localisation tasks. Instead he highlights the need for “*anthropological expertise that may well go beyond the reach of many individual translators*” (2008: 48). In other words, there is strength in numbers; more translators may need to be consulted regarding certain localisation fields of expertise and this is where greater coordination of communication between translators can benefit the localisation process.

Taking into consideration all of the different components making up a localisation project (music, layout, graphics, legal considerations), localisation is arguably the king of interdisciplinary undertaking when it comes to modern translation requirements, calling for expertise in several diverse fields. This is one of the reasons why Dunne emphasises the need for localisation project management in his book (2011) as well as the increased need for education on localisation and project management thereof in institutes of higher learning for translation. Esselink also highlights the numerous tasks involved in localisation, with project management fulfilling an important role: “*Translation is only one of the activities in*

localization; in addition to translation, a localization project includes many other tasks such as project management, software engineering, and desktop publishing” (Esselink 2000: 4) What are the project management demands actually placed on translators and translation agencies carrying out localisation?

3.2.1. Localisation and Project Management Requirements

Due to the financial gains to be made from localising websites and software, it is no surprise that companies are investing in localisation services and that an entire industry has sprouted up around this. Localisation in the video games industry alone is estimated to reach more than 300 billion dollars in total revenue in 2015 (Bernal-Merino 2015: 10). As seen in Figure 2.1., there is a vast expanding e-market of people to target outside the “*privileged triad of the European Union, the United States and Japan*” (Cronin 2003: 51). Cronin observes that business strategies are becoming more regional in character than homogenously global. There is a demand for localising website and software content and what spurs this demand is the rising accessibility of a globally available communication tool: the Internet. Although client requirements may be regional, the working processes involved in localisation are far from being carried out in just one area of the world. As in the case of Facebook, its interfaces were localised by people drawn from a global online pool of users (crowdsourced) as well as professional translators located around the world. As Cronin points out, this software localisation requires “*complete management of complex projects taking place simultaneously, sometimes in a dozen different locations all over the world, involving people working in different languages and cultures*” (2003: 13). This complexity of simultaneously occurring projects, the different geographical locations and cooperative partners involved, points to the greater need for management of these factors. There are currently a plethora of companies offering software as well as online platforms which facilitate localisation and project management. SDL, for example, is one such company offering localisation software solutions.

SDL provides localisation software and services in order for translators to carry out software and website localisation. Its *SDL Passolo* software, for example, is a computer-assisted translation tool (henceforth CAT tool) targeted mostly at translators. Evidently an entire industry has been created around the increased need to integrate software solutions into the translation and localisation process. CAT tools will be addressed in more detail in the following chapter, yet in relation to localisation, its functions reflect the translation and processing steps required for software and website localisation. The SDL website highlights a number of considerations which have to be made when undertaking localisation: *measuring units, number formats, time and date formats, address formats, character sets,*

fonts...hyphenation, local regulations, copyright issues, data protection (<http://www.translationzone.com/products/software-localization/>). These elements can supposedly be addressed to some extent by an automated system, which the *Passolo* software claims to do. The website goes on to set out the basic steps involved, which are presumably covered to some degree by its software product:

- Analysis of the material received and evaluation of the tools and resources required for localization
- Cultural, technical and linguistic assessment
- Creation and maintenance of terminology glossaries
- Translation to the target language
- Adaptation of the user interface, including resizing of forms and dialogs, as required
- Localization of graphics, scripts or other media containing visible text, symbols, etc.
- Compilation and build of the localized files for testing
- Linguistic and functional quality assurance
- Project delivery

(<http://www.translationzone.com/products/software-localization/>)

This system relies to a large extent on translation memory (TM), including glossaries, and translation management systems (TMS). Stored target-text segments or words will appear whenever an identical source-language segment for translation appears (Dollerup 2008: 46). This is then adjusted to include other components necessary for localisation, such as graphics, scripts etc, which are stored using this software. The more the software is used, the more a storage database of localised files from which to draw from and compare is created and built upon. In this way it “*accelerates the many technical aspects of software localization and allows users to concentrate on the translation*” (<http://www.translationzone.com/products/software-localization/>) which means it is hopefully more time and cost-effective.

The above-mentioned components highlight the complexity and multi-faceted nature of undertaking any localisation project. The increasing demand for localisation has not only spawned the need for localisation solutions offered by software-creating companies like SDL. It has also created an increased awareness of the need for implementing tighter controls on content creation and management at the start and during project development. What is meant

by this is that companies creating software, websites and video games are becoming aware of the need to identify and address localisation requirements during product development if they intend to go global with their product in future. This may involve making sure a product is internationalised.

Internationalisation allows for a more culturally neutral foundation on which to localise. The higher the degree of internationalisation of a product being developed, the “easier” it will be to localise this product to target separate markets abroad (Giammerresi 2011: 19). Internationalisation can thus be more effective in saving a company the much coveted money and time which will give it the competitive edge it needs in today’s market economy. This means translators and localisers are in many cases already being consulted at the product development stage. Giammarresi highlights the need for effective project management which is therefore necessary for internationalisation and the subsequent localisation of a product:

...in today’s economy, in-house translation and localization are an increasing rarity. In this highly outsourced environment, project managers in translation and localization service providers are often the first people to discover and confront the problems that arise when a company decides to localise (2011: 19).

Should companies decide to use the services of translators and localisers for internationalisation and localisation, this means that the number of collaborators involved in creating any product intending to target regional markets around the world will increase. In view of this, Giammarresi has pointed to companies outsourcing their translation and localisation tasks. His belief is that due to the currently dwindling number of in-house translators, outsourcing plays a key role in the carrying out of localisation. As companies have to look beyond their own staff to accomplish these tasks, they have to make decisions on who to employ. Bearing in mind the above-mentioned considerations and steps involved in localisation as named by leading translation software producer SDL, localisation is unlikely to be a one man undertaking. Throw in the fact that localisation demands and target markets are becoming more regional linguistically (as demonstrated in figure 2.1.), this will also require more often than not, quite a few target languages. Of course, when considering the number of cooperative and communicative partners involved it is necessary to consider the scope of the project.

3.2.2. Project Scope and Cooperative Partners in Communication Networks

Gouadec links the scope/volume of a localisation (or translation) project to its target market requirements, which in turn he connects to the type of translation service provider necessary to carry out the job. He identifies three main markets: major accounts, coherent markets and

miscellaneous markets (Gouadec 2010: 143). The largest volume market is the major accounts market, which will be a big contract involving a large number of language combinations. It will require input from localisers during the entire production process. Contracts of this type will only be awarded to and acquired by *“the largest translation companies and agencies...because they can draw on extensive networks of reliable, tested translators and have...the complex technical requirements involved”* (Gouadec 2010: 143). This once more highlights the necessity of ICT and networking for the accomplishment of (in this case) large localisation contracts in multiple languages. With this network comes the increased need for coordination of this.

Gouadec mentions the high likelihood of such large translation agencies having the expensive ISO certification for management quality control. Quality assessment for project management will be addressed in a later section, it is relevant here however, as it is costly and laborious and yet companies are still investing in it. It stands to reason that they do this in order to set themselves apart from the competition. Due to this need for project management and, according to Gouadec, desire for quality certification, he asserts it is unlikely that such contracts would go to independent freelancers, noting that *“this does not mean that independent translators may not work for major accounts, but they are the exception and do so as freelancers hired by some agency or company”* (2010: 143).

The ‘coherent market’ is smaller in scope, usually translating into two or three target languages and several subject areas (Gouadec 2010: 144). The types of translators working in this market tend to be *“‘top-of-the-range’ translation companies or freelancers who have focused on particular clients and succeeded in creating a long-standing relationship with them”* (Gouadec 2010: 144). In this market, those carrying out the translations will likely work in the same business sector, the relationships they build with the client and the similarities they manage to establish are of utmost importance. This is not always the case when it comes to the third market: the ‘miscellaneous market’. This covers a wide range of areas of expertise, types and volumes. This market also draws on networks of translators, albeit either local ones with good reputations, or as Gouadec notes, the contracts are *“increasingly ‘organized’ by translation brokering agencies, who...collect miscellaneous translation contracts and farm them out to the multifarious mass translators they work with around the world, hopefully cashing in on rate differences”* (2010: 144-145).

Despite differences in work volume and number of target languages offered, all three of the markets have key factors in common. That is that to different extents they all make use of some form of online networking in which to source the translators they use. In all three markets, apart from exceptions, clients in those markets will work with the services of agencies or companies, who in turn manage the translators working on a project.

The model in all three markets can be more or less thus represented, albeit in a simplified way:

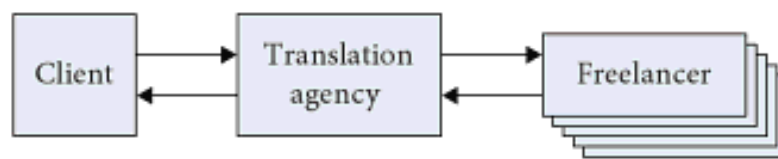


Figure 6: Language outsourcing model. Clients subcontract projects to translation agencies and companies, which then subcontract work to freelancers. (Dunne 2011: 4).

Dunne points to the fact that most translation agencies do not carry out the translation work but are responsible for sharing out work to freelance translators. This would implicitly suggest then, that freelance translators are working with agencies and highlights once again the previously mentioned co-dependent, symbiotic relationship between agencies and freelancers. He observes that “*Project management is the core competency of a translation agency, the “hub of the wheel” around which translation and localization activities revolve*” (Dunne 2011: 5). Globalisation, ICT and online networking, have reinforced the notion of team work needing to be coordinated across the world, as Sandrini notes, strict hierarchies within the translation industry have been abolished and replaced by information exchange and a system founded on global networks (2004: 175).

Sandrini argues that the need to coordinate new and increased numbers of cooperative partners across the world, along with new social developments and requirements in translation services such as (e)localisation, intercultural terminology management and multilingual documentation have led to the need for changes in the average processing procedure (2004: 175). He demonstrates his findings on what the day-to-day processing of translation jobs and the role of the translator in an increasingly globalised world looks like:

Messbarer Outcome: Zieltext x Zeilen zu x EUR	-	Partizipation zum Erreichen strategischer Ziele: Enge Zusammenarbeit mit dem Auftraggeber, der Translator als Experte für Mehrsprachigkeit, Text-design, Lokalisierung; Umfassender Einsatz von Tools und Austausch von Terminologie und Translation Memories
Individuelle Verantwortung: Übersetzer xy liefert Sprache a, Übersetzer yz liefert Sprache b...	-	Verantwortung im Team: Angebot umfassender Problemlösung durch Kooperation

Genaue Rollenverteilung: Textproduzent, Übersetzer, Redakteur, Revisor	-	Flexible Positionen und Verantwortlichkeit: resultatsorientierte Kooperation, notwendige Aufgaben werden dem Gesamtziel untergeordnet
Hierarchischer Informationsfluss: Informationsfluss passive Ausführung	-	Informationsnetzwerk: Selbstmanagement und Kooperation auf allen Ebenen
Rationalisierung, Verbesserungen durch Managementelite von oben	-	Effizienz durch Initiative aus allen Richtungen (dynamischer Wechsel), vor allem auch durch Kooperation (Peer-Pressure)
(Sandrini	2004:	175).

Evidently cooperation and “self-management” are key. Every level of the translation process has been infiltrated by the need to cooperate via networks, the need for the ensuing flexibility on the part of the translator and finally, the need for management “from the top”. The new requirements in the translation industry, such as localisation, have thus brought about new requirements in cooperation and networking. The global nature of localisation further reinforces the international nature of the cooperation and networking which needs to take place. The surge in access to people all over the world has entailed a greater need for networks to be consolidated and managed by translation agencies (i.e. “from the top”) rather than by individual freelancers working independently. The new market environment has heralded a new chain of production within translation processing, it has also affected the way contacts are established and networks are created and expanded. In light of this, I will be looking at Bourdieu’s theory of capital and how it can be applied to translation service providers and their networking and management procedures on the globalised market today.

3.3. Getting ahead and Bourdieu’s Theory of Capital

In economics, the goal of acquiring and maintaining certain forms of capital is arguably in order to facilitate its conversion into economic capital (profits); profit being what ultimately drives and motivates most professional translators and translation agencies. This section will look at virtual networking within the framework of Bourdieu’s theory of capital, bearing in mind the convertibility of the forms of capital into profitable gains and vice versa. It will look at how virtual networks can facilitate the establishment of cooperative relationships within

the translation industry and the forms of capital which it helps to acquire. It will also argue that the increasing access to global virtual networks and partners will entail the need for more management and quality control, which a translation agency can best provide.

Bourdieu's theory comprises the following forms of capital: cultural and social. Within the translation industry, cultural capital can be "*objectified in material objects and media*" (1986: 243) such as in the production of texts and websites which are translated. Cultural capital can generate material and symbolic profits for "*possessors of a large cultural capital*" (1986: 245). Knowledge and qualifications in language, translation, localisation, ICT and project management etc., are examples of cultural capital. Its distribution determines its scarcity value and impacts the profits to be gained by its possessors. Obtaining it depends on the "*distribution of the means of appropriating the accumulated...resources*" and is "*mediated by the...competition between...the possessors of capital competing for the same goods, in which scarcity- and through it social value- is generated*" (1986: 245-246). The means of appropriating cultural capital within the translation industry, i.e. accessing translators, clients, translation agencies, jobs, glossary lists, are thus important and can nowadays be done via the Internet.

The reputation, contacts, loyalty and trust built up over time between those involved in the translation process could be seen within the theory of capital as "social value", which Bourdieu describes as "*the aggregate or potential resources linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintances and recognition, or in other words: to membership in a group*" (1986:248). But what happens when this "group" is the worldwide web and is accessible to everyone? Keeping the framework of capital in mind, how are relationships formed, maintained and managed on virtual platforms and what attracts and binds this "group" which uses them?

The aforementioned "group" currently communicates and exchanges information on the worldwide web, and membership to this club is by no means exclusive. The Web is a multi-way information platform offering one-to-one, one-to-many and many-to-many communication exchange and provides a mechanism for creating shared interest groups and communities (Gupta and Kim 2004: 1). The notion of community, as explained by Dickinson and Risku, consists of three components: people, places and things (2009: 50). The Internet, however, has altered the perception of "place" as relationships are maintained over long distances via the Web (Dickinson and Risku 2009: 51). Bourdieu considered the establishment and maintenance of relationships to be of utmost importance, declaring that "*relationships exist in practical state, material or symbolic...the establishment and maintenance of which is partially irreducible to objective relations of proximity in physical (geographical) space*" (1986:245). The way these relationships are established has undergone transformation and seeing as geographical proximity is clearly not needed to create them, new questions surface such as how they are established and how translation

relationships over distance should be managed.

A virtual translation community is one tool which can fulfil the function of facilitating exchange of knowledge across distances. Translators have realised the benefits of mutual information exchange via global networks and have become members of these networks despite not always directly receiving financial gain. They may be part of a virtual community in order to exchange knowledge, ideas, terminology and glossary lists without pay. Nevertheless, Bourdieu's theory of capital can be applied to the motivation behind such information exchange, as membership to these online groups provides the opportunity to accumulate and maintain cultural and social capital. Social capital here would imply the connections made between translators, clients and "brokerage" third parties such as translation agencies. Bearing in mind Bourdieu's theory of convertibility of social and cultural capital into economic capital, the benefits of membership to virtual translation communities starts to take on an underlying financial logic. An example of indirect financial rewards to be gained is summarised by O'Hagan: *"everyday most remunerated translators rely on the vast amount of free user-generated content and information available on the Internet be it glossaries of terms or technical information of all kinds in a given language"* (2011: 15). Other rewards can be gained via links and references to jobs being offered online. More direct financial gains can be attained in the form of actually being targeted for jobs or even headhunted via the virtual community.

Bourdieu's theory of social capital stipulates one is known by more people than one knows. By being available online, within professional and social networking groups and sites, translators are indeed achieving this goal of being known to more people. With this increase in potential communicative partners on virtual platforms comes the perceived lack of control over relationships. The concept of a virtual platform is to facilitate contact by leaving messages and links to either the wider community (such as on a general messaging board to be seen by all) or to individuals via private messaging functions. The individuals being contacted can exercise no control over who chooses to contact them. Although initiating relationships has been made easier, establishing and maintaining them requires more effort. Coordinating these relationships can often seem overwhelming due to the sheer number of potential global members and discerning between them has also become more challenging as face-to-face contact becomes rarer. This surge in access to people all over the world implies a greater need for virtual networks to be consolidated and managed.

What characteristics have to be established and managed within a virtual community? Dickinson and Risku labelled the core elements of communities as comprising a shared purpose, a sense of persistent identity, reputation, defined boundaries, trust, loyalty, standards and values. (2009: 53-55).

This model highlights core elements of communities:

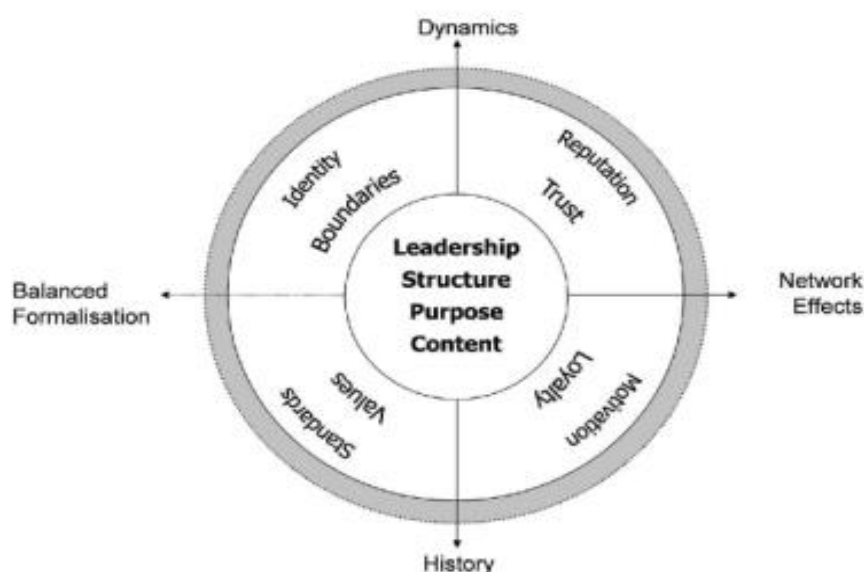


Figure 7: Core elements of community (Dickinson and Risku 2009: 57)

As can be seen in *Figure 7*, having a shared purpose is central to the driving force behind membership to a virtual community, this motivates “*people to come together and achieve something collectively, which they could not have achieved alone*” (Dickinson and Risku 2009: 53). Thus people turn to virtual translation communities in order to work together; this is evidence of a collective conscious acknowledgement of the need to collaborate. Indeed contact via virtual networks often leads to cooperative work between translators and the translation agencies which join these communities to source their freelance translators. Clearly translation agencies have spotted the usefulness of this online facility for their own ends. They utilise the Internet and virtual translation communities engendered by it in order to create exchanges, establish their presence and, to a certain extent, maintain relationships without the need for physical proximity. In this way, it could be surmised that the core elements applied to virtual communities, can also be applied to translation agencies, which in themselves make up a community of translators, translations service providers and project managers.

Virtual translation communities also fulfil Wenger’s code of communities of practice, which states that participants in a community must define a “regime of competence” (Wenger 2012: 2). This includes “*being able to engage productively with others in the community*” and “*using appropriately the repertoire of resources that the community has accumulated*” (2012: 2). This relates to another core element of (virtual) translation communities as defined by Dickinson and Risku, which is content. This is what will attract members to the

community and is the material with which they will be “engaging productively” and what they will be transmitting to each other. Glossaries, links to agencies and clients will form the “repertoire of resources” accumulated over time.

A further key factor to a (virtual) translation community comes under the core element of trust, which is built up over time and “*forms the basis for reliable, mutually beneficial interaction between members*” (Dickinson and Risku 2009: 53). The cultural and social capital represented by knowledge creation and exchange and networking online has to be convertible into some form of economic capital, directly or indirectly, in order to attract and maintain membership to this group.

Relationships on these virtual networks are maintained as members become progressively loyal to the community. Loyalty “*encourages repeated interaction, generates a sense of belonging and, in turn, creates the critical mass of loyal members needed to ensure long-term survival*” (Dickinson and Risku 2009: 55). Over time, the repeated and maintained interaction between members will establish a form of reputation, which will be created from the history of interaction between members (Dickinson and Risku 2009: 55). The core elements of a community will be maintained in a cycle of interaction, which, if it is seen to bear positive rewards for members (direct or indirect economic capital gains) will lead to the increase in membership. This is, after all, the goal of a virtual community and the field of translation is no exception.

As can be seen in *Figure 7*, the core elements work together to establish a (virtual) community and to produce network effects. Network effects refers to the number of members within a group which lends it legitimacy and increased value. The more members a community has, the more knowledge it can offer and therefore the more members it will attract. The more members it attracts the more dynamic and numerous the agents of potential cooperation. Cooperation is facilitated and knowledge can be exchanged within the community. Virtual communities represent a contemporary form of acquiring and exchanging Bourdieu’s idea of cultural capital and facilitates the establishment of networks (social capital) among the translation community. This would imply that one of the main reasons of existence for virtual translation communities is to acquire more members.

There are positive and negative aspects to this intended proliferation of members within the community. A positive aspect is the aforementioned cooperation which can be achieved and the direct and indirect financial gains to be had. Negatives comprise the overwhelming existence of competition and the lack of ability to enforce reliable quality standards. This is where translation agencies can play a role. They can exercise some control and impose standards on the translators it finds on virtual platforms, almost carrying out a form of “vetting” procedure (should it so wish to). Initiators of a translation (clients) often prefer to bypass the copious amounts of translators competing for attention and jobs on the market online by employing agencies who have made contact and entered into a professional

relationship with selected freelance translators. Therefore the advent of virtual translation communities is encouraging discourse on quality control and what it should look like, how it should be enforced and maintained. This will be discussed in a further section.

As in the example of *SDL Language Cloud*, companies have taken steps to cash in on the insecurities of those procuring or offering translation services on the widely used and popular virtual platforms. If another core element of a community (*Figure 7*) is to establish eventual boundaries and create a sense of identity, how is this possible to achieve on an online directory and platform free-for-all? It stands to reason that there must be some sense of control and management brought into place, that parameters be set. After all, choosing a translator from an online platform can risk feeling like choosing a cowboy builder to construct a house rather than go through an established construction company, with its guarantees, adherence to regulations etc. This can make choosing to work with a translation agency, with its established reputation, identity and guarantees much more attractive for the less confident client. A translation agency is often responsible for picking translators and service providers from the pool found online which conform most to a sense of identity the agency has created or moulded to fit one which a client requires.

The theory of convertibility also stipulates that economic capital can be converted into cultural and social capital, such as via investments in ICT, for example. Translation agencies may be better positioned and more capable of making such investments of economic capital in order to acquire and manage cultural and social capital, often utilising virtual platforms as tools of acquisition.

Translation agencies are thus huge possessors of cultural and social capital and are better positioned than uncontrolled virtual translation platforms to discriminate between translators. Translation agencies are making use of virtual platforms to multiply, accumulate and maintain social and cultural capital, and yet are also able to provide an additional service in the form of constructing stricter identities, boundaries, guarantees and quality control. The next section will briefly look at virtual translation platform ProZ and draw comparisons between its functions and that of translation agencies and what the advantages and disadvantages for users of these are. As will be seen, virtual translation platforms often work as a form of directory with which translation agencies can enter into relationships with freelance translators and vice versa.

3.3.1. ProZ vs Translation Agencies

Proz.com is an online translation platform and a business, which was founded in 1999 and offers a large range of tools for translators and translation agencies, helping them to expand their business via the network (Dickinson and Risku 2009: 11). The Proz.com website

proudly claims it has a staggering 300,000 professional translators and translation agencies on its database and thus offers “*the largest directory of professional translation services*” (<http://www.proz.com/>). Much like the *SDL Language Cloud*, it professes to provide access to professional translation services, which of course begs the question of how it manages to assess the quality of translators who can join their site, especially when membership is free and upgrading can be bought for the price of a fee. Paying a fee as a translator to join a site does not guarantee quality or professionalism of translators or services provided. Whilst *SDL Language Cloud* claims to exercise some internal quality control over its employees, thus acting as the agency/online platform hybrid previously described, Proz offers user-reviewed quality assessment.

Within Proz.com is a database called KudoZ Open Glossary (KOG), where questions can be asked and glossaries posted. The answers to questions and glossaries are graded by other members, otherwise jobs can be posted on the jobs and directories board, where the 375,000 ProZ members are free to leave comments and provide feedback (<http://www.proz.com/>). As concerns any form of quality control, the site also offers a “Certified PRO Network”, which can be accessed by clients and translators alike, for a fee. The site functions on the basis that translators create and post their own profiles, declare their qualification degree, experience and language pairs. This therefore operates to a large degree on user-based, peer-generated trust and the reliability of services can only be gleaned via comments and feedback left by the users. This can be a risky business for clients and translation service providers. Profiles can, nevertheless, contain information on whether a community member has met with a staff member or moderator of the platform (Dickinson and Risku 2009: 62). This offers some guarantee on which to build confidence, yet arguably can still not provide any security and reliability that a job will be carried out, what standards will be achieved, nor does it provide any means to unite and manage several translators/agents for a translation project.

On its website, ProZ admits it is a tool catering to the translation outsourcing market. This outsourcing trend has been brought about by the advent of globalisation and the Internet. As Langenberg and Welker note “*These tools (virtual translation communities) help to reduce the distance between the community members virtually and to enable more interactions and spontaneous discussions*” (2011: online journal). This acts as a means of aiding global knowledge transfer and intercultural communication around the world, where people are used as the main resources (Langenberg and Welker 2011: online journal). Yet this brings us back to similar problems with quality control and lack of project management as in the case of crowdsourcing. Pym has pointed to this online market “free-for-all” as resulting in “*market disorder, low status and a corresponding decline in perceived standards*” (Pym et al 2012: 6). Langenberg and Welker have argued for the need of support for communication on virtual platforms, linking this directly with increasing the standards in

effective communication and possibly improving positivity in how these communities are viewed from the outside (2011: online journal).

Langenberg and Welker acknowledge the usefulness of integrating ICT tools into the collaborative Internet-based community to facilitate interaction across the globe (2011: online journal). Software assistance alone will not provide a panacea to intercultural global communication problems, however. They draw attention to the increased differences in communication behaviour, which are dictated by the different cultures to be found on any one virtual platform. They refer to Hofstede's individualism-collectivism dimension, which describes the different approaches that cultures online have to time, communication and communication tools (2011: online journal).

It is salient to this section as the dimensions describe different cultures' workflows, which obviously impact on communication, coordination and management of projects. Hofstede came up with a set of criteria in which different cultures may hold opposing perceptions and communication behaviour, pitting individualism and collectivism against each other, as well as monochronic and polychronic perceptions of time and low versus high context communication, i.e. whether communication is more explicit or implicit (Langenberg and Welker 2011: online journal). To take but one example, it is easy to see how problems could arise between communicative partners from different cultures where one has a more linear approach to time than the other and demands an analytical, systematic and punctual workflow with as few interruptions as possible (2011: online journal). If the cooperative partner's perception is not linear, not only will misunderstandings ensue, but it could potentially delay or impede the completion of a translation project.

In the current market economy and financial climate, it is increasingly important to not lose a client's trust by delivering sub-standard products or services. After all, this failure is likely to create a negative financial impact on the translation service provider. Given global competition and the advent of Internet-based outsourcing, it is within translators' interests to effectively work together in order to secure future jobs and build up a reputation for being reliable and efficient.

Furthermore, cultural parameters and perceptions are also in constant flux over time and by no means static. The "global village" and the advent of the Internet, which Sandrini describes as having engendered a worldwide communication infrastructure, have led to a "*einheitlichen globalen Informationsplattform...und einen weltweiten Austausch von Texten ohne Aufwand*" (2004: 165). And this means that managing communication and knowledge across borders has never been so necessary.

When faced with a global communication platform and a global workforce with different perceptions of the three facets described by Hofstede, the modern challenge becomes how to manage these often divergent cultural behavioural patterns as efficiently as possible. This is where a translation agency can play a pivotal role. As seen in previous

sections, a translation agency will specialise in project management and have the ability to apply the resources needed in order not to lose sight of the *skopos* of a translation, even when working with many language pairs and service providers. As in Risku's case study of a translation agency, it can engage personnel to be solely responsible for coordinating and managing projects, different regions and language pairs. Risku describes the benefits of a project being processed in its entirety by one person, as this person can concentrate on the necessary linguistic and cultural considerations *“um eine möglichst reibungslose Abwicklung zu ermöglichen und Wissensmanagementprobleme zu vermeiden”* (2009: 141).

As a virtual translation community, ProZ can offer access to knowledge and facilitates communication, but its limitations seem to lie in the lack of management of both of these facets. Several factors have to be met in order to enable knowledge transfer. The diagram below depicts the communication aspects involved in knowledge management within virtual communities:

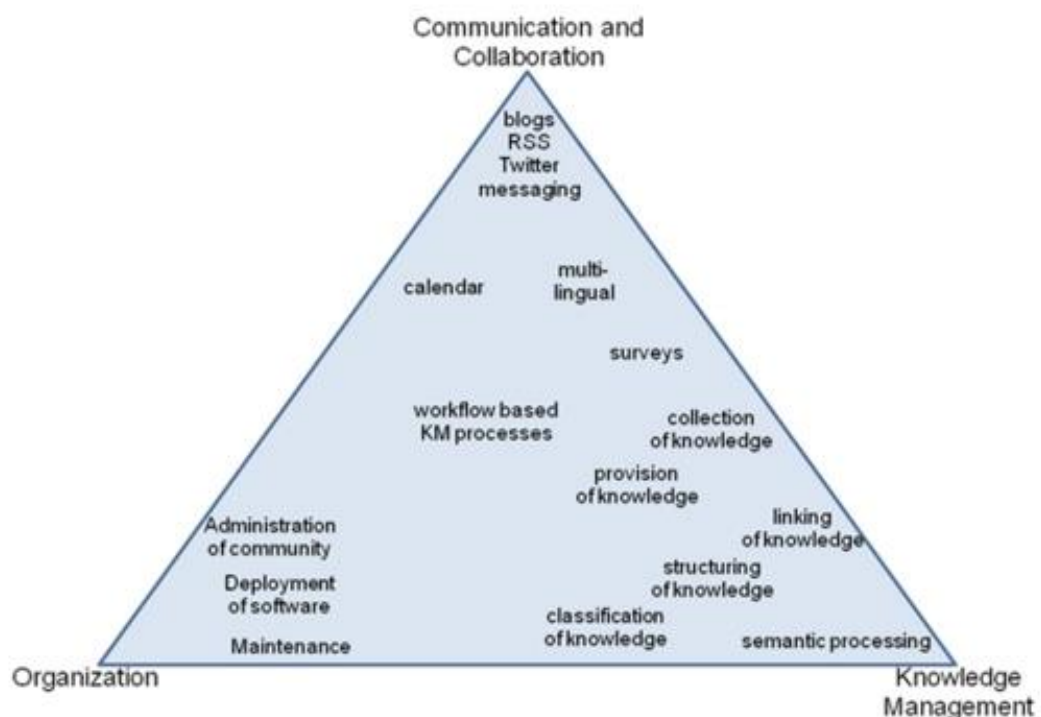


Figure 8: Software assistance for knowledge management and collaboration in Internet communities. (Langenberg and Welker 2011: 2).

The above diagram was conceived in order to illustrate the different factors requiring software assistance in order to enable knowledge transfer and effectuate collaboration on virtual networks. Seeing as translation agencies are also using virtual translation platforms to access freelance translators and market their services, the factors from Figure 8 could also be applied to them. Here one can see that the need for structuring and linking knowledge converges with the need for maintenance and administration thereof. The diagram suggests

this can be brought about by the deployment of adequate management software. Knowledge management (KM) processes are incorporated into workflows, they form the hub which connects knowledge management, organisation of knowledge and communication, and collaboration. Workflows thus play a large role and as previously seen, are dictated by cultural perceptions and behaviour. Communication takes place in the multilingual environment of the virtual community and the pinnacle of communication facilitation are messaging platforms such as blogs, twitter as well as the plain old email. There is indeed a convergence of knowledge management and the need for structure, which points to the need for software assistance, yet also for the need of human engagement with management. As in Dickinson and Risku's illustration of the core elements of community (*Figure 7*), leadership and structure is at the heart of a successfully collaborative and communicative community. Such leadership and structure can be offered and maintained by a translation agency focussing on project management.

A translation agency will also have accumulated economic capital which it can convert into ICT software such as TM systems and CAT tools. In order to stand out from the increased competition, it can also afford to make the investment into quality control certifications, which arguably bring long-term benefits and help solidify trust from the client base. The following section will look at overall requirements and advantages to having the ISO norm 9001 and the updated new version of it brought out in 2015- the ISO 17100 as well as the European quality standard EN 15038.

3.4. Tighter Controls for Translation Management

Several norms have been introduced in the field of translation over the years in order to impose quality standards. These are European or international in scope and undergo updates and changes as time and circumstances within the industry progress. Thanks to the advent of the Internet and the evolving forms of global communication (e.g. ICT, CSCW and teletranslation), standards and norms have been propelled onto a global platform too. The translation community, which is increasingly international in scale and present on the worldwide web, cannot ignore the onset of these standardising norms. The international ISO 9001 norm for quality management and the EN 15038 European norm will be looked at in more detail here, as they focus on several aspects governing translation processes and workflows, such as the issue of project management. The new ISO 17100, introduced in 2015, will also be looked at as it represents an updated version of the long used EN 15038 translation quality management norm.

The quality control standards mentioned in these norms are not imposed upon what

Samuelsson-Brown terms “*intellectual output*” (2006: 42) of translators, which is arguably too open to interpretation and subjectivity. They instead provide a benchmark to be attained by translation service providers in varying issues from human resources management, to professional development, to procedures in translation services (Samuelsson-Brown 2006: 44). So in the growingly global world led by extreme competition and free market forces (as discussed in previous sections), indeed in a world of virtual networks and “price dumping”, what importance does holding a quality management accreditation hold?

This section will argue that the advent of the Internet and globalisation have brought about a greater need for translation service providers to prove and reassure customers of quality control, not just of their translations but also of translation management procedures. The creation and application of the ISO and EN norms within the translation industry, as well as the fact it is seen as necessary to update them, are surely evidence in themselves of that. As discussed in previous sections, the advent of Internet-led globalisation has also led to greater cross-border cooperation and the expansion of the definition of “team work” to include increased culturally-diverse, collaborative partners. This points to the need for greater translation management, after all, as Samuelsson-Brown highlights “*No serious organisation should be without a documented quality management system*” (2006: 42). This section will argue that translation agencies are best placed financially, along with their possession of cultural and social forms of capital, to adhere to these norms, which are becoming more of a necessity in order to stand out from the crowd and meet client requirements. Furthermore, if translation agencies are best suited to adhere to these standards, then the preference to work with agencies will thus increase and by no means diminish.

3.4.1. Quality Management Norms

In relation to norms, Schäffner explains that “*in each community there is a knowledge of what counts as correct or appropriate behaviour, including communicative behaviour. In society, this knowledge exists in the form of norms*” (1999: 1). She goes on to add that “*When conventions are enforced with normative power they are considered to be norms*” (Schäffner 1999: 2). Within the translation industry there has been a movement towards creating, defining and standardising models and the products of behaviour. A translation service is after all the product of an individual or group of individuals’ behaviour. In today’s multi-layered, multi-cultural, heavily outsourced translation industry, standardising norms and codes of practice can go a long way in streamlining, enforcing and maintaining certain universal expectations. Taking Schäffner’s definition of norms into consideration, they are there to “*function intersubjectively...and...regulate expectations concerning both the behaviour itself and the products of this behaviour*” (1999: 1).

They can therefore also be particularly necessary when considering the different cultural perspectives and behaviours such as those described by Hofstede, which are mentioned in the previous section.

In the year of writing this, 2017, a new norm for quality management for translation services has been introduced, called the ISO 17100:2015. This is an international certification for translation agencies. According to QMS (the certification body for management systems) this standard *“defines the specific requirements that providers of translation services must meet with regard to the deployment of people and resources, quality assurance, management systems, contractual framework, project management and service provision”* (<http://www.qmsi.eu/iso-17100-35>). It should function as a framework of guidance for performance improvements. The accreditation procedure involves internal audits, as it aims to assess internal business processes as well as the qualification of translators and proofreaders (<http://www.qmsi.eu/iso-17100-35>). In an industry where anyone can claim to be a translator, norms such as this one are there to enforce a degree of transparency for those involved in translation relationships and processes (Herzog and Mühlbauer 2007: 4).

The EN 15038 European standard for translation quality management was introduced in 2006 and was also created with transparency in mind as well as to provide assistance for those taking on and providing translation services and jobs. The call for greater transparency is not only present for workflow procedures within these norms, but also as a principle for translation jobs. Herzog and Mühlbauer draw attention to the “Vier-Augen-Prinzip” present in the EN 15038 norm. It is also present in the ISO 9001 series and the new ISO 17100:2015 norm for translation quality management. This entails checking translations with at least one other qualified translator. This is not a list of rules on how to spot a “wrong” translation, as previously mentioned, intellectual output is not measured within these norms. Having a translation proofread by another qualified translator is intended here to minimise pressure on one sole translator, encourage cooperation and peer support within the industry and provide clients with greater transparency for their translations. Herzog and Mühlbauer go on to emphasise how this further strengthens the need for cooperation in the industry *“Diese Vorgaben können freiberufliche Übersetzer z.B. durch fachliche Kooperationen erfüllen”* (2007: 4).

It stands to reason that this amount of encouraged cooperation requires some form of coordination. Such coordination could be best suited to translation agencies rather than individual freelancers, who may not have the resources of time and money available to invest in such proofreading procedures with second or third parties. Although the Vier-Augen-Prinzip increases transparency of translations themselves, it has come under some criticism by individual freelance translators, who argue that *“in unserer täglichen Praxis...ist dieses 4-Augen-Prinzip die absolute Ausnahme...Allerdings sind solche Maßnahmen nicht für alle Auftragsarten und Situationen geeignet”* (Meyer 2007: 1). This may well be true in a

practical everyday context for freelance translators, which means that they may actually be ill-suited to adhere to these quality control procedures. These norms are nevertheless there to ensure a certain efficiency, standard and to meet market requirements. Not being able to adhere to this could not only place freelancers at a competitive disadvantage, but also place inferior translation products and services on the market. Certain freelancers bemoan what they see as “unfair” standards imposed on their profession, yet also complain of wanting to escape price-dumping brought about by the lack of recognition of and seriousness accorded the profession. Samuelsson-Brown describes this aptly thus: *“Surely working to a recognised and documented standard and gaining certification according to the standard set can only enhance the standing of the profession?”* (2006: 44).

Continuing in the vein of the importance of reputation and returning to transparency, the latter becomes particularly important in the case of more complex translation projects such as localisation projects. Dunne argues that customer-focused quality management, which requires customers to specify their requirements, may well run into trouble and confusion, when it becomes apparent that customers have limited comprehension of the requirements of their target market. He argues that *“In fact, lack of such knowledge plays a major role in many clients’ decision to outsource translation in the first place”* (2011: 160). He states that in the absence of specific client requirements of localisation or of outsourced projects, the responsibility for specifying requirements often falls to the language service provider (2011: 160). This represents a risk, however, that the target product or service will not meet the customer’s expectations. This is why having standards for documenting customers’ expectations and carrying this out as thoroughly as possible is seen to be so important. Offering them the degree of transparency concerning workflows and agents involved in the process can not only limit misunderstandings and failed expectations but also ensure greater efficiency on behalf of the language service provider. To gain trust and loyalty from a customer in today’s highly competitive, globalised, outsourced translation industry, it stands to reason that minimising the risk of failing to meet customer expectations and not losing sight of objectives due to lack of appropriate documentation is a necessity for survival. Freelance translators often work in conjunction with other colleagues who are often located in different parts of the world. If they take it upon themselves to specify customers’ requirements and do not follow a standard documentation procedure, should the project not meet customers’ expectations, it is not only their reputations at stake but overall that of the entire industry.

3.4.2. Norms for Technical Resources and Project Management

Project management, MT, TM systems and CAT tools as well as processes of post-editing and proofreading have been included and emphasised in the new ISO 17100 norm. In fact, a closer look will reveal that what it has in common with the ISO 9001 series and EN 15038 norm is that it is more focussed on standardising translation procedures, added value services and workflow. Technology and the management of people involved play a large role in the new ISO 17100: 2015 norm, which confirms the heightened importance of modern-day globalised technology and coordination of work processes and of those cooperating within the translation industry.

As seen in Risku's case study and with *SDL Passolo* and *Language Cloud* software, technology goes hand in hand with project management methodology, whether it be for localisation (Passolo) or any translation project. Risku highlights the dependency on technology to help coordinate and streamline daily activities within an agency. She mentions that "*Die Mitarbeiterinnen setzen große Hoffnungen in das Projektmanagement-System bezüglich der automatischen Protokollierung ihrer Arbeitszeit*" (2009: 169) and emphasises just how far project management software assists in making the workload for project managers more transparent and comprehensive. It facilitates coordination of tasks and in many cases reduces time spent on projects, thus also improving working conditions for those involved in the processing of jobs.

The EN 15038 standard, for example, considers the efficient deployment of technical resources in quality management systems, as does its contemporary counterpart, the ISO 17100:2015. It states:

3.3. Technical resources

TSP (Translation Service Provider) shall ensure the availability of the following:

- a) Requisite equipment for the proper execution of the translation projects as well as for safe and confidential handling, storage, retrieval, archiving and disposal of documents and data.
- b) Requisite communications equipment as well as hardware and software.
- c) Access to relevant information sources and media.

(Österreichisches Normungsinstitut 2006: 7)

As regards quality management systems, it requires there to be a statement of the quality management system objectives as well as a "*Process for monitoring the quality of delivered translation services and where necessary providing after delivery correction and taking*

corrective action” (Österreichisches Normungsinstitut 2006: 7). This harkens back to Dunne’s emphasis on transparent documentation of clients’ requirements. Technology also plays a role in the third item under point 3.4. of the EN 15038 standard, which states it requires the TSP to have a process in place for handling information received from a client. This is more likely than not, as seen in chapter one, going to be automated and involve the use of ICT, such as receiving documents via email and storing them using TM systems etc. This recognises the importance of possessing compatible software. “Requisite communications equipment” is an intentionally vague term, acknowledging the constant evolution of ICT and software programmes available for project management over time, as well as the need for communication over distances using ICT tools.

Provisions have also been made for the usage of CAT tools and to a much more limited extent, MT, which within the new ISO 17100:2015 requires new roles to be created and managed in order to use current translation technology and effectively impose standards on those using it. Examples within the norm are post-editors, which edit machine translation output and those providing and managing “value-added services”. These are services offered, which go beyond translation. This can include delivery service, but also services heavily involving IT such as website and localisation management, layout, design, formatting etc. The increase in offering “value-added services” and who is best suited to offer them will be discussed in the following section. However, these services have been included within the norm as they evidently form a growing part of what translation service providers need to offer. Thus they require the same level of quality to be applied to them.

The new ISO 17100:2015 norm also contains a new category: “*Responsibility for sub-contracted tasks*” (International Organization for Standardization 2015: 5) which takes outsourcing into account. As previously touched upon, outsourcing is often global in scale and increases the amount of agents involved in the process and involves the use of ICT and Internet-based tools for coordination. If anything, this highlights two ever-present aspects in the modern-day field of translation, which are cooperation and coordination. Both have been considered in the updating of translation management norms, along with the tools used to bring about cooperation and coordination themselves, such as TM systems and CAT tools. The standard is therefore also in place to provide guidelines of practice for all those involved in the network which makes up the translation processing chain, and indicates that there is indeed a network of people to be considered. As stated on the EN standard webpage “*it specifies the professional competences of each of the participants in the translation process, mainly translators, reviewers, revisers and proofreaders.*” (<http://qualitystandard.bs.en-15038.com/>) This standard, along with the ISO 9001 norm series for Quality Management Systems, highlights the movement set in motion to fulfil an increasingly international requirement for more project management controls. Translation service providers even have a separate quality management standard of their own. These standards show that the translation

process today is one involving an acknowledged multi-layered widespread network of people and processes, which need to be controlled and standardised.

3.4.3. Norms, Translational Action and Who is Officially Involved

Quite how the number of agents involved in translations has mushroomed over time is reflected in the new ISO 17100:2015 norm, which takes into account the rudimentary agents involved, plus their functions. Many of the roles included veer slightly away from and expand upon the traditional roles such as *Bedarfsträger*, *Besteller* etc. set out by Holz-Mänttari in her theory of translational action, to include roles involving IT, design, “value-added services” and project management. Holz-Mänttari’s theory of translational action includes models of cooperative work between agents involved in the translation process and to a certain extent the reality of cooperation is catered for within the requirements set out in the ISO 17100:2015 and EN 15038 norms. The skeleton of cooperative partners as set out by Holz-Mänttari in 1984 has evidently had to be updated for the contemporary translation industry. In the ISO 17100:2015 norm, those involved in translation processes have been identified as:

- Translation service providers (TSP) - such as translation companies, individual translators, or in-house translation departments.
- Language service providers (LSP), which are considered as TSPs for the purposes of the international standard, yet comprises language-related and value-added related services.
- Clients and customers - the commissioner of a translation service from a TSP by formal agreement.
- Translator - person who translates.
- Reviser – person who revises target language and source language content. This is a bilingual exercise, whereby the reviewer also has to check the suitability of the target language text “*for the agreed purpose*” (<https://www.iso.org/obp/ui/#iso:std:iso:17100:ed-1:v1:en>).
- Reviewer – person who reviews target language content.
- Proofreader – person who proofreads target language content
- Project manager (PM) – person responsible for the translation process and for managing specific aspects of the project. In regards to workflow, the PM is responsible for “*coordinating, managing, and monitoring a project throughout its complete lifecycle*”

(<https://www.iso.org/obp/ui/#iso:std:iso:17100:ed-1:v1:en>).

- Post-editor – edits and corrects machine translation output. It is a role which has been created due to the greater involvement of technology in the translation process. The norm states that the post-editor will “*edit output automatically generated by a machine translation engine. It does not refer to a situation where a translator sees and uses a suggestion from a machine translation engine within a CAT tool*” (<https://www.iso.org/obp/ui/#iso:std:iso:17100:ed-1:v1:en>).

Considering that the updating of the translation quality standard is reflective of the reality of the contemporary translation industry, the number of participants in the translation process has expanded and contains a lot more roles than in Holz-Mänttari’s theory of translational action. A lot of the roles involve an increased awareness of the need to manage processes engendered by the advent of technology, ICT and the Internet. De V. Souza highlights that the TSPs may be “*individual translators working with a colleague who revises the initial translation, but a TSP is typically a translation company larger than one translator*” (2015: 2). Inferring that, while the norm can indeed be applied to freelance translators, the mere requirement of quality entailing reviewers and revisers (proofreaders etc.) makes it impossible for translators to work alone and adhere to this quality norm on their own.

Both the EN 15038 and ISO 17100 norms contain a section regarding managing translation projects. Within these we see the allocation of the roles of those involved within the processing of translations. The basic outline of project management within the norm includes: assigning translators for the project, assigning revisers and reviewers, enabling and monitoring consistency in translation etc. (Österreichisches Normungsinstitut 2006: 9). This also fits in with what Kurz describes as the three most important actions when processing a translation project, which are „*Pre-Translation Management, TM und Post-TM*“ (Kurz 2012: 151). This once more highlights the importance of effective project management. The Vier-Augen-Prinzip also makes it counterproductive when wishing to attain the quality set out in the norms, to have one sole person carrying out pre-project management, project management, translation and revision.

The EN 15038 norm stipulates that TSPs shall have “*documented procedures in place for handling translation projects, contact with the client during the translation process, and quality assurance*” (Österreichisches Normungsinstitut 2006: 9). It places emphasis on the importance of the client-TSP relationship and the need for project management by the TSP in order to fulfil client-TSP agreements. Within the framework of the skopos theory, this would greatly contribute to fulfilling a target text’s aim as an offer of information for the target audience. Especially when the target audience is mostly set out by the client. Successful project management is seen in the norm as contributing towards “*compliance with the client-*

TSP agreement” (Österreichisches Normungsinstitut 2006: 9).

If these processes for quality of services have been set out in a standardised norm, then one can assume that they have been envisaged for the improvement not only of the services provided but of the image of the translator. Kurz views holding such accreditation positively and almost indispensably thus:

Der Ruf von ÜbersetzerInnen und auch der Ruf des gesamten Berufsstandes ist immer nur so gut wie die wahrgenommene Qualität der abgelieferten Übersetzungen...damit muss auch der Begriff der Qualität eine Definition erfahren, die so wenig Raum für Interpretationsmöglichkeiten wie möglich lässt...Ein zufriedener Kunde wird sich im Bedarfsfall erneut an den Übersetzungsdienstleister “seines Vertrauens” wenden, ihn unter Umständen weiterempfehlen, und beschert dem TSP einen höheren Umsatz (Kurz 2012: 146).

It seems these standards are best suited to agencies, which will be able to utilise these standards to guarantee management quality across the entire translation process. Customers requiring translations who are overwhelmed by the plethora of translation service providers on the Internet may be swayed to employ the services of a certified translation agency rather than that of an uncertified, lone freelancer. Indeed Gouadec highlights this by stating

Not surprisingly, those work providers who have gone through the long and expensive process of obtaining ISO certification, for instance, and putting up extensive quality assurance procedures would be rightly reluctant to work with language service providers which cannot offer the same type of guaranteed quality certification (2010: 143).

Agencies may also be best suited in terms of the social, cultural and economic capital they possess to adhere to these norms. Gaining accreditation costs time and money, *“Da der Faktor Geld mit dem Faktor Zeit korreliert, bedeutet mehr Geld mehr Zeit. Die Einhaltung von Kundenanforderungen (d.h. das Herstellen von Qualität) ist i.d.R. zeitintensiv, steigert aber die Qualität des Translats”* (Kurz 2012: 148). If, as Kurz points out, quality improves through the application of this norm, why should one choose not to have it? If adhering to the norm is, however, time-consuming and thus costly, then this could alienate freelance translators, who are already battling global competition and competitive pricing.

In taking a look at the requirements stated for guaranteeing quality within these norms, one can gather a sense of generalised, current, real requirements within the industry. Some of those being cooperation and coordination between at least one other person or with multiple agents involved in the process. The norms strongly imply that more than one translator is required to comply with the standards. If the norms are indeed intended to be reflective of real-life day-to-day translation processes, then this implies that nobody is or should be working alone anymore. Benefits such as traceability, standards dictating qualifications for all those involved in the process such as translators and project managers and a traceable and certified management system can all help increase customer confidence (<http://www.isoqsltd.com/iso-certification/iso-17100-translation-services-management->

[certification/](#)). The message to be gleaned from the requirements stated in these norms is clear: efficient cooperation leads to improvement in quality; effective project management and human resources management is indispensable.

3.5. Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has explored how indispensable cooperation and connections are to the translation industry and how they are increasingly created, maintained and expanded via virtual communities and virtual communication. The prominence and greater penetration of the Internet and ICT on a global scale has engendered phenomena within the translation industry such as MOC and crowdsourcing. These go hand in hand with virtual communities, which offer a platform for freelance translators and agencies to access each other as well as clients. Translators and agencies can accumulate the social, cultural and economic capital they require to ensure their survival in today's competitive market-driven economy via, among others, virtual communities. As new challenges and requirements arise due to the advent of the Internet and ICT, so new roles and forms of cooperation are created to meet them. This chapter has argued that this increase in access to cooperative partners, the advent of MOC and crowdsourcing, "value-added services" and localisation, have created a greater need for coordination. Coordination which a translation agency is best suited to provide. Furthermore, the fact that translation projects involve agents located worldwide, with different cultural perceptions of workflows, have also led to an increased need for coordination. This chapter has used scholarly evidence to show how coordination is best provided in the form of project management.

Moreover, norms and quality standards have been introduced and are constantly updated to provide for management requirements. With the increase in access to multi-layered, culturally diverse translators in virtual communities, the need to stand out from the competition and ensure customer loyalty has never before been so necessary to survive in the industry. This chapter has shown that the intention underlying norms is to provide client reassurance as well as improve the standing of the profession. Lack of regulation of the industry, caused in large part by a global online "free-for-all", has created increased competition and potential "price-dumping". Therefore acquiring accreditation allows one to stand out from the crowds and helps regulate the industry. Translation agencies are best suited to invest the time and money required to achieve accreditation. Not only this, but these valued norms dictate the need for revision and reviewing of translations and processes by second or third parties as well as transparency of project management protocols. This therefore demonstrates that in order to adhere to quality norms, it is practically impossible to work alone.

All three norms briefly explored in this chapter identify project management as a key factor for quality. Translation agencies are better positioned to make use of virtual communities to source and “vet” freelance translators, have enough social, cultural and economic capital to invest in norms and can manage the much needed coordination of global agents via effective project and human resources management.

The following chapter will look at the increasing need for translation services around the world. This necessity, along with economic factors dictated by the global market economy have led to a trend towards outsourcing of translations. It will also address the growing time-to-market demands, which have engendered new translation tools and phenomena to meet them, such as instant machine translation like Google Translate, CAT tools and web translation via content management systems (CMS). Chapter five will argue that all of these tools, no matter how automated and technical will nevertheless require real human input and management. Once again, the chapter will argue that this management is best suited to be carried out by a translation agency and this will lead to an increased infiltration of translation agencies in the industry.

4. Globalisation, the Increasing Need for Translation and the Advent of Internet-based Outsourcing

The previous chapter highlighted the increased need for coordination of translation processes in order to meet market demands. It demonstrated the different ways in which global penetration of the Internet works concomitantly with the market economy to create an unregulated translation industry. This in turn engenders the creation of norms in order to impose a necessary best practice standard. The greater potential for cooperative partners, the lack of imposed norms on quality and processes all point toward a greater need for project management within the industry. To ensure survival, the accumulation of forms of capital, self-promotion online, establishment of quality and reliability via reputation and accreditation, and greater ability to coordinate collaboration across the world have become pivotal. The previous chapter emphasised the advantageous position that translation agencies occupy in relation to meeting these criteria for survival and demonstrated how freelance translators and agencies use virtual communities to enter into relationships with one another. Yet what of the need for translation services themselves? What use is it having a virtual, globally accessible platform for translators if there is no work out there for them? Isn't English becoming the "*lingua franca universalis*" and subsuming the need for translation across all modes of inter-cultural communication? Hasn't the advent of the Internet also engendered instant machine translation tools online, such as Google Translate, which take care of the need for increased human involvement in the translation process?

This chapter will demonstrate that the need for translation has taken on an importance of political magnitude. This is especially evident when considering industry and the all-pervasiveness of the market economy around the world as well as the desire of different countries to enter into trade agreements with one another. The promotion of regional languages and linguistic and cultural pluralism, which was briefly touched upon in the previous chapter regarding localisation, has also greatly encouraged the need for more cross-cultural communication. With these global trade agreements also comes the world of outsourcing in which we live. This chapter will describe how political developments and outsourcing have played a role in reshaping the modern translation industry. It will argue that the need for translation (and, subsequently, project management) is constantly increasing thanks to the greater penetration of ICT, CSCW and the Internet, as explained in chapter three. It will also show how the growing virtually connected world network and new job roles created thanks to the advent of the Internet, such as MOC and localisation explained in chapter four, have created a translation industry dependent on keeping up with a fast-paced, outsourced, highly-technologised world. The greater need for time-to-market efficiency, cost-effectiveness via streamlining of processes as well as via the creation of virtual offices will be

explored.

This chapter will aim to show how translation agencies are once more best suited to keep abreast of these developments. In keeping pace with the evolution of market demands, this chapter will show how translation agencies are gaining ground and increasingly strengthening their relationship with freelancers. This chapter will further demonstrate how this co-dependent relationship is becoming one of necessity, as modern translation requires the increased need for coordination and project management. This need for human-driven coordination is also by no means quelled by the advent of MT and TMS, but instead actually reinforced, as machines and systems require and promote more human involvement in managing them.

4.1. Globalisation, Politically-driven Multilingualism and the Greater Need for Translation

“Employment of interpreters and translators is projected to grow 46 per cent from 2012-2022, much faster than the average for most occupations” (US Bureau of Labor Statistics: <http://www.bls.gov/ooh/Media-and-Communication/Interpreters-and-translators.htm#tab-6>).

The US Bureau of Labor Statistics predicted this growth in the translation industry in 2012 and went further in attributing this to *“increasing globalisation and a more diverse US population, which is expected to require more interpreters and translators”*. Globalisation and the resulting increased cultural and linguistic diversity have evidently played a large role in this development. The world is comprised of a vast network of global cities, attracting migrants not only from within its borders, from diverse regions with their own different cultures and languages, but also from abroad. As the influx of migrants continues, so does the need for cultural and linguistic brokers, as Cronin notes *“As more and more people become inhabitants of global cities, the issue of translation and indeed indifference to translation is raised in the context of an argument for new, polyglossic civility”* (2003: 4-5). This “polyglossic civility” is evidenced in the directives introduced by institutions such as the EU and is particularly prominent and salient in Europe today with the recent massive influx of refugees from diverse Central Asian, African and Middle Eastern countries.

In fact, the market for outsourced translation and interpreting services and technology was predicted to surpass 37.19 billion USD in 2014 and had roughly 26,000 translation service providers across 154 countries in 2013 (<http://www.marketwatch.com/story/market-for-outsourced-translation-and-interpreting-services-and-technology-to-surpass-us37-billion-in-2014-2014-07-01>). The demand for language services is continuously growing, despite financial difficulties experienced internationally in recent times. The annual growth rate for

translation service providers according to statistics derived from the CSA independent research firm, was 6.23% annually in 2014 (common sense advisory homepage). So what are the underlying reasons for this continuous increase?

Globalisation lies at the heart of the foundations on which the modern translation industry is being built. More precisely, the interplay between globalisation and the market economy is pivotal in the direction that translation has taken. As Cronin explains: *(the) new economy is global because central activities of production, consumption and circulation, as well as their components (capital, labor (...) management information, technology, markets) are organized on a global scale* (Cronin 2003:11). If we take a moment to analyse this statement, it would suggest that more cooperation is occurring across borders in every industrial sector. The translation industry quite simply has to find its position within this environment, which, as Sandrini notes, is composed of: regional markets and international trade agreements (EU, NAFTA), continuous efforts to liberalise world trade, freer exchanges of goods and services (2004: 165). This environment has in turn led to the development of a greater communication infrastructure, as the need for it arose thanks to these economic developments. A well-documented point in case, of course, is the European Union.

This union of 28 countries started life as a trade agreement between a handful of countries and has been incrementing the number of its member states over the years. Along with this increase in countries, came the pledge to encourage multilingualism, which saw a directive put in place to protect the now 24 official languages of the EU. It also demonstrates commitment to supporting regional or minority languages. The EU is nonetheless a politically motivated trading system with an obviously high need for efficient communication. The previously mentioned directive, for example, will have serious implications on the translation industry, as it requires citizens of all EU countries to have access to documents in their own language (Messer 2012: 117). In 2012, the European Commission estimated its annual translation costs to be 300 million euros, due in part to this increase in official languages (Messer 2012: 113). It is no wonder that the EU and its bodies are one of the biggest employers of translation services in the world (http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/workwithus/index_en.htm).

Even big employers like the EU, however, do not wholly depend on in-house translation services. In fact, the website of the Directorate General for Translation lists the types of translators it works with to be: permanent in-house staff translators, but also temporary and contract staff, as well as contractors acquired through periodic public tenders where positions are “*open to individual freelance translators and agencies*” (http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/workwithus/index_en.htm). The demand for translation evidently far exceeds the capacity of the in-house translators employed by such large organisations as the EU. In fact, this increase in demand has led to institutions having to outsource the required translation services. This need for translators shows no signs of

abating, as one scholar and researcher puts it *“Zusammengefasst lässt sich festhalten, dass der Bedarf an qualifizierten Übersetzern und Dolmetschern in der EU in den letzten Jahren deutlich zugenommen hat und in Zukunft auch sicherlich nicht abnehmen wird”* (Ahmann 2012: 29). It has increased their dependency on translation agencies too.

Evidence also points to the increased need to have linguistic brokers in order to benefit from the opportunities available to compete at the international level. There seems to be a constant political and economic overlap in the motivation behind the growing need for cross-cultural communication in industry. This is having a knock-on effect within the translation industry. House asserts how *“globalization has led to a veritable explosion of demand for translation...(it) is therefore not simply a by-product of globalization- but an integral part of it”* (2015: 102). She lists examples of where translation plays an indispensable role in globalised industries such as in media and tourism, with companies such as Deutsche Welle and Press TV relying heavily on translations of messages into many different languages (2015: 102). The wider implications of not having a working infrastructure for international communication can be serious. As Nowicki and Oustinoff mention *“translation issues are coming to the forefront of international concern...These issues are no longer of a linguistic and technical nature only, they have entered the realm of politics, economics...And power relationships...are part of the picture”* (2007: Revue Hermes online).

This “picture” is also therefore one of greater cross-border cooperation. Trade agreements give way to more political cooperation, demonstrated by the creation of the WTO, IMF, OECD, for example. Furthermore, nowadays investments are made in partner countries in order to foster transnational collaboration and generate jobs and income for cooperating countries. Communication for this type of cooperation is first needed at a political-diplomatic level and then filters down to the need for communication between those in trades and industry, right down to the lay-person carrying out more minor tasks. An example of this is the construction of the German/Chinese Transrapid train, which evidently required a high level of coordination, the success of which would have a deep impact on diplomatic relations and the creation of jobs (Ahmann 2012: 23). Everything needed to be precisely managed and communicated, from patenting laws, to contracts, to manufacturing and transportation of goods and delivery. Communication here was of utmost importance to ensure efficiency and the success of the project. Ahmann highlights the need for professional, trained translators to take over the demanding task of translating the relevant documents (patents, contracts, instructions etc.) and also of aiding transcultural communication. He emphasises the need for what he terms high-quality human translation, *“(es) wird schnell klar, dass es sich bei den nachgefragten Sprachdienstleistungen in der Regel um anspruchsvollen Tätigkeiten handelt, d.h., es werden Dienstleistungen von hoher sprachlicher Qualität benötigt”* (2012: 23).

As globalisation and transnational cooperation increases, so does the need for communication carried out by people, who have the corresponding cultural awareness and skills to efficiently facilitate communication. As O'Hagan and Ashworth stress, the globalised economy is now one which attaches great importance to 'meeting the deadline' (2002: 18). Achieving this desired efficiency often translates into effective time-management of projects, with correspondingly effective management of ICT tools, software and cooperation via virtual communication (as seen in previous chapters). Translation agencies are often best suited to take charge of coordinating translation projects across borders. After all, just as a company has a sales director or project manager to coordinate sales between countries, it stands to reason that translation on such a complex level of globalised networks requires the same level of centralised coordination. Dollerup further consolidates this in his research, which showed that *"Previously, firms used to have their own staff translators, but these days most firms prefer to use professional translation agencies, which frequently outsource translation work to local freelance translators"* (2009: 44).

This section has demonstrated an increasing trend in the need for translation services, due in part to the growing need for communication deriving from the creation of global, institutionalised relationships. Translation has become a key element in effectuating successful communication and ensuring the maintenance of these often politically important relationships across borders. Yet, as seen in the previous chapters, cooperation is also occurring globally on all levels thanks to the advent of the Internet and ICT. This Internet-based cooperation has also had an effect on the way the translation industry works to meet the growing demands on translation. Driven by the market economy, as explained in chapter four, there is an increased need to remain competitive. One way in which the industry is fulfilling the need for greater efficiency and competitive prices is by utilising the Internet itself and financially benefitting from what O'Hagan terms "in-country" translation, *"whereby translation commissioned elsewhere is specifically undertaken in the target country"* (2006: 1-2). In other words, it is benefitting from outsourcing translation services. The following section will look at how outsourcing works within the translation industry and how it further requires centralised coordination, which, once more, can best be carried out by translation agencies.

4.2. Coordinating Outsourcing and Time-to-Market Demands

As seen in chapter four in the case of localisation, modern translation requirements are multi-disciplined, multi-layered and require a plethora of cooperating people to bring a product together, drawing from a range of skills. As discussed in the previous chapters, the Internet is bridging the geographical gap between cooperating agents in the translation industry, as

click of a button. The scarcity of this capital, whereby competition and social value are generated, is thus lower. Therefore it stands to reason that prices can be driven down and we are left in the position, as mentioned in chapter four, of having an overwhelming amount of cultural capital and competition. As we have seen however, this by no means diminishes the demand for translation and, in turn, for the possessors of the required cultural capital. The double-edged sword persists and translators find themselves having to adapt and change to stand out and meet emerging demands. This often involves collaborating with other translators. The greater access to freelancers around the world, the unregulated pricing and increasing need for time and cost efficiency and project management often drive freelancers into the safe arms of a translation agency, which is seen as a consistent purveyor of jobs, enforcing certain standards and rates of pay. Outsourcing has seen the rise of the translation agency as an all-encompassing force, subsuming freelance translators in its wake.

Managing outsourcing and time-to-market demands within the expanding translation industry has become a real point of contention and new strategies and management software are continuously being updated to meet these demands. The advent of the Internet has engendered a ready access to information, causing there to be the previously mentioned “informational economy”, as coined by Cronin (2003). As constant updates to flows of information are carried out, this shifts the paradigms of expectations in terms of time-to-market efficiency. As seen in previous chapters, dissemination of information has also taken a new form; *“Today, translation turnaround is faster and documents are frequently replaced by content in apps, software, websites and other web-based “moving targets” of content”* (Swain 2014: 23). The idea of the constantly “moving target” of information is particularly salient and infers a degree of agility and ready flexibility needed by creators and transmitters of information, including translation service providers. Not only are there documents and texts to be translated, but also an increasing amount of web-based information, which has led to the rise of translators learning how to use content management systems (henceforth CMS), for example.

CMS allows online content to be written onto a virtual space, which can then be instantly published online, edited and modified. Not only do CMS optimise the human speed of information dissemination, but they also allow for a higher degree of personalisation of online content. As Boiko states *“Your ability to understand and serve your audiences is the only impediment to tailoring messages and offerings that are as individualized as you want them to be”* (2005: xli). Translators are increasingly acquiring skills in how to work directly on CMS and given the speed and the skills involved in personalisation and creativity, it is no wonder that this has placed new time pressures on translators. How does CMS encourage outsourcing of translation and increased employment of translation agencies to handle the management tasks involved?

4.2.1. Content Management Systems, Time-to-Market and Related Management Requirements

CMS has become pivotal in helping generate business value to millions of end-users, in particular to those operating exclusively online or with a distinct online presence, catering to international markets (Boiko 2005: xli). When contemplating how the advent of the Internet and ICT programmes such as CMS have contributed to greater time-to-market pressures, it is important to consider the “real-time” application of these programmes. As Maass et al confirm, today digital content can be created by almost anybody and managed “*in real-time by a minimum of technical requirements*” (2012: 3). The ready accessibility to CMS also means that the creation and updating of content have never before been as prolific as they are today. It is estimated that “*In 2009 online content increased by about 60% to nearly 800,000 PetaBytes and is assumed to increase by factor 44 by 2020*” (Maass et al. 2012: 3). This is a fast-paced informational environment. Bert Esselink is quoted by Cronin (2003: 14) as saying “*Most professional websites contain continuously updated content, sometimes referred to as streaming content...(which is) updated frequently, provided in multiple languages*”. Demand for this type of service is ever-increasing, as companies with professional websites and an international client base wish to diffuse the latest information, promotional offers and knowledge to their customers as close to real time as possible. Castells (1996:45) described global competition as being greatly aided by “*on the spot information*” from each market and that information derived from a specific time and space would be crucial in remaining competitive in a constantly changing environment.

CMS are thus entrusted to translation service providers, to have its texts and graphics translated, sometimes localised and updated straight away on the CMS system as soon as the website in question has been created or added to. This process highlights the great time-to-market demands in existence thanks to the greater interaction between consumers and the myriad competitive companies and industries online. Each company within an industry will desire to have the fastest access to its (potential) client base and make sure these clients receive information as quickly as possible in order to maintain a competitive edge in the sometimes already saturated markets online. The use of CMS creates an increased need for cooperation with translation agencies, which bring technological and organisational requirements to major projects (Hager 2008) and can perhaps better coordinate the translation of a website into several languages at the same time.

The need for greater management and expertise becomes apparent when considering the different types of CMS in existence within the CMS market. For example, Maass et al name but a few: online CMS, Enterprise CMS, Cross Media CMS and eLearning CMS, but also state there are many further categories within this fragmented market (2012: 4). He also

highlights the investment companies make in market research, consumer behaviour analyses and in choosing and developing the actual CMS type best suited to their client base. Once these areas have been ascertained, customisation of the sites and content can begin. Translators play a large role in the customisation, localisation as well as in translating the texts. As previously seen in the case of localisation, the project scope expands in this case to include a plethora of tasks and areas, which need to be localised, tweaked and customised. Many companies are starting to pre-empt management tasks arising from this fast-paced turnaround of information and the changing forms of dissemination involving ICT and new software programmes. Many do this by working with translation service providers during the product development stage or at earlier stages during information creation.

Working together with translation agencies is one way to maximise efficiency and effectively coordinate the dissemination of information in a timely fashion, which obviously also brings financial benefits in the long-run. Swain points to how inefficient it has become for a company with individual units or departments to each have many “order-takers” for translation services (2014: 23). She points to the pitfalls of working in such an isolated manner and of using individual translation solutions leaving the companies with

no consistency or alignment in the way the company’s products, brand and industry terms are translated. Technologically, the company lacks an integrated standard. Financially, the company misses economies of scale that a globalised language strategy would offer. A lot of time, effort, post-editing and money are wasted (2014: 23).

She recommends employing the services of what she terms a “Language Strategist”, who can devise and implement an effective language strategy. Translation agencies are often well positioned to take over the obligations of a language strategist. Swain highlights the increased need for different areas to be effectively managed to bring about the maximum temporal and financial benefits, to subsequently save money. She devised a table to demonstrate the fields of expertise necessary for a language strategist and termed it “the new rules of engagement”, mentioning that *“To gain credibility as a Language Strategist, it’s important to offer these key areas of expertise”* (Swain 2014: 23). As previously seen, translation agencies will often employ managers and strategists among their staff, who outsource the actual translation tasks but work as an intermediary between clients and freelance translators to manage the projects as efficiently as possible for all those involved. The translation agency staff will be able to recognise which fields of expertise have to be addressed in any translation project and delegate and manage accordingly. With the increasing complexity and layers to a project, this has never before been as important a task. *Figure 9* below demonstrates the areas of expertise and knowledge base required in order to be a successful language strategist:

Area of Expertise	Required Knowledge Base	Level of Mastery 1 2 3 4 5
“Moving Target” Technology	Understand the technology options for translation within: • Apps • Software • Websites • Live Chat • Email and Text Messaging Also, be conversant in dynamic translation management, and be able to recommend quality technology providers.	○○○○○
Translation Integration	Familiarity with the advantages and timeline offered by both API and proxy methods is key. Be well-versed in globalization and integration strategies, which help an organization avoid costly “rip and replace” with more affordable integration solutions.	○○○○○
MT Performance Expectations	Organizations often have perceived ideas about MT, whether unrealistically requiring 100% perfection, or expecting “the worst.” It is crucial to stay up to date on the performance potential of today’s MT tools.	○○○○○
MT Differentiation	Today’s technology offers everything from open source statistical translation to rules-based learning engines. The latest approach is an auto-tuning engine that learns translation preferences intuitively. CAT tools are evolving, and some of the newest require little or no investment.	○○○○○
Market Trend Analysis	Be well-equipped to answer questions about the top trends that impact the languages that are most important for various industries. For example, regional trends in economic growth or decline, significant changes in Internet access for new markets, and populations with new potential for expendable income.	○○○○○
Disruptive Changes in the Landscape	Where does the leading edge end and the bleeding edge begin? Stay up to date on the latest solutions, and be able to differentiate them from “future-focused” developments.	○○○○○
Localization Expert	This standard is as old as the industry, yet new to some organizations venturing into translation for the first time. Attention to cultural relevance in language and imaging will always remain a “must have” critical skill.	○○○○○

Figure 9: Areas of expertise for language strategists (Swain 2014: 23).

Figure 9 aptly delineates the modern facets that companies going online and trading internationally will need to address if they wish to be successful on the market. As seen in Figure 9, knowledge of developments in ICT, integrating language solutions in the form of translation and localisation, cultural know-how including knowledge of the target market and balancing the need for MT and human translation are all considered essential requirements. In fulfilling these requirements, companies hope to be as efficient as possible in terms of time and money. Swain points to the fact that this efficiency can be strengthened through the employment of one main body or department coordinating all facets. Translation agencies could fulfil this role and may be best suited to carrying out these tasks. Not only can they offer a specialised management team, but can coordinate an often outsourced, wide-reaching network of translators to carry out jobs from simple text translations to localisation of websites and updates using CMS systems. In all cases, the key is management and needs analysis across an entire spectrum of departments within a company. As websites go online across the world and markets become increasingly international, a multitude of languages and translators will be required. This type of project requires cultural sensitivity and awareness as well as expertise in and acquisition of appropriate software programmes and possibly CAT tools.

When considering the rising need for translation, as previously seen, as well as the ever shorter delivery deadlines, Hager predicts that *“professional project and quality management will become more significant...With the use of the latest technologies, translations will be performed directly in the client’s CMS system”* (2008: website). She also notes an interesting trend in the translation industry regarding the nature of the relationship between clients, freelancers and translation agencies. The latter, she notes, will fulfil the technological and organisational requirements for major projects (2008: website). The strong recommendation for companies in her opinion would be to allow translation agencies to *“directly adopt a part of the project management tasks...This will probably decrease the cooperation between companies and freelancers, and increase the cooperation with translation agencies”* (Hager 2008: website). She highlights how indispensable this strengthened relationship with translation agencies is becoming, as the agencies are able *“to cover the broadest possible language and technology spectrum”* (Hager 2008: website). Thus, not only do agencies provide the technological and linguistic input, but also provide management and coordination.

Returning to the issue of coordination and time-to-market requirements, the need to meet the deadline has been inspiring what Cronin describes as a streamlined, almost Fordist approach to the translation process (2013: 92). He says

Standardizing and streamlining the assembly-line production process makes as much sense for translation in the 21st Century as it did for the automobile production in the twentieth.

Output is increased, costs are decreased, the customer gets the car/translation, and the producer pays less for it (2013: 92).

This type of streamlining is what translation agencies are able to provide; a conveyor belt processing of translations, passing efficiently through a network of participants involved in the increasingly complex system of translation services (e.g. text formatting, translation, IT software, Translation Memory and CAT tools, proof-reading, project management, end text formatting etc.). Cronin's comments acknowledge that even the translation industry is becoming subject to the currently ever-evolving market-economy dynamic, which emphasises constant maximum output at minimum expenses when it comes to costs and time.

The world's changing relationship with time is making the translation industry consider what Cronin terms "chrono-diversity" (Cronin 2013: 73), and recognise its position in the processing system for translation projects. Cronin's definition of chrono-diversity refers to the need to protect and respect different rhythms and experiences of time (2013: 73). Now that geographical distances have been shortened thanks to the Internet, the tendency for people wishing to acquire translations is to also want to curtail limits when it comes to time. Cronin argues that there is a need to acknowledge chrono-diversity in translation practice, *"recognizing that there are very real limits to achievement and accomplishment within specific timeframes and that different kinds of translations require radically different levels of investment in time"* (2013: 73). This comment refers specifically to the heavy time pressures placed on translation services nowadays, highlighting just how very real they are and unlikely to diminish anytime soon. This ties in directly with expectations placed on translators and the practicality and benefits of introducing and executing a Fordist approach to translation processes.

Asynchronous communication with people around the world has enabled a 24/7 culture (Cronin 2013: 93), and if this applies to industries such as manufacturing, marketing and sales, then given the aforementioned increasing need for global communication, it certainly applies to the translation industry. With messages being sent and received at any time, it is important that networks, email accounts and messaging routes not only be manned as often as possible, but also that the reaction time be as short as possible, as swift as possible. Coordinated responses have never before been as important as in this fast-paced 24/7, asynchronous, networked society we live in. Thus, as Swain mentioned, it also makes more sense to employ a translation agency, which will have the increased awareness of time, respect for the chrono-diversity involved in different translation tasks and jobs, as well as the ability to coordinate it all using the appropriate IT and outsourcing strategies necessary.

As we have seen, thanks to IT systems and access to the world via the Internet and high-speed data networks, it has become possible for translations to be managed and processed in different countries and in different time zones. As seen in previous chapters, Risku (2009) uses the term Computer Supported Cooperative Work (CSCW) to describe the

IT-dominated working environment in which translation service providers find themselves today. Under this umbrella term, she includes all computer-assisted forms of information acquisition, communication and processing such as advertising on websites, social networks, emailing, word-processing and Translation Management tools. She discusses the indispensability of IT, which lends support to professional action and yet also creates an environment in which translations are expected to be carried out in the “quick-and-dirty” fashion (2009:21) as explored in the previous section.

The following section will briefly look at the environment in which project coordination and outsourcing is taking place and being made possible. The “virtual office” is a term that has been engendered directly due to the advent of the Internet. In the context of translation, it creates the possibility of translations being carried out across the globe simultaneously. So what is the virtual office and does it do anything to strengthen or weaken the relationship dynamic between clients - translation agencies - freelancers? How does a virtual office make use of translation IT software to facilitate its existence and how dependent are translators on MT? The following section will look at how MT such as CAT tools are gaining prominence and will argue that regardless of automation in translation, human input and coordination are still pivotal and can be best managed by a translation agency.

4.3. The Virtual Office, Outsourcing and the Use and Coordination of Machine Translation

The creation of the “virtual office” has been pivotal in facilitating outsourcing in the translation industry. As seen in section 3.4.2, there are varying degrees of translation agencies’ online presence, with some choosing lesser degrees of interaction with the Internet than others and some opting for physical premises, such as an office. As ascertained in chapter three however, it is almost impossible to work without access to the Internet and IT tools. Risku’s profiling of a small-sized translation agency in Vienna, for example, not only highlighted the dependency of translation services on computers (e.g. CSCW etc.), but also went further to cement how far IT has aided in furthering the globalisation of the industry and the outsourcing of services. This section will outline how the virtual office operates and how this is being taken advantage of by freelancers and translation agencies alike, in order to achieve maximum cost and time efficiency. It will also look at how nevertheless processes involving the greater use of IT in a virtual office environment require management and coordination. Such management skills that freelancers and clients seem to find in the trusty translation agency. The use of machine translation and CAT tools will be further explored within the framework of outsourcing and the need for human management.

The virtual office is an environment which exists online, in the virtual world, via the worldwide web. All you need is an electronic device such as a laptop or tablet and access to the Internet and your basic virtual office, or “SOHO” (small office home office) is complete and set up (Samuelsson-Brown 2006: 5). Many freelancers create and work from such virtual offices, located anywhere in the world and if they so wish, while constantly on the move. When working at a translation agency in Vienna, one of our freelance translators even boasted having travelled around Thailand and working on translation projects in her spare time from Internet cafes by the beach on her laptop. Pu Lingjun explores the world of translation via the “Smart Café” and how a mobile computing system based on the virtual cloud is enabling international outsourcing on an unprecedented scale (2014: 38). Lingjun notes the continuous availability of public cloud services, located wherever one may find oneself and which can be scaled to meet the changing demands of any IT system one may have (2014:38). Some software programmes necessary to carrying out translations have already been mentioned in chapter 2, however, it is the way in which the work is stored, processed and finally transmitted, which is so crucial to the success of the virtual office. According to Lingjun, public cloud services can be scaled to meet your changing IT system demands and all they require are easily acquirable software programmes such as: Windows 7, IDE, Tool kit, Android 4.2.2., Java 1.7. (2014: 40). All of these programmes are mostly already installed and/or used as operating systems on ordinary PCs and laptops.

The continuous availability of this software and access to the cloud, make the virtual office a constantly changing, adaptable and versatile environment for the freelance translator. As Cronin points out, the virtual office “*allows not only space but time to be manipulated in the global translation industry*” (2003: 43). Indeed, the on-the-move “smart café” trend and virtual office accessibility around the world, not to mention around the clock, create problems when it comes to coordination of work processes and time-management, especially for more complex projects. Previous chapters have already ascertained that translation projects are becoming more multi-layered and complex, involving more cooperation between an increasing amount of cooperative partners. Therefore, due to the possibility of translations being carried out across the globe simultaneously and bearing in mind the “quick and dirty” time-to-market demand (Risku 2009:21), translation agencies will be increasingly better-suited to coordinating translation services in future. After all, the role of the modern translation agency comprises coordination of its own real and virtual offices. Regardless of whether translation agencies work from a fixed location or not, they nevertheless have the responsibility of managing multi-tasking operations in terms of the sourcing, storage and transmission of outsourced work to freelancers and clients, working with cooperative agents as well as the liaising involved with clients commissioning translation services and freelancers.

Risku highlights the way in which the virtual office is conducive to outsourcing and

vice versa in her 2009 case study of a translation agency. She describes the 1000 different translators available in differing fields of specialisation, which the agency pools from a large repertoire accessible online in several different countries around the world (2009: 174). It is through the virtual office that the translation agency accesses the Internet and uses it as a tool to cast its net widely around the world and reach out to clients and freelance translators. Using the virtual office, agencies can also connect people and coordinate these connections and new contacts, resulting from the continuous outsourcing of work. As work gets passed on (i.e. outsourced) to different people and agencies operating from their own virtual offices abroad, a whole new host of contacts are established and in many cases brought together along the processing chain. A chain of contacts is what results and these are stored in the software of the virtual office; *“Bereits bei einem einzigen Projekt...kommt über eine durchschnittliche Dauer von vier bis fünf Wochen eine stattliche Anzahl von Kontakten zustande“* (Risku 2009: 174). This long list of contacts requires management, especially when it comes to projects spanning a broader amount of time, as the list of participating agents involved in the process increases. Communication takes place between all of these contacts via the virtual office, which acts like a headquarters on the go.

CMS systems demonstrate what can be achieved and worked on solely via software programmes and by having a virtual office. Working on CMS systems obviously requires no analogue print-outs and project the world of translation onto a purely digital plane. As the processing of translation jobs and tasks becomes more firmly anchored in the digital world, many have argued that the need for human interaction is becoming more limited and being automated and overtaken by machines, in the form of software programmes, for example. Certainly, a consequence of the rise in the need for the constant dissemination of information and the need for translations, as mentioned previously, has been that new coping mechanisms have been developed to meet these demands. One strategy has been to involve more automation in the translation process and to “cut out the middleman” so to speak, i.e. limit the need for human involvement, thus minimising expenditure and increasing time-to-market (or time-to-audience) efficiency.

The European Union has, for example, been pioneering the development of new methods of machine translation to meet its growing requirements as the union and languages within it grow: *“Eine Vorreiterrolle nimmt die Europäische Union auch bei der Entwicklung „maschineller“ Übersetzungsmethoden ein...(sie) lieferte 2005 über 800,000 übersetzte Seiten. Derzeit ist die Übersetzung für 18 Sprachenpaare möglich“* (Messer 2012: 114). Not only have the processing and coordination of translation jobs via outsourcing (aided by the virtual office) undergone automation, but also the actual translations themselves. What is, however, meant by machine translation? The next section will be focussing on CAT tools and will argue that despite automation of translations and the translation process, it has actually

strengthened the need for human involvement, at least on a management and coordination level.

4.3.2. The Need for Human Involvement in Machine Translation

Bezüglich des Einflusses von Technologien auf die Arbeitswelt von Übersetzern ist eher eine Entwicklung zu beobachten, die das genaue Gegenteil einer Verdrängung des Menschen durch die Maschine darstellt. Die technologischen Neuerungen haben bislang nicht dazu geführt, dass Translatoren überflüssig geworden sind. Vielmehr ist das Anforderungsprofil an Translatoren durch die zahlreichen Systeme deutlich gestiegen (Ahmann 2012: 32).

As this quote proves, there is a school of thought which doesn't see the advent of machine involvement in translation as a precursor for the demise of human input. A lot could be written about machine translation, however, for the purposes of this work, the main emphasis in this section will be on how humans interact with this technology. CAT tools will be a particular focus, which are considered to be more like a sub-genre of machine translation, demonstrating the way machines (in the form of software programmes) can be manipulated by humans to help them meet time and cost efficiency goals. Other forms of machine translation such as Google Translate will also be looked at briefly, in order to also explore how tools are being developed to satisfy the growing need for translation around the world, and to once more highlight the necessity for human input, management and coordination of translations at the pre and post-editing phases of MT, for example. This section will argue that this is once more becoming a sector within the translation industry requiring greater coordination and management, which a translation agency can best provide.

4.3.2.1. CAT Tools and the Translation Agency

Schäffner differentiates between what she terms „*Humanübersetzen, Maschinenübersetzen, Maschinengestütztes Übersetzen*“ (2004: 27). She points to a prevalent trend of translators using electronic support to assist them in their translations (2004: 27). For example, translators can enjoy all the resources the Internet has to offer; terminology databases, online glossaries, dictionaries, forums etc. This is an unbridled form of peer support which spans the globe. Describing how machines and humans interact in the world of translation can sometimes lead to a confusing, ambiguous grey area, however. Referring to Hutchins & Somers, Cieslak prefers to view the dynamics and spectrum of interaction between humans and machines in translation thus: “*At one extreme there is a Fully Automatic High Quality*

Translation (FAHQT), and on the other there is a traditional human translation; Human-Aided Machine Translation (HAMT) and Machine-Aided Human Translation are between them” (Cieslak 2011:163). The divisions have been created here in order to highlight the distinction between “*a basically human activity involving computer-based tools...and a computer-driven activity requiring the assistance of a human operator*” (Cieslak 2011: 163). The acronym “CAT” (Computer-Assisted Translation) is often employed to address both types. The diagram below further demonstrates the forms of interaction between humans and machines in translation:

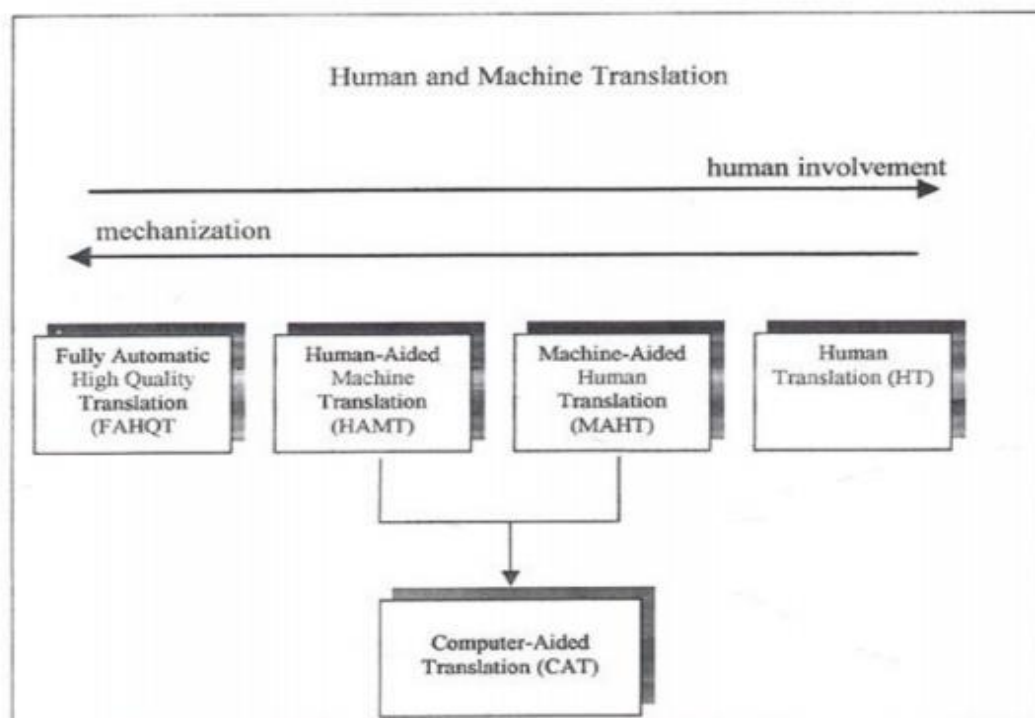


Figure 10: Degrees of human interaction with machine translation (adapted from Hutchins & Somers in Cieslak 2011: 164)

As mentioned above, CAT tools straddle the bridge between FAHQT and HT and are particularly prevalent, representing the stage of evolution that machines and humans have largely reached at present. As previously discussed, some form of access to IT, the Internet and CSCW is indispensable for all translation service providers, which means pure human translation without any use of electronic tools whatsoever is rare. In the same ilk, fully automatic high quality translation is also not an all-pervasive, fully-developed method of translation and is still causing a lot of controversy and problems in its current form. This section will briefly touch upon the use of Google Translate, but this cannot yet be termed a “high quality” automatic translation by any stretch of the imagination.

Lauffer lists the major translation tools as (2003: 261):

- Word processing
- Dictation software
- Desktop publishing
- Localisation aids
- Online and electronic lexical resources
- Terminology banks
- Corpus-based resources, such as translation memories (TM)
- Aligned and parallel texts

These are some examples of electronic resources, which could be termed forms of “computer assistance”, and they are employed by translators and translation agencies in order to carry out daily tasks. A very famous CAT vendor is *Trados*, which has been briefly looked at in the previous chapter in relation to CAT tools aiding localisation (e.g. *SDL Passolo*). *SDL Trados* offers a wide range of services present in the list above.

“Trados” has become a byword in the translation industry to refer to computer-assisted software suites. It is of course just one of many translation software suites available on the market. Much like the *SDL Passolo* localisation software, *Trados* stores target-text segments, which automatically appear when an identical source-language segment for translation surfaces, this can be accepted or rejected by the translator as she sees fit (Dollerup 2009: 170). The stored text can appear many months or even years later, this is particularly efficient in regards to repetitive texts and when it comes to sharing and outsourcing translations. TMs which store texts and glossary databases can recall and reuse words and text segments at any time, regardless of who is using the system. This is useful when considering outsourcing and the potentially large amount of collaborators working on projects, often in separate locations around the world.

When considering the virtual office, this translation software suite becomes particularly salient. Many agencies will only work with freelance translators who translate using this software, precisely due to potential outsourcing and a possible turnover of translators working on similar projects over a long space of time. For example, should a translation agency working for a client on similar projects over many years lose touch with a freelancer, or the freelancer retires, the agency can contact and employ different freelancers, who will be able to readily access a glossary and see where new text appears on an updated text. After all, using the *Trados* system, the first translation of any segment is displayed to the

translator, in many cases it may only require the translation of an additional 3-4 lines in the whole body of the text. With *Trados*, agencies can share previous translators' texts and translations, and the new translators working on the text can save a lot of time and subsequently money by not having to translate texts which have already been translated.

Hager points to the desirability of using CAT tools in regards to the increasing volume of translations and documents and the occurrence of repetitive text blocks (2008: website). Along with dictation tools and the use of parallel texts, CAT tools like TM further efficiency and collaborative work in the translation industry's increasingly globalised and outsourced business model. In fact, Risku points to a solidifying trend of clients engaging the services of translation agencies which work with CAT tools and translation software suites like *Trados*. This in turn solicits a similar reaction from agencies, choosing to work with freelancers who have this technology. The main advantages of working with this technology for the agencies are: "*die Verbesserung der Text- und Terminologiekonsistenz, die Verkürzung der Übersetzungsdauer und die Verringerung der Übersetzungskosten bei Texten mit hohem Wiederholungsfaktor*" (Risku 2009: 61-62). In terms of management, the centralisation of storage and an automated reference management system are of obvious importance when managing and coordinating projects (Risku 2009: 62).

Agencies can often afford this type of software and can take care of delegating, outsourcing and managing texts to be translated along with databases and glossaries. Due to the aforementioned savings in costs when translating texts, the increased efficiency and the transferability of previous translations, many clients prefer to work with agencies that can guarantee the use of CAT tools. Indeed, although in today's society

heterogeneous data and information can be dynamically accessed, converted, disseminated, distributed, located, processed and stored across diverse applications, channels, databases, networks, platforms and systems...to do it efficiently within a working setting it needs to be suitably managed...information comes from a vast range of sources that needs to be organised to be processed and eventually retrieved (Granell 2015: 162).

Although it is clear that a translation software suite can store data, without human input and management it is but a vessel for data. The efficient accessing, conversion, retrieval and distribution of data is carried out by a person. The evolution of software has still not reached a point where such tasks can be solely carried out by computers automatically. Humans are having to adapt to the growing information management needs, which are also being engendered by the advent of machine translation. As discussed in previous sections, the need for translations is growing and MT is one such response to dealing with the overwhelming international demand. As also previously discussed, the international, outsourced platform for translations is increasing collaborative partners and the volume of data to be processed. MT and CAT tools, as well as TMS are also responses to meet these requirements. As we have seen, translation agencies are often entrusted and best suited to manage and coordinate multi-

layered complex translation services and manipulate and use TMS and Internet-based outsourcing to their advantage. The same stands for the coordination of MT processes and taking on associated management tasks, assessing the degree of human involvement needed and delegating and outsourcing work to translators.

The next section will describe the varying purposes and uses of machine translation, still arguing that human input is a constant necessity in order to meet certain client requirements and that management and coordination are increasingly necessary components of the (partially) automated translation process.

4.3.2.2. Google Translate, the Purposes of Machine Translation and Post-Editing

There are MT systems that meet three different types of translation requirements, which serve different purposes and can thus be accepted in varying degrees of translation quality:

- Dissemination
- Assimilation
- Interchange

(Lauffer 2003: 263)

Texts for dissemination “*require the highest level of quality and must often be revised before and after*” (Lauffer 2003: 263). This implies a higher degree of necessary human involvement. Translation agencies, especially those which are ISO quality certified, will have translations proofread and checked by third parties. The definition of “quality” is of course rather loaded. While a computer programme can indeed perform certain quality control tasks like spelling and grammar checks, many scholars point to the fact that these programmes lack the sufficient knowledge and cultural awareness needed for high-quality accuracy. The end-user’s information needs are pivotal when making decisions regarding the parameters of “quality” and which of the three purposes of MT listed above best correspond to the translation task at hand. It is important to ascertain the purpose of the text and the needs of the target audience especially when choosing the degree of involvement a machine should have in the translation process, or conversely how little input a human should have.

In fact, both definitions of CAT tools in *Figure 10* point to some level of human involvement. So far machine-aided human translation has mostly been looked at in the context of human translators using the assistance of software programmes and electronic resources to aid their translations. Yet human-aided machine translation, as the name

suggests, also requires human input and a guiding human hand. Cieslak points to the need for human involvement at the three stages of the translation process when using CAT tools, as defined in *Figure 10*. The stages are: “pre-editing”, “post-editing” and “interactive”; for example, “*Pre-editing involves foreseeing problems that a machine may encounter in the process of translation, deciding whether a particular text is possible to be processed*” (Cieslak 2011: 167). This is particularly salient when considering the “assimilation” and “interchange” functions of MT as listed above.

Lauffer argues that translation for assimilation and interchange require lower levels of translation quality due to the end-user’s desire for quick access to basic information (assimilation) and rough forms of instant translation for electronic communication (interchange) (2003: 262). People often use forms of instant online translation for these two purposes, Google Translate is one such example. It is an automated machine translation service, which translates words and phrases into 90 languages and is constantly striving to include more languages in its repertoire (Scigliano 2011: 239). It can be accessed online by anyone with a standard browser. Unlike other online machine translation applications, such as AOL and Babelfish, which uses a rule-based SYSTRAN translation system, Google Translate uses algorithms based on statistical analysis (Scagliano 2011: 240). Google Inc itself has, however, acknowledged the shortcomings of its translation application, stating that

...sophisticated software...doesn’t approach the fluency of a native speaker or possess the skill of a professional translator. Automatic translation is very difficult, as the meaning of words depends on the context in which they’re used. While we are working on the problem, it may be some time before anyone can offer human quality translations (Google Inc in Scigliano 2011: 240).

By Google Translate’s own admission, they cannot offer services paralleling those of professional translators. Even though the Google Translate software is constantly evolving and has progressed from 40 languages in 2011 to 90 in present day 2017, it still arguably falls short of providing a reliable and accurate translation service; regardless of whether it were to use rule-based or statistical-based algorithms, it would still be unable to discern the correct context and cultural awareness necessary for some translations. A sign that it is no closer to resolving this problem using machine technology alone, is that it currently has a Web site called “*Translate Community*” on its official Google Translate Web site, which is a form of MOC, encouraging users to translate words and phrases, which they then store and use in their application (<https://translate.google.com/community>).

As mentioned above, automated applications such as Google Translate have come a long way in fulfilling assimilation and interchange functions. Yet Google Translate has so many shortcomings that it still heavily relies on human translation (such as MOC in “*Translate Community*”) and given the so-called statistical basis of its translation process, it also relies for quality on the human translated documents at its disposal (Maia and Sousa-

Silva 2012: 225). It still fails to cater to so-called “minority languages”, not to mention regional dialects. Although the designers of Google Translate may argue that they are constantly working to remedy this situation, there is a large body of scholarly work which points to the improbability of machines ever being able to completely replace human-led translation. Machine translation possesses no ‘real world knowledge’, it does not know how to come up with adequate solutions for translation situations with varying associations (Cieslak 2011:164). To take but one example of where MT without human expertise falls completely short, we could take the translation of legal texts from Italian into German: *“Ist die Aufgabe, den italienischen codice civile in das Deutsche zu übersetzen, müsste genaugenommen zunächst die Frage gestellt werden, in welches Rechtdeutsch übersetzt werden soll”* (Messer 2012: 108). The correctly perceived choice of words is also crucial in this example, in order for people not to misunderstand the legal concepts. MT has as yet to attain this level of sensitivity and “feel out” the right purpose and context of a translation and change and adapt itself to relate to the target audience entirely successfully. The implications of this become particularly problematic when considering commercially published texts or translations for multinational companies with businesses in different countries (Traicu and Prostean 2012: 115). Image, reputation and successful communication in the cut-throat competitive modern market is everything and having sloppy or incorrect translations could sound the death knell for a company’s product or service. Schäffner highlights how although speed is of utmost importance for modern businesses when it comes to communication, when using MT, failings in the translated text can lower a company’s prestige:

die Texte weisen meist Mängel in der sprachlichen Qualität auf...es trägt nicht unbedingt zum Prestige einer Firma bzw. Organisation bei, wenn ihre Website zwar die Option “Translate” anbietet, Besucher dann zu einem kommerziellen System wie Babelfish...gelangen, das ihnen aber Produkte von nur mehr als zweifelhafter Qualität liefert (2004: 28).

Maia and Sousa-Silva advocate the use of MT in translations, urging translators to not ignore the advantageous and multi-faceted uses of automated translations (such as Google Translate), but to utilise it as an extra aid or tool (2012: 225). In their view, one way in which humans can make successful use of MT, is in getting more heavily involved in marketing “post-editing” services.

What is post-editing exactly? It can be best described as a work process which brings together MT and HT. MT is used with a subsequent step of human revision and correction of the MT output (Brownstein et al 2013: 512). According to Brownstein et al, this is *“indispensable for ensuring correct and fluent output”* (2013: 512). Post-editing services, much like internationalisation and localisation, are being increasingly entrusted to translation agencies nowadays. In fact, *“as MT improves, the ability to post-edit its results is fast becoming a useful and marketable language services skill”* (Maia and Sousa-Silva 2012: 226). The complexity of post-editing, much like localisation also requires management skills.

„Die zielgerichtete Einsatz von Computerprogrammen, ihre effiziente und effektive Nutzung erfordern Kenntnisse, die weit über das bloße Beherrschen einer Mutter- und einer Fremdsprachen hinausgehen“ (Ahmann 2012: 32). Ahmann's statement here suggests that both machine-aided and human-aided machine translation involves more capabilities than being solely able to translate from one language into another. He goes on to imply that today's translator catering for a globally orientated market, needs not only the knowledge of how to use IT resources and CAT tools, but also the subsequent knowledge of how to manage all the generated information and varying translation requirements which now exist.

Going back to *Figure 9* we can also see that understanding technology options available for translations, i.e. the correct software and CAT tools on offer, as well as managing clients' expectations of MT output and being able to ascertain the degree of MT involvement to use and which type of MT ("MT differentiation"), is a requirement of being a "Language Strategist" and fulfilling customers' needs. The need to not only be able to master languages and have translation knowledge but to also be able to act as a language strategist and be proficient in IT, software and management thereof in order to fulfil the expectations of an increasingly international client base has already been put forward and evinced in this paper. The translation agency can thus take over the responsibility of management and making decisions regarding requirements at a pre-editing and certainly at a post-editing level when using MT. It is able to perform MT differentiation and outsource efficiently, all the while liaising with clients and managing their expectations of MT output. In today's environment, which constantly strives for cost-efficiency, MT seems to be a solution to the high time-and-cost conundrum involved in pure HT. As scholars Maia and Sousa-Silva (2012) point out, resistance to the rise of the machine may indeed be futile. If this is the case, then this may see a strengthened need for coordination and delegation of MT output requirements, whether it be pre-editing or post-editing of MT texts using cheaper outsourced "in-house" translators around the world. If translation agencies are already on the rise in the field of delegating and coordinating outsourcing of HT, or as is more often the case machine-aided HT (e.g. use of CAT tools and electronic resources), then a strong case can be built that they will also be called upon to extend their management services in the era of increased MT.

4.4. The Translation Agency in a World of Disintermediation and English as a "Lingua Franca"

Will the world of translation then not just be increasingly run by computers and intelligent automated translation software programmes? The previous chapter has shown evidence to the contrary, arguing that automation of translation processes at the moment does not cancel out

human involvement. It actually creates the need for another form of management and coordination processes, which along with the increased demand for translation and complexity of projects with international cooperating partners, has engendered a professional niche to be exploited by translation agencies.

A further belief often propagated is that translation and thus agencies and other services revolving around it will become obsolete thanks to the rise of English as a “lingua franca”. Just like investment in MT, the belief in using English as a lingua franca is welcomed by many businesses internationally as a means to cut down on costs and to be more time efficient with communication. So will the combined forces of evolving MT and the increased use of English internationally as a “lingua franca” for cross-cultural communication manage to kill off the translation profession and the ensuing need to coordinate and manage it using a more centralised form of management, as is the ever-increasing case nowadays?

Indeed, as previous sections have shown, there is a lot of evidence to point to the increasing need for translation and thus its increasing prominence as an area of investment for businesses and institutions working on the global playing field. In fact, the development of MT itself is fuelling the demand for translation, as CSA founder Don DePalma puts it: *“The widespread availability of online machine translation has not decreased the demand for high-quality human translation. If anything, translation technologies appear to be acting as a catalyst to generate more demand”* (2013: online resource). By this admission, the potential ease of being able to communicate with someone directly in their own native language is a very appealing one to the international public. Interestingly DePalma mentions “high-quality human translation”, suggesting that, as seen in the case of pre and post-editing of texts translated using MT, the shortcomings of automated MT are a constantly present drawback to complete reliability on it. These shortcomings are generating general awareness of the importance and subsequent need for human translation in order to ensure accurate translations.

The rising use of and investment in instant automated MT contradicts the claim that English will end up replacing the need for translation to effectuate communication. Indeed what seems to be fuelling such claims, as mentioned above, is the willingness to cut down on costly human translation. Cutting out the middle man and thus keeping down the time-and-cost factor then becomes the largest focus. The process of doing just this has been referred to by Cronin as “disintermediation” (2013: 45).

Cronin (2013:45) describes the concept of disintermediation as a phenomenon whereby, in the case of translation, the human intermediary within a process is removed and the job of a human being is replaced by that of an automated form of digital technology. An example of this would be people using Google Translate to translate texts into various languages. The act of disintermediation is related to cost efficiency and is linked to a society

which increasingly wishes to attain a “disembodied, instantaneous execution of translation task(s)” (2013:47). The concept here is that by removing the human intermediary, in this case the human translation service provider, translations can be an “agentless, automatic function that can be realised in no time at all” (2013:47) and harkens back to this desire for the “quick-and-dirty” style of translating described by Risku (2009:21).

The CSA has identified critical drivers for the language services industry which are: global trade, international business and growth in content. As discussed in previous chapters, global trade and international business are directly creating the growth in content and this growth is only made possible by having more buyers and a wider audience. The wider audience in turn fuels more international business, so that a cycle is created of mutual growth (in audience) and internationalisation (of businesses). What is being increasingly propagated is a world of cultural diversity, pointing in part to Snell-Hornby’s theory of tribalism. Translation scholars have, however, noted an emergence of a language for “supra-cultural communication”, which could be any language, in this case it happens to be English. Snell-Hornby argues this language will become more free-floating, lose track of its original cultural identity and attain a reduced standardised form (Schäffner 2000: 64).

It is undeniable that the use of English for supra-cultural communication has gained a footing on a global scale and has come to be widely accepted, generating a greater desire to learn and speak English internationally. Nevertheless, there has been a drive for greater differentiation in terms of cultural identity, which has seen not only the increase of preservation of and pride in regional and national languages to the detriment of English (particularly in former colonies of Britain), but also the transformation of English usage to reflect the cultural identity and background of the those who speak it. However, Crystal observes the dangers involved in using English as a lingua franca (ELF) in that it could “cultivate an elite monolingual linguistic class, more complacent and dismissive in their attitudes towards other languages” (2003: 15). To discourage this elitism among monolingual and native English speakers, Crystal argues that there must be total bilingualism in order for ELF to function completely fairly. As this is not yet the case internationally, and given that MT is still far from being completely accurate, instant and accessible to all, it becomes increasingly important that monolingual English-speaking communities also become aware of other languages. This is the case particularly when it comes to trade and in “economically hard-pressed times, success in boosting exports and attracting foreign investment can depend on subtle factors, and sensitivity to the language spoken by a country’s potential foreign partners is known to be particularly influential” (2003: 18). This could not be more salient in the current economic climate. In regards to business expansion in countries where English still has a low presence, such as parts of Eastern Europe and South America, companies that choose to solely communicate using ELF are risking alienating potential markets and growth prospects (Crystal 2003: 19). Not only this, but considering the

different ways English, as mentioned, can't but reflect the cultural background of the speaker, bringing everyone together using ELF still potentially risks cultural and idiomatic misunderstandings and may still not be as conducive to diplomatic and cohesive communication as one may think.

Indeed Ahmann argues that it is inconsequential how well someone can speak ELF. Not only do speakers in many cases lack the linguistic capabilities to be able to communicate all their ideas in ELF, but he argues that linguistic capacity needs to be complemented by other facets, which are essential to successful cross-cultural communication such as cultural awareness, awareness of cultural forms of politeness etc.:

Auch auf internationalen Konferenzen und Fachkongressen die Teilnehmer, die auf ihren jeweiligen Gebieten Experten sind, nicht einmal über genügend Englischkenntnisse verfügen, um die Gespräche sachlich sinnvoll zu gestalten, von kulturellen Kompetenzen, landesspezifischen Höflichkeitsformen und anderen Spezifika, die den Erfolg von Geschäftsverhandlungen mit beeinflussen, einmal ganz zu schweigen (2012: 24).

Research by scholars such as Ahmann and Snell-Hornby point to the need for the intermediary, for the translator or interpreter.

Nevertheless, ELF does serve certain supra-national communication purposes and the result of this attempt to use ELF for common communication purposes is often what is termed "hybrid texts". This tendency has been noted by scholars such as Taviano, "*One major consequence of the impact of ELF and globalization on translation is that traditional notions of texts written in a clearly identified language and addressed to a specific culture and readership are no longer valid*" (2013:5). Taviano uses the example of today's EU documents to illustrate the rising trend in hybrid texts. The functionalist approach of translating texts in a specific and cultural context for a specific target audience has had to undergo some reinvention, due in large part to the rise of globalisation and the internationalisation of institutions (Taviano 2013: 5). There are two parallel worlds evolving in the world of translation, one with hybrid texts in a supposed lingua franca for supra-cultural communication for an internationalised audience, and one where more cultural identity is desired, which gives rise to the theory of tribalism and the increase in crowdsourcing and amateur translation to translate into minority languages, dialects etc. if this demand cannot be satisfied by the professional translation industry. An example of the latter would be "fansubbing", which is the crowdsourced subtitling of Japanese anime by fans (Taviano 2013: 7). Clearly then, the translation industry is having to grow and adapt to the two parallel rising trends and cater to them effectively if it wishes to fulfil demand and survive in this globalised, competitive digitalised world.

Crowdsourcing, pre and post-editing of MT are just some of the new demands placed on the translation industry in a globalised world and have evidently done little to cut out the middleman, but instead engendered new roles to be fulfilled by agents within the translation

industry. The rise of ELF has arguably not seen the rise of English as a common language for all communication purposes, but seen its manipulation and modification into a “hybrid”, to reach international audiences. This presents a special challenge for modern translation service providers who have to decide when it is appropriate to internationalise a translation or make it more culturally specific for a particular audience. Discerning between the different functions of a text can thus become confusing, yet with the correct education and adaptability competence, translators are increasingly fulfilling current demand. Throw in the increased use of multimedia and technology involved in translation, such as localisation and CAT tools, and the list of roles to perform by a translator seem to be increasing exponentially.

To alleviate the workload and the increasing decision-making processes as well as internationalised coordination necessary, translation agencies are adapting to fit this ever-widening gap in the market. As has already been explored in the context of changing roles within the translation industry, the rise of globalisation and IT solutions for translation processes, project management and coordination has acquired a prominent role within the industry. The rise of ELF has mostly served to throw up more questions and demands regarding the need for translation into native languages and dialects and along with it, the subsequent need to manage it on an international scale. The awareness regarding quality of translations is also becoming a hot topic of discussion, especially for international businesses which depend on effective communication with an international market to secure its continued livelihood.

This section has highlighted how the phenomena of disintermediation, MT and ELF are actually contributing to a wider debate regarding cultural pluralism and protection of minority languages, a point in case being the EU directive for the protection of minority languages and dialects. Such a directive is rendering translation services indispensable in the modern marketplace. As a result, there has been a tendency towards disintermediation, which is a symptom of the costs involved in the translation process, and while companies strive to find ways to keep these costs down, they look to solutions such as MT. The indispensability of human involvement has not escaped companies’ attention however, as more and more international companies focus on reaching wider audiences in the most effective way. This desire for quality translation at cheaper prices, which are produced as fast as possible in order to satisfy this instant communication need, are allowing capable translation agencies to infiltrate the market and offer and coordinate cheaper and quicker Internet-based outsourced “in house” translations as well as manage the pre- and post-editing involved in MT. Translation agencies can compete to offer the best prices for these cheaper outsourced services, without the hassle and headache for the client of having to search online themselves and risk working with disreputable or unreliable freelance translators abroad.

4.5. Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has further explored the effects of globalisation on the needs for greater management and coordination of translations and the different types of translation services arising thanks to the advent of the Internet. It has put forward scholarly evidence of the increasing need for translation via the rise of cultural pluralism and international bodies such as NATO and the EU. Cross-cultural communication is being increasingly viewed as essential to not only upholding peaceful political and diplomatic relations between nations, but also in a business sense, for brokering successful trade agreements and deals. The chain of people involved in carrying out work abroad is becoming ever more internationalised and complex however, and thus requires cultural brokers and language solutions which can break down and efficiently transmit information across cultural and linguistic borders. This chapter has argued that much like a project of international scope has a manager or team of managers, or a complex construction project has a foreman, translation solutions also require an overseer, i.e. the translation agency.

Such a language coordinating “foreman” has also been named a “Language Strategist” for example, by Swain. She highlights the multifaceted and adaptable nature of the responsibilities of the Language Strategist, who should not only be able to engage with the constantly changing face of ICT, including apps, software and different forms of communication, but also coordinate the usage of them as well as that of MT, TM and the appropriate CAT tools. One of the skillsets (as shown in *figure 9*) involves being “*well-versed in globalization and integration strategies*” (2014: 23). Here Swain emphasises the better suitability of having a team of people overseeing such strategies, rather than many freelance translators working without a main coordinating body to bring them together.

Further to efficiently coordinating globalised processes, Cronin likened the increasing need for streamlining these to the “Fordist” approach adopted in the era of the automobile. The necessity for such an approach is born of the increased desire to keep up with internationally-reaching, fast-paced technologized communication. Time-to-market and cost-related aspects are essential and much like clothing companies, which outsource the manufacturing of their garments to countries where they are cheaper to produce, exactly the same is happening within the translation industry. Virtual offices are popping up online and are accessible and ready to go at a click of a button anywhere in the world. These virtual offices mean there is an expanding network of translators to be accessed all over the world. Yet with an increasing network, comes the increasing need to coordinate and organise the many (and often culturally-diverse) cooperating partners involved. Hence the translation agency has adapted the virtual office to work with translators and coordinate projects anywhere in the world. Moreover, to cut down on costs even further and to be more time efficient, machines have once more been looked to as a solution.

The resulting involvement of MT in the translation process has sparked debate as to how much a machine can accomplish in terms of translation. This chapter has discussed the wide spectrum of human and machine involvement in today's field of translation. Increasingly, software programmes are being developed to allow information to be translated and disseminated at a faster rate, such as in the case of CMS. However, what these software programmes tend to encourage, along with outsourcing, is greater collaboration on translation projects. Open-source content management systems, such as TikiWiki for example (Huberdeau et al 2008: 3) is a further illustration of a cross-lingual wiki engine, which supports collaboration between people anywhere in the world and has a staging and approval process to allow for quality controls (2008: 3).

Indeed, new technology enabling international collaboration actually encourages the technology to be used for this purpose. New roles and responsibilities, work processes and work flows arise thanks to this, a prominent one being outsourcing of translations. And why stop at outsourcing translations? This chapter has shown how all facets of the translation process can be outsourced using the Internet, including services such as localisation and MT-related ones involving pre and post-editing of machine translated texts. The rise of the phenomenon of English as a lingua franca has mostly acted as a catalyst to spur awareness of the need for translators and sparked debate regarding translation quality. This awareness and debate have been seized upon by translation agencies, offering customers comprehensive and cost-effective services, which are seen as more reliable than direct contact between customers and freelance translators.

5. Conclusion

The topic of this work was inspired by real-life professional observations made by the author as both an in-house translator at a small-sized translation agency and then as a freelance translator working for several small to medium-sized translation agencies. One of the main themes which resurfaced time and again when working in both these capacities was one concerning outsourcing. It became clear that there were core elements, which had become indispensable to the translation industry, namely the use of ICT at almost every level of translation and processing, as well as the use of the Internet as a medium of communication and a generator of translation work itself. It also became apparent that this dependence on computer-mediated communication, along with globalisation was what was spurring the aforementioned outsourcing.

Outsourcing seems like a logical consequence of increasingly globalised networking. Danish scholar, Cay Dollerup, summed up the situation in an academic contribution in 2008 when he said *“firms used to have their own staff translators, but these days most firms prefer to use professional translation agencies, which frequently outsource translation work to local freelance translators”*. Why stop at local freelance translators? Personal observations showed that agencies were also using freelancers as well as third party agencies abroad, sometimes on the other side of the world. The financial benefits of employing people abroad, who may charge less for their work needs no further explanation. This did, however, raise questions which needed to be further expanded upon and researched in order to assess the outsourcing situation in the translation industry and what impact it was having as well as what was facilitating it.

This work aimed to explore outsourcing in the world of translation, the circumstances that created it, how prevalent it is and what effect it might have. The hypothesis of this work is that its effects would be a growing need for coordination and project management, which, as Dollerup suggested, would increase the use of translation agencies. This work's goal was also to investigate what role the translation agency would play and how hierarchies within the industry have been and are being affected.

Research for this work has pointed out that the need for translation is unlikely to diminish thanks to the advent of the Internet and the involvement of machines in translation processing. Indeed as many scholars such as O'Brien have pointed out, the trend has been steadily increasing: *“The Open Source movement, globalization and the increase in user-generated content have led to an increasing demand for translation”* (2011:18). All the while this has instigated virtual collaboration between translators, but also it would seem, between non-translators, lay-people, between anyone around the world who has access to an online communication platform. Hierarchies and processes, as once set out by Reiß and Vermeer

and later expanded upon by scholars like Holz-Mänttari and Nord are having to undergo constant modification and are far from being clear-cut. Greater interdisciplinary teamwork, globalised social media platforms and networking as well as phenomena such as crowdsourcing and MOC have brought in a new era of how translations are carried out and have altered the way they are processed as well as who is involved in the processing. In fact, Cronin goes as far as to liken modern translation to a Fordist style chain of production (2013:92), passing through many hands, requiring maximum efficiency to meet ever-increasing consumer demands and time pressure.

Chapter two of this thesis explored the dependency on IT and the Internet as a source of communication, it looked at the aforementioned hierarchies within the modern-day translation industry and who the agents involved are. The conclusions arrived at were that globalised networking is increasing the need for project management, due to greater cross-country, interdisciplinary work needed for the changing face of translation requirements. Chapter three went on to explore virtual communities and platforms in light of the conclusions drawn from chapter two, i.e. greater interdisciplinary teamwork, modified hierarchies and the agents involved in processing. The involvement of a globalised workforce available on a world platform has given rise to less transparency of processing and the potential direct contact between translators/freelancers and customers. Chapter three highlighted how this can give rise to a lack of efficiency as well as coordination and how it has pushed the question of quality standards in translation to the fore like never before.

In terms of efficiency and coordination, it could also be posited that online platforms allowing direct communication between customers and translators could be beneficial, as they cut out the “middleman”, represented by the translation agency. The basis of crowdsourcing and MOC on the surface could indeed be interpreted as such an omission of agencies. Yet research into the use of crowdsourcing and MOC as applied in larger-scale translation projects, for example for facebook, show that translation agencies were nonetheless utilised to implement, coordinate and manage the use of MOC.

Chapter three concluded that coordination of translation processes in the form of project management performed by translation agencies is being recognised and applied by different companies, like facebook, to name but one. Employing translation agencies may be preferential to directly picking out freelance translators on professional online platforms, as agencies have the resources and capital available to vet those involved in the translation process, manage human resources and projects. One of the obvious consequences of global online platforms for the sourcing of translation services is of course the increase of competition and potential lack of quality control implementation or guarantee.

Chapter three also looked at the introduction and application of standards in translation, such as project management norms. These norms are set to offer guidelines to translation service providers, but also provide customers reassurance. Chapter three explored

what the current norms entail and how feasible it would be to deliver as a solo freelance translator. Given that project management norms are considered highly desirable, it would be beneficial to comply with them. Chapter four concluded that it is in fact not entirely possible for freelance translators to fulfil all the requirements stipulated by the norms and they would therefore find it difficult to be ISO certified, unlike a translation agency.

Chapter four addressed the rise of the virtual office, a way of working entirely online, which is being fully capitalised by the translation industry to facilitate globalised outsourcing of translation services. Chapter four showed that some of the consequences of the virtual office being omnipresent online, accessible at any time of day, are that expectations in terms of fast turnaround, quick communication and time-to-market efficiency have increased. This chapter argued and found that translation agencies are well positioned to provide coordinated services to fulfil customers' expectations in terms of efficiency. Coupled with the fact they can much more easily comply with ISO norms and have the required resources necessary to manage projects in a fast-paced online climate, this strengthens the argument for agencies being the most competent to provide the much needed project management services.

Finally, chapter four looked at the wide scope of MT and found that, although this is still mostly in its nascent stages, some MT is already in use. In any case, whether it be Google Translate or a CAT tool, the involvement of humans in pre and post-editing can currently not be ruled out and would be another area requiring greater coordination and management, which translation agencies can provide in future.

The increase in use of globalised online networking and subsequent outsourcing within the translation industry will also undoubtedly lead to a modern rethinking of translation theory as well as how it is taught. This has been suggested in the body of this work, in particular in relation to hierarchies, cooperative partners and translation processes. As the hierarchies and processes of translation undergo transformation via evolving forms of technology and increased globalisation leading to outsourcing of translations, the syllabus in institutes of higher learning will also have to teach courses on how to manage the phenomenon of outsourcing.

This work showed that outsourcing in translation is currently a common occurrence. It explored the many different facets giving rise to this phenomenon as well as the consequences of it, such as greater need for cross-cultural communication, an understanding of chrono-diversity, increasing time-to-market demands and a plethora of tools and software, growing competition and quality criteria to consider. At every turn, research has shown that the tendency of today's globalised, inter-disciplinary society is not to work and stand alone. The translation industry is no different. Cooperation across borders is unlikely to cease in the near future but is instead likely to multiply and expand, with networks, platforms and different collaborative phenomena. This work has pointed to the fact that among all this, there will undoubtedly be a need to coordinate and manage collaboration of such global scope.

Taking all the scholarly opinions, facts and research gathered for the purposes of this work into consideration, the conclusion reached is that translation agencies are carving a new role for themselves in today's society and will take on an even greater significance in terms of what they can offer the industry in the future.

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Index

Tables

- **Table 1** Functionalism: those involved, Prunč, Erich (2007), *Entwicklungslinien der Translationswissenschaft: Von den Asymmetrien der Sprachen zu den Asymmetrien der Macht*, Berlin: Frank & Timme Verlag.....16
- **Table 2** Quahill and Vitroff main services, (<http://www.quahill.com/en/index.html> and <http://vitroff.com/screens.html>).....30

Figures

- **Figure 1** Progression towards teletranslation, O'Hagan, Minako and Ashworth, David (2002), *Translation-mediated Communication in a Digital World*, Clevedon: Multilingual Matters..... 12
- **Figure 2** Principle skills required for managing translation services, Samuelsson-Brown, Geoffrey (2006), *Managing Translation Services- Making the transition from working as a sole practitioner to developing a successful translation organisation*, Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.....20
- **Figure 3** Emergence of the teletranslation industry, O'Hagan, Minako and Ashworth, David (2002), *Translation-mediated Communication in a Digital World*, Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.....21
- **Figure 4** Different roles addressed by the Projetex project management system (<http://www.projetex.com/>)..... 29
- **Figure 5** Chart illustrating the distribution of worldwide Internet users as of November 2014, by region. (<http://www.statista.com/statistics/271401/regional-distribution-of-internet-users-worldwide/>).....41
- **Figure 6** Language outsourcing model, Dunne, K.; Dunne, E (eds.) (2011), *Translation and Localization Project Management: The Art of the Possible*, Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.....47
- **Figure 7** Core elements of community, Dickinson, Angela; Risku, Hanna (2009), *Translators as Networkers: The Role of Virtual Communities*, in Special issue of Hermès "Translator Studies: Focus on the Translator", Dam, Helle V; Korning Zethsen, Karen (ed.).....51
- **Figure 8** Software assistance for knowledge management and collaboration in Internet communities, Langenberg, D.; Welker, M. (2011), *Knowledge Management*

<i>in Virtual Communities in Open Journal of Knowledge Management</i> , Issue III/2011.....	56
- Figure 9 Areas of expertise for language strategists, Swain, Chloe (2014), <i>Social Media Strategies for International Communities in Multilingual</i> , #147, volume 25 issue 7, Parrish, D. (ed.), Idaho: Multilingual Computing Inc.....	77
- Figure 10 Degrees of human interaction with machine translation, adapted from Hutchins & Somers in Cieslak, Magdalena (2011), <i>The Scope and Limits of Machine Translation</i> in Centro de Linguistica da Universidade do Porto Journal, Vol. 3, No. 1, p156-174.....	84

Abstracts

This work aims to explore outsourcing in the world of translation, the circumstances that created it, how prevalent it is and what effects it might have on the translation industry. It investigates the role of the translation agency and how hierarchies within the translation industry have been modified thanks to the advent of the Internet, globalisation and the outsourcing which arose as a consequence.

There is currently a greater demand for the use and management of IT tools, fast evolving software and global online trends within the translation industry. The hypothesis of this work is that as these demands increase, so will the need for translation agencies, which are best equipped in terms of time and capital to manage all facets of the translation process and the increasing number of those involved. Thanks to globalisation, online social networking, phenomena like crowdsourcing and massive online collaboration as well as machine translation, these multifaceted layers of processing and (often international) agents involved will best be managed by a translation agency. This work postulates that the role of the translation agency will become increasingly indispensable to management and coordination of translation services.

In order to investigate this, several aspects were researched and analysed drawing from theories of teleworking, Snell-Hornby's idea of the 'global village', on Reiß and Vermeer's functionalist skopos theory as well as Holz-Mänttari's theory of translational action and Bourdieu's theory of capital. This work also looks at a case study of a translation agency in Vienna as compiled by Risku as well as quality standards and norms, which are being increasingly viewed as desirable.

The conclusions drawn from the application of these theories and analysis of research undertaken by scholars were that the demands placed on the translation industry are in a continuous state of fluctuation and modification. A compelling body of evidence and research show that, increasingly, private people as well as companies are turning to translation agencies to manage these continuous changes, coordinate several outsourced cooperative partners, comply with quality standards and produce the final translation services required.

Diese Arbeit untersucht die Ursachen von Outsourcing, wie verbreitet es ist und die Auswirkungen davon auf die Übersetzungsindustrie. Die Rolle der Übersetzungsagentur und wie sich die Hierarchien innerhalb der Übersetzungsbranche geändert haben, wegen des Aufkommens des Internets, der Globalisierung und des darauf folgenden Outsourcing werden auch erforscht.

Momentan gibt es eine höhere Nachfrage in der Übersetzungsindustrie nach der Anwendung und dem Management von IT-Werkzeugen, sich schnell entwickelnder Software

und globalen online Tendenzen. Die Hypothese dieser Arbeit ist, dass je mehr sich diese Nachfrage erhöht, desto größer wird der Bedarf an Übersetzungsagenturen, die am besten mit Zeit und Kapital ausgestattet sind alle Facetten des Übersetzungsprozesses sowie die zunehmende Anzahl der Akteure zu verwalten. Dank Globalisierung, online sozialer Vernetzungen und Ereignisse wie *Crowdsourcing* und *Massive Online Collaboration* sowie maschinengestützter Übersetzung, werden diese vielseitigen Schichten bezüglich Verarbeitung und (oft internationaler) Agenturen am besten von einer Übersetzungsagentur koordiniert. Diese Arbeit postuliert, dass die Rolle der Übersetzungsagentur mehr und mehr unverzichtbar wird für Management und Koordinierung von Übersetzungsdienstleistungen.

Um dies zu erforschen wurden mehrere Aspekte erforscht und analysiert mithilfe von verschiedensten Theorien wie Teleworking, Snell-Hornbys Idee des „globalen Dorfes“, Reiß und Vermeers Skopos Theorie sowie die Theorie des translatorischen Handels von Holz-Mänttari und Bourdieus Kapitaltheorie. Eine Fallstudie von Risku über einer Übersetzungsagentur in Wien wurde auch benutzt sowie Normen analysiert, die zunehmend als vorteilhaft betrachtet werden.

Die Schlussfolgerungen dieser Arbeit, nach Anwendung der obengenannten Theorien, unter anderen, sind, dass sich die Anforderungen an die Übersetzungsbranche kontinuierlich schwanken und verändern. Es gibt überzeugenden Beweis sowie Recherche, die zeigen, dass sich immer mehr Privatpersonen und Unternehmen auf Übersetzungsagenturen verlassen diese Veränderungen, Outsourcing und ihre Übersetzungsaufträge und –dienstleistungen zu managen sowie Normen und Standards einzuhalten.